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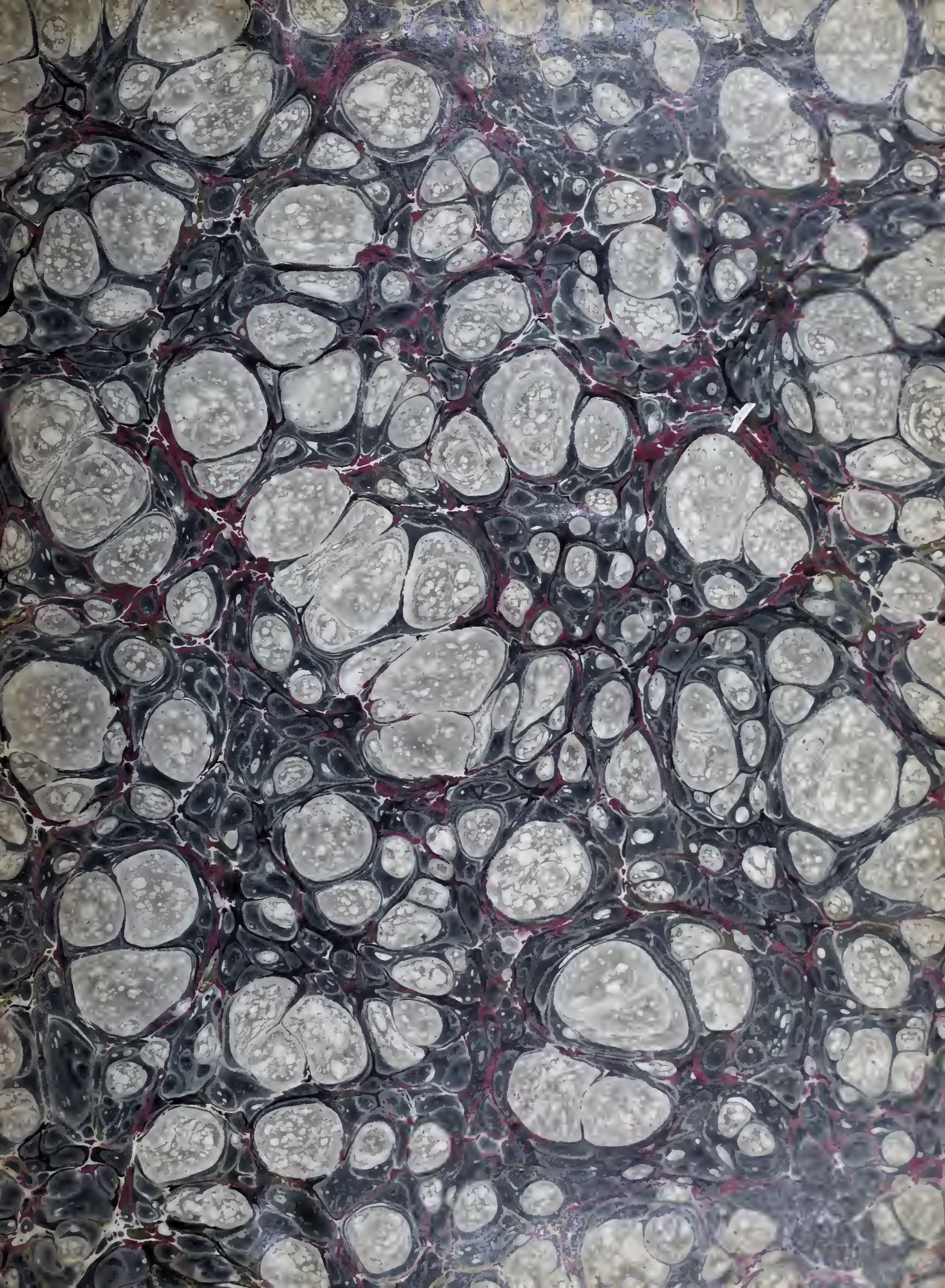

ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.

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Encyclopaedia Britannica:

OR, A

DICTIONARY

OF

ARTS, SCIENCES, AND MISCELLANEOUS LITERATURE;

ENLARGED AND IMPROVED.

THE SIXTH EDITION.

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ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.

China.

1 Boundaries, extent, &c.

CHINA, a country of Asia, situated on the most easterly part of that continent. It is bounded on the north by Tartary; from which it is divided, partly by a prodigious wall of 1500 miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inaccessible mountains. On the east, it is bounded by the ocean; on the west, by part of the Mogul's empire, and India beyond the Ganges, from which it is parted by other ridges of high mountains and sandy deserts; on the south, it is bounded partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochin-China, and partly by the southern or Indian sea, which flows between it and the Philippine islands. There are several ways of computing its length and breadth. According to some of these, it is reckoned 1269, 1600, or 1800 miles in length, and as much in breadth: however, by the best and latest accounts, this vast country is somewhat of an oval form, the breadth being less than the length by little more than a fourth part. It contains 15 provinces, exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situated without the great wall, though under the same dominion. Their names are, 1. Shensi, 2. Shansi, 3. Pecheli, which are situated on the north side, along the wall; 4. Shantong, 5. Kyan-nang, 6. Che-kyang, 7. Fo-kyen, which are situated along the eastern ocean; 8. Quang-tong, 9. Quang-si, 10. Yu-nan, 11. Se-chuen, which stretch themselves towards the south and south-west; and, 12. Honan, 13. Hu-quand, 14. Quey-chew, 15. Kyang-si; which take up the middle part. For a particular description of all these, see their proper articles.

2 Division into provinces.

3 Chinese pretensions to antiquity.

The origin of all nations is involved in obscurity and fable, but that of the Chinese much more so than any other. Every nation is inclined to assume too high an antiquity to itself; but the Chinese carry theirs beyond all bounds. Indeed, though no people on earth are more exact in keeping records of every memorable transaction, yet such is the genius of the Chinese for superstition and fable, that the first part of their history is deservedly contemned by every rational person. What contributes more to the uncertainty of the Chinese history is, that neither we, nor they themselves, have any thing but fragments of their ancient historical books; for, about 213 years before Christ, the reigning emperor Si-whang-ti caused all the books in the empire to be burned, except those written by lawyers and physicians. Nay, the more effectually to destroy the memory of every thing contained in them, he commanded a great number of learned men to be buried alive, lest, from their memories, they should commit to writing something of the true memoirs of the empire. The inaccuracy of the Chinese annals is complained of even by their most respected author Confucius himself; who also affirms, that before his time many of the oldest materials for writing such annals had been destroyed.

4 Why their history is so uncertain.

5 Fabulous history of China.

According to the Chinese histories, the first monarch of the whole universe (that is, of China), was called *Puon-ku*, or *Puen-cu*. This, according to some, was the first man; but according to Bayer and Menzelius, two of the greatest critics in Chinese literature that have hitherto appeared, the word signifies *the highest antiquity*. Puon-ku was succeeded by *Tiene-hoang*, which signifies *the emperor of heaven*. They call him also the intelligent heaven, the supreme king of the middle heaven, &c. According to some of their historians, he was the inventor of letters, and of the cyclic characters by which they determine the place of the year, &c. Tiene-hoang was succeeded by Ti-hoang (the emperor of the earth), who divided the day and night, appointing 30 days to make one moon, and fixed the winter solstice to the 11th moon. Ti-hoang was succeeded by Gine-hoang (sovereign of men), who with his nine brothers shared the government among them. They built cities, and surrounded them with walls; made a distinction between the sovereign and subjects; instituted marriage, &c.

The reigns of these four emperors make up one of what the Chinese called *ki*, "ages," or "periods," of which there were nine before Fo-hi, whom their most sensible people acknowledge as the founder of their empire.

The history of the second *ki* contradicts almost every thing said of the first; for though we have but just now been told that Gine-hoang and his brethren built cities surrounded with walls; yet, in the succeeding age, the people dwelt in caves, or perched upon trees as it were in nests. Of the third *ki* we hear nothing; and in the fourth, it seems matters had been still worse, as we are told that men were then only taught to retire into the hollows of rocks. Of the fifth and sixth we have no accounts. These six periods, according to some writers, contained 90,000 years; according to others, 1,100,750.

In the seventh and eighth *ki*, they tell us over again what they had said of the first; namely, that men began

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China.

gan to leave their caves and dwell in houſes, and were taught to prepare clothes, &c. Tchine-fang, the firſt monarch of the eighth *ki*, taught his ſubjects to take off the hair from ſkins with rollers of wood, and cover themſelves with the ſkins ſo prepared. He taught them alſo to make a kind of web of their hair, to ſerve as a covering to their heads againſt rain. They obeyed his orders with joy, and he called his ſubjects *people clothed with ſkins*. His reign laſted 350 years; that of one of his ſucceſſors, alſo, named Yeou-tſao-chi, laſted more than 300; and his family continued for 12 or 18,000 years. But what is very ſurpriſing, all theſe thouſands and millions of years had elapſed without mankind's having any knowledge of fire. This was not diſcovered till towards the cloſe of this period, by one Souigine. After ſo uſeful a diſcovery, he taught the people to dreſs their victuals; whereas before they had devoured the fleſh of animals quite raw, drunk their blood, and ſwallowed even their hair and feathers. He is alſo ſaid to have been the inventor of fiſhing, letters, &c.

In the ninth period, we find the invention, or at leaſt the origin of letters, attributed to one Tſang-hie, who received them from a divine tortoiſe that carried them on his ſhell, and delivered them into the hands of Tſang-hie. During this period alſo, muſic, money, carriages, merchandiſe, commerce, &c. were invented. There are various calculations of the length of theſe *ki* or periods. Some make the time from Puan-ku to Confucius, who flouriſhed about 479 years before Chriſt, to contain 279,000 years; others, 2,276,000; ſome, 2,759,860 years; others, 3,276,000; and ſome no leſs than 96,961,740 years.

6 Fabulous hiſtory explained.

Theſe extravagant accounts are by ſome thought to contain obſcure and imperfect hints concerning the coſmogony and creation of the world, &c. Puon-ku, the firſt emperor, they think, repreſents eternity preceding the duration of the world. The ſucceeding ones, Tiene-hoang, Ti-hoang, and Gine-hoang, they imagine, ſignify the creation of the heavens and earth, and the formation of man. The ten *ki* or ages, nine of which preceded Fo-hi, mean the ten generations preceding Noah. This may very poſſibly be the caſe; for about 300 years before Chriſt, ſome Jews travelled into China, who might have made the Moſaic writings known there.

What we have now related, contains the ſubſtance of that part of the Chineſe hiſtory which is entirely fabulous. After the nine *ki* or "ages" already taken notice of, the tenth commenced with Fo-hi; and the hiſtory, though ſtill very dark, obſcure and fabulous, begins to grow ſomewhat more conſiſtent and intelligible. Fo-hi was born in the province of Shenſi. His mother walking upon the bank of a lake in that province, ſaw a very large print of a man's foot in the ſand there; and, being ſurrounded with an iris or rainbow, became impregnated. The child was named *Fo-hi*; and, when he grew up, was by his countrymen elected king, on account of his ſuperior merit, and ſtyled *Tyent-tſe*, that is, "the ſon of heaven." He invented the eight *qua*, or ſymbols, conſiſting of three lines each, which, differently combined, formed 64 characters that were made uſe of to expreſs every thing. To give theſe the greater credit, he pretended that

7 Reign of Fo-hi.

he had ſeen them inſcribed on the back of a dragon-horſe (an animal ſhaped like a horſe, with the wings and ſcales of a dragon), which aroſe from the bottom of a lake. Having gained great reputation among his countrymen by this prodigy, he is ſaid to have created mandarins or officers, under the name of *dragons*. Hence we may aſſign a reaſon why the emperors of China always carry a dragon in their banners. He alſo inſtituted marriage, invented muſic, &c. Having eſtabliſhed a prime miniſter, he divided the government of his dominions among four mandarins, and died after a reign of 115 years.

8 Miraculous ſolſtice.

After Fo-hi followed a ſucceſſion of emperors, of whom nothing remarkable is recorded, except that in the reign of *Yau*, the ſeventh after Fohi, the ſun did not ſet for ten days, ſo that the Chineſe were afraid of a general conflagration. This event the compilers of the Univerſal Hiſtory take to be the ſame with that mentioned in the book of Joſhua, when the ſun and moon ſtood ſtill for about the ſpace of a day. Fo-hi they will have to be the ſame with Noah. They imagine, that after the deluge this patriarch remained ſome time with his deſcendants; but on their wicked combination to build the tower of Babel, he ſeparated himſelf from them with as many as he could perſuade to go along with him; and that, ſtill travelling eaſtward, he at laſt entered the fertile country of China, and laid the foundation of that vaſt empire.—But, leaving theſe fabulous and conjectural times, we ſhall proceed to give ſome account of that part of the Chineſe hiſtory which may be more certainly depended on.

9 Hypotheſis concerning this ſolſtice and Fo-hi.

As the Chineſe, contrary to the practice of almoſt all nations, have never ſought to conquer other countries, but rather to improve and content themſelves with their own, their hiſtory for many ages furniſhes nothing remarkable. The whole of their emperors, abſtracting from thoſe who are ſaid to have reigned in the fabulous times, are comprehended in 22 dynaſties, mentioned in the following table.

	Emperors	Before Chriſt.
1. *Hya*, containing	17	2207
2. *Shang*, or *Ing*,	28	1766
3. *Chew*,	35	1122
4. *Tſin*,	4	248
5. *Han*,	25	206
		After Chriſt.
6. *Hew-han*,	2	220
7. *Tſin*,	15	465
8. *Song*,	8	220
9. *Tſi*,	5	479
10. *Lyang*,	4	502
11. *Chin*,	4	557
12. *Swi*,	3	
13. *Twang*,	20	618
14. *Hew-lyang*,	2	907
15. *Hew-tang*,	4	923
16. *Hew-tſin*,	2	936
17. *Hew-han*,	2	947
18. *Hew-chew*,	3	951
19. *Song*,	18	960
20. *Iwen*,	9	1280
21. *Ming*,	16	1368
22. *Tſing*,		1645

This

China.

This table is formed according to the accounts of the Jesuit Du Halde, and is commonly reckoned to be the most authentic; but according to the above-mentioned hypothesis of the compilers of the Universal History, who make *Yau* cotemporary with Joshua, the dynasty of *Hya* did not commence till the year before Christ 1357; and to accommodate the history to their hypothesis, great alterations must be made in the duration of the dynasties.

10 Incursions of the Tartars.

The most interesting particulars of the Chinese history relate only to the incursions of the Tartars, who at last conquered the whole empire, and who still continue to hold the sovereignty; though by transferring the seat of the empire to Peking, and adopting the Chinese language, manners, &c. Tartary would seem rather to have been conquered by China, than China by Tartary. These incursions are said to have begun very early; even in the time of the emperor Shun, successor to Yau above mentioned, in whose reign the miraculous solstice happened. At this time, the Tartars were repulsed, and obliged to retire into their own territories. From time to time, however, they continued to threaten the empire with invasions, and the northern provinces were often actually ravaged by the Tartars in the neighbourhood. About the year before Christ 213, Shi-whang-ti, having fully subdued all the princes, or kings as they were called, of the different provinces, became emperor of China with unlimited power. He divided the whole empire into 36 provinces; and finding the northern part of his dominions much incommoded by the invasions of the neighbouring barbarians, he sent a formidable army against them, which drove them far beyond the boundaries of China. To prevent their return, he built the famous wall already mentioned, which separates China from Tartary. After this, being elated with his own exploits, he formed a design of making posterity believe that he himself had been the first Chinese emperor that ever sat on the throne. For this purpose, he ordered all the historical writings to be burnt, and caused many of the learned to be put to death, as already mentioned.

11 Great wall built.

12 Kitan Tartars settle in China.

What effect the great wall for some time had in preventing the invasions of the Tartars, we are not told; but in the tenth century of the Christian era, those of Kitan or Lyau got a footing in China. The Kitan were a people of eastern Tartary, who dwelt to the north and north-east of the province of Pecheli in China, particularly in that of Lyau-tong, lying without the great wall. These people having subdued the country between Korea and Kashgar, became much more troublesome to the Chinese than all the other Tartars. Their empire commenced about the year 916, in the fourth year of Mo-ti-kyan-ti, second emperor of the 14th Chinese dynasty called *Hew-Lyang*. In 946, Mingt-song, second emperor of the 15th dynasty, being dead, Sheking-tang his son-in-law rebelled against Mingt-song, his son and successor, whom he deprived of his crown and life. This he accomplished by means of an army of 50,000 men furnished by the Kitan. Fi-ti, the son of Mingt-song, being unable to resist the usurper, fled to the city Ghey-chew; where shutting himself up with his family and all his valuable effects, he set fire to the palace, and was burnt to ashes. On his death, Sheking-tang assumed the title of emperor; founded the 16th dynasty; and changed his name to that of *Kaut-su*. But the Kitan general refusing to acknowledge him, he was obliged to purchase a peace by yielding up to the Tartars 16 cities in the province of Pecheli, besides a yearly present of 300,000 pieces of silk.

This submission served only to inflame the avarice and ambition of the Kitan. In 959, they broke the treaty when least expected, and invaded the empire afresh. Tsi-vang, the emperor at that time, opposed them with a formidable army; but through the treachery of his general Lyew-ehi-ywen, the Tartars were allowed to take him prisoner. On this, Tsi-vang was glad to recover his liberty, by accepting of a small principality; while the traitor became emperor of all China, and, changing his name to *Kaut-su*, founded the 17th dynasty. The Tartars, in the mean time, ravaged all the northern provinces without opposition, and then marched into the southern. But being here stopped by some bodies of Chinese troops, the general thought proper to retire with his booty into Tartary. In 962, Kaut-su dying, was succeeded by his son In-ti. The youth of this prince gave an opportunity to the eunuchs to raise commotions; especially as the army was employed at a distance in repelling the invasions of the Tartars. This army was commanded by Ko-ghey, who defeated the enemy in several battles, and thus restored peace to the northern provinces. In the mean time, In-ti was slain by his eunuchs, and the empress placed his brother on the throne: but Ko-ghey returning in triumph, was saluted emperor by his victorious army; and the empress being unable to support the rights of her son, was obliged to submit, while Ko-ghey, assuming the name of *Tay-tsu*, founded the 18th dynasty. Nine years after this, however, the grandees of the empire, setting aside Kong-ti, the third in succession from Tay-tsu, on account of his non-age, proclaimed his guardian, named *Chau-quang-yu*, emperor; who, assuming the name of Kau-tsu, founded the 19th dynasty, called *Song* or *Tsong*.

Under this monarch the empire began to recover itself; but the Kitan still continued their incursions. The successors of Kau-tsu opposed them with various success; but at last, in 978, the barbarians became so strong as to lay siege to a considerable city. Tay-tsong, successor to Kau-tsu, detached 300 soldiers, each carrying a light in his hand, against them in the night-time, with orders to approach as near as possible to the Tartar camp. The barbarians imagining, by the number of lights, that the whole Chinese army was at hand, immediately fled, and, falling into the ambuscades laid for them by the Chinese general, were almost all cut to pieces.

This check, however, did not long put a stop to the ravages of the Kitan. In the year 999, they laid siege to a city in the province of Pecheli; but Ching-tsong, successor to Tay-tsong, came upon them with his army so suddenly, that they betook themselves to flight. The emperor was advised to take advantage of their consternation, and recover the country which had been yielded to them; but instead of pursuing his victory, he bought a peace by consenting to pay annually 100,000 tael (about 34,000l.), and 200,000 pieces of silk. The youth and pacific disposition of

China.

Jin-tſong, ſucceſſor to the Ching-tſong, revived the courage of the Kitan; and, in 1035, war would have been renewed, had not the emperor condeſcended to as ſhameful a treaty as that concluded by his father. Two years after, the Tartars demanded reſtitution of ten cities in the province of Pecheli, which had been taken by Ko-ghey founder of the 18th dynaſty: upon which Jin-tſong engaged to pay them an annual tribute of 200,000 taels of ſilver, and 300,000 pieces of ſilk, in lieu of theſe cities.

13 Kitan driven out by the eaſtern Tartars;

From this time the Kitan remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of their Chineſe dominions till the year 1117. Whey-tſong, at that time emperor, being able neither to bear their ravages, nor by himſelf to put a ſtop to them, reſolved upon a remedy which at laſt proved worſe than the diſeaſe. This was to call in the Nu-che, Nyu-che, or Eaſtern Tartars, to deſtroy the kingdom of the Kitan. From this he was diſſuaded by the king of Korea, and moſt of his own miniſters; but, diſregarding their ſalutary advice, he joined his forces to thoſe of the Nu-che. The Kitan were then everywhere defeated; and at laſt reduced to ſuch extremity, that thoſe who remained were forced to leave their country, and fly to the mountains of the weſt.

14 who aſſume the name of *Kin*, and invade China.

Thus the empire of the Kitan was totally deſtroyed, but nothing to the advantage of the Chineſe; for the Tartar general, elated with his conqueſt, gave the name of *Kin* to his new dominion, aſſumed the title of emperor, and began to think of aggrandizing himſelf, and enlarging his empire. For this purpoſe, he immediately broke the treaties concluded with the Chineſe emperor; and, invading the provinces of Pecheli and Shenſi, made himſelf maſter of the greater part of them. Whey-tſong, finding himſelf in danger of loſing his dominions, made ſeveral advantageous propoſals to the Tartar; who, ſeeming to comply with them, invited him to come and ſettle matters by a perſonal conference. The Chineſe monarch complied: but, on his return, the terms agreed on ſeemed intolerable to his miniſters; ſo that they told him the treaty could not ſubſiſt, and that the moſt cruel war was preferable to ſuch an ignominious peace. The Kin monarch, being informed of all that paſſed, had recourſe to arms, and took ſeveral cities. Whey-tſong was weak enough to go in perſon to hold a ſecond conference; but, on his arrival, was immediately ſeized by the Tartar. He was kept priſoner under a ſtrong guard during the remaining part of his life; and ended his days in 1126, in the deſert of Shamo, having nominated his eldeſt ſon Kin-tſong to ſucceed him.

15 They take the emperor priſoner.

Kin-tſong began his reign with putting to death ſix miniſters of ſtate, who had betrayed his father into the hands of the Kin Tartars. The barbarians in the meantime purſued their conqueſts without oppoſition. They croſſed the Whang-ho, or Yellow river, which a handful of troops might have prevented; and marching directly towards the imperial city, took and plundered it. Then ſeizing the emperor and his conſort, they carried them away captives: but many of the principal lords, and ſeveral of the miniſters, preferring death to ſuch an ignominious bondage, killed themſelves. The Kin being informed by the empreſs *Meng* that ſhe had been divorced, they left her behind. This proved the means of ſaving the empire; for by her wiſdom and prudence ſhe got the crown placed on the head of Kau-tſong, ninth ſon of the emperor Whey-tſong by his divorced empreſs.

16 Imperial city and another emperor taken.

Kau-tſong fixed his court at Nanking the capital of Kyang-nan; but ſoon after was obliged to remove it to Kang-chew in Che-kyang. He made ſeveral efforts to recover ſome of his provinces from the Kin, but without effect. Ili-tſong the Kin monarch, in the mean time, endeavoured to gain the eſteem of his Chineſe ſubjects by paying a regard to their learning and learned men, and honouring the memory of Confucius. Some time after he advanced to Nanking, from whence Kau-tſong had retired, and took it: but, receiving advice that Yo-ſi, general of the Song, or ſouthern Chineſe, was advancing by long marches to the relief of that city, they ſet fire to the palace, and retired northward. However, Yo-ſi arrived time enough to fall upon their rear-guard, which ſuffered very much; and from this time the Kin never dared to croſs the rivar Kyang. In a few years afterwards the Chineſe emperor ſubmitted to become tributary to the Kin, and concluded a peace with them upon very diſhonourable terms. This ſubmiſſion, however, was of little avail: for, in 1163, the Tartars broke the peace, and, invading the ſouthern province with a formidable army, took the city of Yang-chew. The king, having approached the river Kyang, near its mouth, where it is wideſt as well as moſt rapid, commanded his troops to croſs it, threatening with his drawn ſword to kill thoſe who refuſed. On receiving ſuch an unreaſonable command, the whole army mutinied; and the king being killed in the beginning of the tumult, the army immediately retired.

17 Progreſs of the Kin checked.

From this time to the year 1210, nothing remarkable occurs in the Chineſe hiſtory; but this year, Jenghiz-khan, chief of the weſtern Tartars, *Moguls*, or *Mungls*, quarrelled with Yong-tſi emperor of the Kin; and at the ſame time the king of Hya, diſguſted at being refuſed aſſiſtance againſt Jenghiz-khan, threatened him with an invaſion on the weſt ſide. Yong-tſi prepared for his defence; but in 1211, receiving news that Jenghiz-khan was advancing ſouthward with his whole army, he was ſeized with fear, and made propoſals of peace, which were rejected. In 1212, the Mogul generals forced the great wall; or, according to ſome writers, had one of the gates treacherouſly opened to them, to the north of Shanſi; and made incurſions as far as Peking, the capital of the Kin empire. At the ſame time the province of Lyau-tong was almoſt totally reduced by ſeveral Kitan lords who had joined Jenghiz-khan; ſeveral ſtrong places were taken, and an army of 300,000 Kin defeated by the Moguls. In autumn they laid ſiege to the city of Tay-tong-fu; where, although the governor Hujaku fled, yet Jenghiz-khan met with conſiderable reſiſtance. Having loſt a vaſt number of men, and being himſelf wounded by an arrow, he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege and retire into Tartary; after which the Kin retook ſeveral cities. The next year, however, Jenghiz-khan re-entered China; retook the cities which the Kin had reduced the year before; and overthrew their

18 They are attacked by Jenghiz-khan and the king of Hya.

19 Great wall forced by Jenghiz-khan.

China.

their armies in two bloody battles, in one of which the ground was ſtrewed with dead bodies for upwards of four leagues.

The ſame year Yong-tſi was ſlain by his general Hujaku; and Sun, a prince of the blood, advanced in his room. After this the Moguls, attacking the empire with four armies at once, laid waſte the provinces of Shanſi, Honan, Pecheli, and Shan-tong. In 1214 Jenghiz-khan ſat down before Peking; but inſtead of aſſaulting the city, offered terms of peace, which were accepted, and the Moguls retired into Tartary. After their departure, the emperor, leaving his ſon at Peking, removed his court to Pyen-lyang near Kay-fong-fu, the capital of Honan. At this Jenghiz khan being offended, immediately ſent troops to beſiege Peking. The city held out to the fifth month of the year 1215, and then ſurrendered. At the ſame time the Moguls finiſhed the conqueſt of Lyau-tong; and the Song refuſed to pay the uſual tribute to the Kin.

20 Peking taken.

21 Southern Chineſe declared war againſt the Kin.

In 1216, Jenghiz-khan returned to purſue his conqueſts in the weſt of Aſia, where he ſtaid ſeven years; during which time his general Muhuli made great progreſs in China againſt the Kin emperor. He was greatly aſſiſted by the motions of Ning-tſong emperor of the Song, or ſouthern China; who, incenſed by the frequent perfidies of the Kin, had declared war againſt them, and would hearken to no terms of peace, though very advantageous propoſals were made. Notwithſtanding this, however, in 1220, the Kin, exerting themſelves, raiſed two great armies, one in Shenſi, and the other in Shan-tong. The former baffled the attempts of the Song and king of Hya, who had united againſt them; but the latter, though no fewer than 200,000, were entirely defeated by Muhuli. In 1221, that officer paſſed the Whang-ho, and died after conquering ſeveral cities.

22 Jenghiz-khan deſtroys the kingdom of Hya;

In 1224, the Kin emperor died; and was ſucceeded by his ſon Shew, who made peace with the king of Hya; but next year, that kingdom was entirely deſtroyed by Jenghiz-khan. In 1226, Oktay, ſon to Jenghiz-khan, marched into Honan, and beſieged Kay-fong-fu, capital of the Kin empire, but was obliged to withdraw into Shenſi, where he took ſeveral cities, and cut in pieces an army of 30,000 men. In 1227 Jenghiz-khan died, after having deſired his ſons to demand a paſſage for their army through the dominions of the Song, without which he ſaid they could not eaſily vanquiſh the Kin.

23 and dies.

After the death of that great conqueror, the war was carried on with various ſucceſs; but though the Moguls took above 60 important poſts in the province of Shenſi, they found it impoſſible to force Ton-quan, which it behoved them to do in order to penetrate effectually into Honan. In April 1231 they took the capital of Shenſi, and defeated the Kin army which came to its relief. Here one of the officers deſired Prince Toley to demand a paſſage from the Song through the country of Han-chong-fu. This propoſal Toley communicated to his brother Oktay, who approved of it as being conformable to the dying advice of Jenghiz-khan. Hereupon Toley, having aſſembled all his forces, ſent a meſſenger to the Song generals to demand a paſſage through their territories. This, however, they not only refuſed, but put the meſſenger to death; which ſo enraged Toley that he ſwore to make them repent of it, and was ſoon as good as his word. He decamped in Auguſt 1231; and having forced the paſſes, put to the ſword the inhabitants of Wha-yang and Fong-chew, two cities in the diſtrict of Hang-chong-fu. Then having cut down rocks to fill up deep abyſſes, and made roads through places almoſt inacceſſible, he came and beſieged the city of Hang-chong-fu itſelf. The miſerable inhabitants fled to the mountains on his approach, and more than 100,000 of them periſhed. After this, Toley divided his forces, conſiſting of 30,000 horſe, into two bodies. One of theſe went weſtward to Myen-chew: from thence, after opening the paſſages of the mountains, they arrived at the river Kyaling, which runs into the great Kyang. This they croſſed on rafts made of the wood of demoliſhed houſes; and then, marching along its banks, ſeized many important poſts. At laſt, having deſtroyed more than 140 cities, towns, or fortreſſes, they returned to the army. The ſecond detachment ſeized an important poſt in the mountains, called *Toutong*, ſix or ſeven leagues to the caſtward of Hang-chong-fu. On the other ſide Oktay advanced, in October, towards Pu-chew a city of Shanſi; which being taken after a vigorous defence, he prepared to paſs the Whang-ho. Toley, after ſurmounting incredible difficulties, arrived in December on the borders of Honan, and made a ſhow as if he deſigned to attack the capital of the Kin empire. On his firſt appearance in Honan through a paſſage ſo little ſuſpected, every body was filled with terror and aſtoniſhment, ſo that he proceeded for ſome time without oppoſition. At laſt the emperor ordered his generals, Hota, Ilapua, and others, to march againſt the enemy. Toley boldly attacked them; but was obliged to retire, which he did in good order. Hota was for purſuing him, ſaying that the Mogul army did not exceed 30,000 men, and that they ſeemed not to have eaten any thing for two or three days. Ilapua, however, was of opinion that there was no occaſion for being ſo haſty, as the Moguls were encloſed between the rivers Han and Whang-ho, ſo that they could not eſcape. This negligence they ſoon had occaſion to repent of: for Toley, by a ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of their heavy baggage; which accident obliged them to retire to Tang-chew. From thence they ſent a meſſenger to acquaint the emperor that they had gained the battle, but concealed the loſs of their baggage. This good news filled the court with joy; and the people who had retired into the capital for its defence, left it again, and went into the country: but, in a few days after, the vanguard of the Moguls, who had been ſent by the emperor Oktay, appeared in the field, and carried off a great number of theſe that had quitted the city.

24 Moguls quarrel with the Song.

25 Exploits of Toley.

26 Capital of the Kin empire beſieged.

In January 1232, Oktay paſſing the Whang-ho, encamped in the diſtrict of Kay-fong-fu, capital of the Kin empire, and ſent his general Suputay to beſiege the city. At that time the place was near 30 miles in circumference; but having only 40,000 ſoldiers to defend it, as many more from the neighbouring cities, and 20,000 peaſants, were ordered into it; while the emperor publiſhed an affecting declaration, animating the people to defend it to the laſt extremity. Oktay, having heard with joy of Toley's entrance into Honan, ordered him to ſend ſuccours to Suputay. On the

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the other hand, the Kin generals advanced with 150,000 men to relieve the city; but being obliged to divide their forces, in order to avoid in part the great road, which Toley had obstructed with trees, they were attacked by the prince at a disadvantage, and, after a faint resistance, defeated with great slaughter, and the loss of both their generals, one killed and the other taken. The emperor now ordered the army at Tong-quan and other fortified places to march to the relief of Kay-fong-fu. They assembled accordingly, to the number of 110,000 foot and 15,000 horse; and were followed by vast numbers of people, who expected by their means to be protected from the enemy. But many of these troops having deserted, and the rest being enfeebled by the fatigues of their march, they dispersed on the approach of their pursuers, who killed all they found in the highways. After this the Moguls took Tong-quan and some other considerable posts; but were obliged to raise the sieges of Quey-te-fu and Loyang by the bravery of the governors. Kyang-shin, governor of Loyang, had only 3 or 4000 soldiers under him, while his enemies were 30,000 strong. He placed his worst soldiers on the walls, putting himself at the head of 400 brave men; whom he ordered to go naked, and whom he led to all dangerous attacks. He invented engines to cast large stones, which required but few hands to play them, and aimed so true as to hit at 100 paces distance. When their arrows failed, he cut those shot by the enemy into four pieces; pointed them with pieces of brass coin; and discharged them from wooden tubes with as much force as bullets are from a musket. Thus he harassed the Moguls for three months so grievously, that they were obliged, notwithstanding their numbers, to abandon the enterprise.

27 Bravery of the besieged.

Oktay, at last, notwithstanding his successes, resolved to return to Tartary; and offered the Kin emperor peace, provided he became tributary, and delivered up to him 27 families which he named. These offers were very agreeable to the emperor; but Suputay, taking no notice of the treaty, pushed on the siege of the capital with more vigour than ever. By the help of the Chinese slaves in his army, the Mogul general soon filled the ditch; but all his efforts seemed only to inspire the besieged with new vigour. The Moguls at that time made use of artillery, but were unable to make the least impression upon the city walls. They raised walls round those they besieged, which they fortified with ditches, towers, and battlements. They proceeded also to sap the walls of the city; but were very much annoyed by the artillery of the besieged, especially by their bombs, which sinking into the galleries, and bursting under ground, made great havock among the miners. For 16 days and nights the attacks continued without intermission; during which time an incredible number of men perished on both sides; at length, Suputay, finding that he could not take the city, withdrew his troops, under pretence of conferences being on foot. Soon after the plague began in Kay-fong-fu; and raged with such violence, that, in 50 days, 900,000 biers were carried out, besides a vast multitude of the poorer sort who could not afford any.

28 Peace concluded;

29 and broken.

In a short time two unlucky accidents occasioned a renewal of the war; which now put an end to the empire of the Kin. Gan-yong, a young Mogul lord, having assumed the government of some cities in Kyang-nan, and killed the officer sent to take possession of them, declared for the Kin. The emperor unwarily took Gan-yong into his service, and gave him the title of prince. Upon this Oktay sent an envoy, attended by 30 other persons, to inquire into the affair; but the Kin officers killed them all, without being punished by the emperor. Suputay, having informed his master of all these proceedings, was ordered to continue the war in Honan. Shew-fu now commanded his officers to unite their troops for the defence of the capital; but before his orders could be obeyed, they were attacked and defeated, one after another, by the Moguls. This obliged him to raise soldiers from among the peasants, for whose subsistence the people were taxed $\frac{1}{10}$ths of the rice they possessed. The city began now to be distressed for want of provisions; and as it was but in a bad posture of defence, the emperor marched with an army against the Moguls. His expedition proved unfortunate; for, sending part of his army to besiege a city called *Why-chew*, it was totally cut in pieces, and Suputay a second time sat down before the capital.

30 Capital again besieged, and taken.

On hearing this bad news, the emperor repassed the Whang-ho, and retired to Quey-te-fu. Here he had not been long before the capital was delivered up by treachery, and Suputay put all the males of the imperial race to death; but, by the express command of Oktay, spared the inhabitants, who are said to have amounted to 1,400,000 families. After this disaster, the unhappy monarch left his troops at Quey-te-fu, and retired to Juning-fu, a city in the southern part of Honan, attended only by 400 persons. Here the distance of the Moguls made him think of living at ease; but while he flattered himself with these vain hopes, the enemy's army arrived before the city and invested it. The garrison were terrified at their approach; but were encouraged by the emperor, and his brave general Hu-sye-hu, to hold out to the last. As there was not in the city a sufficient number of men, the women, dressed in men's clothes, were employed to carry wood, stones, and other necessary materials to the walls. All their efforts, however, were ineffectual. They were reduced to such extremities, that for three months they fed on human flesh; killing the old and feeble, as well as many prisoners, for food. This being known to the Moguls, they made a general assault in January 1234. The attack continued from morning till night; but at last the assailants were repulsed. In this action, however, the Kin lost all their best officers; upon which the emperor resigned the crown to Cheng-lin a prince of the blood. Next morning, while the ceremony of investing the new emperor was performing, the enemy mounted the south walls, which were defended only by 200 men; and the south gate being at the same time abandoned, the whole army broke in. They were opposed, however, by Hu-sye-hu; who, with 1000 soldiers, continued to fight with amazing intrepidity. In the mean time Shew-fu, seeing every thing irreparably lost, lodged the seal of the empire in a house; and then causing sheaves of straw to be set round it, ordered it to be set on fire as soon as he was dead. After giving this order he hanged himself, and his commands were executed

31 Siege of Juning-fu.

32 Unhappy fate of the emperor.

33

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34 Diſſolution of the Kin empire.

cuted by his domeſtics. Hu-ſye-hu, who ſtill continued fighting with great bravery, no ſooner heard of the tragical death of the emperor, than he drowned himſelf in the river Ju; as did alſo 500 of his moſt reſolute ſoldiers. The ſame day the new emperor, Cheng-lin, was ſlain in a tumult; and thus an end was put to the dominion of the Kin Tartars in China.

35 War between the Song and the Moguls.

The empire of China was now to be ſhared between the Song, or ſouthern Chineſe, and the Moguls. It had been agreed upon, that the province of Honan ſhould be delivered up to the Song as ſoon as the war was finiſhed. But they, without waiting for the expiration of the term, or giving Oktay notice of their proceedings, introduced their troops into Kay-fong-fu, Lo-yang, and other conſiderable cities. On this the Mogul general reſolved to attack them; and repaſſing the Whang-ho, cut in pieces part of the garriſon of Lo-yang, while they were out in ſearch of proviſions. The garriſon of Kay-fong-fu likewiſe abandoned that place; and the Song emperor degraded the officers who had been guilty of thoſe irregularities, ſending ambaſſadors to Oktay, at the ſame time, to deſire a continuance of the peace. What Oktay's anſwer was we are not told, but the event ſhowed that he was not well pleaſed; for, in 1235, he ordered his ſecond ſon Prince Kotovan, and his general Chahay, to attack the Song in Se-chwen, while others marched towards the borders of Kyang-nan.

36 Dreadful engagement.

In 1236, the Moguls made great progreſs in the province of Huquang, where they took ſeveral cities, and put vaſt numbers to the ſword. This year they introduced paper or ſilk money, which had formerly been uſed by Chang-tſong, ſixth emperor of the Kin. Prince Kotovan forced the paſſages into the diſtrict of Hang-chong-fu in the province of Shenſi, which he entered with an army of 500,000 men. Here a terrible battle was fought between the vaſt army of the Moguls and the Chineſe troops, who had been driven from the paſſages they defended. The latter conſiſted only of 10,000 horſe and foot, who were almoſt entirely cut off; and the Moguls loſt ſuch a number of men, that the blood is ſaid to have run for two leagues together. After this victory the Moguls entered Se-chwen, which they almoſt entirely reduced, committing ſuch barbarities, that, in one city, 40,000 people choſe rather to put an end to their own lives than ſubmit to ſuch cruel conquerors.

In 1237, the Moguls received a conſiderable check before the city of Gantong in Kyang-nan, the ſiege of which they were obliged to raiſe with loſs. In 1238, they beſieged Lu-chuw, another city in the ſame province. They ſurrounded it with a rampart of earth and a double ditch; but the Chineſe general ordered their intrenchments to be filled with immenſe quantities of herbs ſteeped in oil, and then ſet on fire, while he ſhot ſtones upon them from a tower ſeven ſtories high. At the ſame time a vigorous ſally was made; and the Mogul army being thrown into the utmoſt diſorder, were obliged finally to abandon the ſiege, and retire northwards.

In 1239, theſe barbarians were oppoſed by a general called Meng kong, with great ſucceſs; who, this and the following year, gained great honour by his exploits. While he lived, the Moguls were never able to make any conſiderable progreſs; but his death, in 1246, proved of the greateſt detriment to the Chineſe affairs: and ſoon after, the Tartars renewed the war with more vigour and ſucceſs than ever. In 1255, they re-entered the province of Se-chwen; but ſtill met with vigorous oppoſition in this quarter, becauſe the Chineſe took care to have Se-chwen furniſhed with good troops and generals. Though they were always beaten, being greatly inferior in number to their enemies, yet they generally retook the cities the Moguls had reduced, as the latter were commonly obliged to withdraw for want of proviſions and forage. In 1259 they undertook the ſiege of Ho-chew, a ſtrong city to the weſt of Peking, defended by Vang-kyen, a very able officer, who commanded a numerous garriſon. The ſiege continued from the month of February till Auguſt; during which time the Moguls loſt an immenſe number of men. On the 10th of Auguſt they made a general aſſault in the night. They mounted the walls before the governor had intelligence; but were ſoon attacked by him with the utmoſt fury. The Mogul emperor, Meng-ko, himſelf came to the ſcalade; but his preſence was not ſufficient to overcome the valour of Vang-kyen. At the ſame time the ſcaling-ladders of the Moguls were blown down by a ſtorm; upon which a terrible ſlaughter enſued, and amongſt the reſt fell the emperor himſelf. Upon this diſaſter the Mogul generals agreed to raiſe the ſiege, and retired towards Shen-ſi.

37 Siege of Ho-chew.

38 Moguls defeated, and their emperor killed.

On the death of Meng-ko, Hupilay, or Kublay Khan, who ſucceeded him, laid ſiege to Vu-chang-fu, a city not far diſtant from the capital of the Song empire.

At this the emperor being greatly alarmed, diſtributed immenſe ſums among his troops; and, having raiſed a formidable army, marched to the relief of Vu-chang-fu. Unfortunately the command of this army was committed to the care of Kya-tſe-tau, a man without either courage or experience in war. He was beſides very vain and vindictive in his temper; often uſing the beſt officers ill, and entirely overlooking their merit, which cauſed many of them to go over to the Moguls. The ſiege of Vu-chang-fu was commenced, and had continued a conſiderable time, when Kya-tſe-tau, afraid of its being loſt, and at the ſame time not daring to take any effectual ſtep for its relief, made propoſals of peace. A treaty was accordingly concluded, by which Kya-tſe-tau engaged to pay an annual tribute of about 50,000l. in ſilver and as much in ſilk; acknowledging likewiſe the ſovereignty of the Moguls over the Song empire. In conſequence of this treaty, the Moguls retreated after the boundaries of the two empires had been fixed, and repaſſed the Kyang; but 170 of them having ſtaid on the other ſide of the river, were put to death by Kya-tſe-tau.

39 Treachery of a Chineſe miniſter.

This wicked miniſter totally concealed from the emperor his having made ſuch a ſhameful treaty with the Moguls; and the 170 ſoldiers maſſacred by his order, gave occaſion to a report that the enemy had been defeated; ſo that the Song court believed that they had been compelled to retreat by the ſuperior valour and wiſdom of Kya-tſe-tau. This proved the ruin of the empire; for, in 1260, the Mogul emperor ſent Hauking to the Chineſe court to execute the treaty according to the terms agreed on with Kya-tſe-tau.

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The minister, dreading the arrival of this envoy, imprisoned him near Nanking; and took all possible care that neither Hupilay, nor Li-tsong the Chinese emperor, should ever hear any thing of him.

It was impossible such unparalleled conduct could fail to produce a new war. Hupilay's courtiers incessantly pressed him to revenge himself on the Song for their treacherous behaviour; and he soon published a manifesto against them, which was followed by a renewal of hostilities in 1268. The Mogul army amounted to 300,000 men; but notwithstanding their numbers, little progress was made till the year 1271. Syan-yang and Fan-ching, cities in the province of Se-chew, had been besieged for a long time ineffectually; but this year an *Igur* lord advised Hupilay to send for several of those engineers out of the west, who knew how to cast stones of 150 pounds weight out of their engines, which made holes of seven or eight feet wide in the strongest walls. Two of these engineers were accordingly sent for; and after giving a specimen of their art before Hupilay, were sent to the army in 1272. In the beginning of 1273 they planted their engines against the city of Fan-ching, and presently made a breach in the walls. After a bloody conflict the suburbs were taken; and soon after the Moguls made themselves masters of the walls and gates of the city. Nevertheless, a Chinese officer, with only 100 soldiers, resolved to fight from street to street. This he did for a long time with the greatest obstinacy, killing vast numbers of the Moguls; and both parties are said to have been so much overcome with thirst, that they drank human blood to quench it. The Chinese set fire to the houses, that the great beams, falling down, might embarrass the way of their pursuers; but at last, being quite wearied out, and filled with despair, they put an end to their own lives. After the taking of Fan-ching, all the materials which had served at the siege were transported to Seyen-yang. The two engineers posted themselves against a wooden retrenchment raised on the ramparts. This they quickly demolished; and the besieged were so intimidated by the noise and havock made by the stones cast from these terrible engines, that they immediately surrendered.

40 Desperate conflict.

In 1274, Pe-yen, an officer of great valour, and endowed with many other good qualities, was promoted to the command of the Mogul army. His first exploits were the taking of two strong cities; after which he passed the great river Ky-ang, defeated the Song army, and laid siege to Vu-chang-fu. This city was soon intimidated into a surrender; and Pe-yen, by restraining the barbarity of his soldiers, whom he would not allow to hurt any body, soon gained the hearts of the Chinese so much, that several cities surrendered to him on the first summons. In the mean time the treacherous Kya-tse-tau, who was sent to oppose Pe-yen, was not ashamed to propose peace on the terms he had formerly concluded with Hupilay; but these being rejected, he was obliged at length to come to an engagement. In this he was defeated, and Pe-yen continued his conquests with great rapidity. Having taken the city of Nanking, and some others, he marched towards Hang-chew-fu, the capital of the Song empire. Peace was now again proposed, but rejected by the Mogul general; and at last the empress was constrained to put herself, with her son, then an infant, into the hands of Pe-yen, who immediately sent them to Hupilay.

41 Chinese empress submits.

The submission of the empress did not yet put an end to the war. Many of the chief officers swore to do their utmost to rescue her from the hands of her enemies. In consequence of this resolution they distributed their money among the soldiers, and soon got together an army of 40,000 men. This army attacked the city where the young emperor Kong-tsong was lodged, but without success; after which, and several other vain attempts, they raised one of his brothers to the throne, who then took upon him the name of Twon-tsong. He was but nine years of age when he was raised to the imperial dignity, and enjoyed it but a very short time. In 1277 he was in great danger of perishing, by reason of the ship on board which he then was being cast away. The poor prince fell into the water, and was taken up half dead with the fright. A great part of his troops perished at that time, and he soon after made offers of submission to Hupilay. These, however, were not accepted; for, in 1278, the unhappy Twon-tsong was obliged to retire into a little desert island on the coast of Quang-tong, where he died in the 11th year of his age.

42 Dissolution of the Song empire.

Notwithstanding the progress of the Moguls, vast territories still remained to be subdued before they could become masters of all the Chinese empire. On the death of Twon-tsong, therefore, the mandarins raised to the throne his brother, named Te-ping, at that time but eight years of age. His army consisted of no fewer than 200,000 men; but being utterly void of discipline, and entirely ignorant of the art of war, they were defeated by 20,000 Mogul troops. Nor was the fleet more successful; for being put in confusion by that of the Moguls, and the emperor in danger of falling into their hands, one of the officers taking him on his shoulders, jumped with him into the sea, where they were both drowned. Most of the mandarins followed this example, as did also the empress and minister, all the ladies and maids of honour, and multitudes of others, insomuch that 100,000 people are thought to have perished on that day. Thus ended the Chinese race of emperors; and the Mogul dynasty, known by the name of *Ywen*, commenced.

43 Reign of Hupilay.

Though no race of men that ever existed were more remarkable for cruelty and barbarity than the Moguls; yet it doth not appear that the emperors of the Ywen dynasty were in any respect worse than their predecessors. On the contrary, Hupilay, by the Chinese called *Shi-tsu*, found the way of reconciling the people to his government, and even of endearing himself to them so much, that the reign of his family is to this day styled by the Chinese *the wise government*. This he accomplished by keeping as close as possible to their ancient laws and customs, by his mild and just government, and by his regard for their learned men. He was indeed ashamed of the ignorance and barbarity of his Mogul subjects, when compared with the Chinese. The whole knowledge of the former was summed up in their skill in managing their arms and horses, being perfectly destitute of every art or science, or even of the knowledge of letters. In 1269, he had caused the Mogul characters to be contrived

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trived. In 1280, he caused some mathematicians search for the source of the river Whang-ho, which at that time was unknown to the Chinese themselves. In four months time they arrived in the country where it rises, and made a map of it, which they presented to his majesty. The same year a treatise on astronomy was published by his order; and, in 1282, he ordered the learned men to repair from all parts of the empire, to examine the state of literature, and take measures for its advancement.

At his first accession to the crown he fixed his residence at Tay-ywen-fu, the capital of Shen-si; but thought proper afterwards to remove it to Peking. Here, being informed that the barks which brought to court the tribute of the southern provinces, or carried on the trade of the empire, were obliged to come by sea, and often suffered shipwreck, he caused that celebrated canal to be made, which is at present one of the wonders of the Chinese empire, being 300 leagues in length. By this canal above 9000 imperial barks transport with ease, and at small expence, the tribute of grain, rice, silk, &c. which is annually paid to the court. In the third year of his reign Shi-tsu formed a design of reducing the islands of Japan, and the kingdoms of Tonquin and Cochin-china. Both these enterprises ended unfortunately, but the first remarkably so; for of 100,000 persons employed in it, only four or five escaped with the melancholy news of the destruction of the rest, who all perished by shipwreck. Shi tsu reigned 15 years, died in the 80th year of his age, and was succeeded by his grandson. The throne continued in the Ywen family to the year 1367, when Shun-ti, the last of that dynasty, was driven out by a Chinese named Chu. During this period the Tartars had become enervated by long prosperity; and the Chinese had been roused into valour by their subjection. Shun-ti, the reigning prince, was quite sunk in sloth and debauchery; and the empire, besides, was oppressed by a wicked minister named *Ama*. In June 1355, Chu, a Chinese of mean extraction, and head of a small party, set out from How-chew, passed the Kyang, and took Tayping. He then associated himself with some other malcontents, at the head of whom he reduced the town of Tu-chew, in Kyang-nan. Soon after he made himself master of Nanking, having defeated the Moguls who came to its relief. In December 1356, he was able to raise 100,000 men, at the head of whom he took the city of U-chew, in the east borders of Quang-si; and here, assembling his generals, it was resolved neither to commit slaughter nor to plunder. The most formidable enemy he had to deal with was *Chen-yew-lyang*, styled, "emperor of the Han." This man being grieved at the progress made by Chu, equipped a fleet, and raised a formidable army, in order to reduce Nan-chang-fu, a city of Kyang-si, which his antagonist had made himself master of. The governor, however, found means to inform Chu of his danger; upon which that chief caused a fleet to be fitted out at Nanking, in which he embarked 200,000 soldiers. As soon as Chen-yew-lyang was informed of his enemy's approach, he raised the siege of Nan-chang-fu, and gave orders for attacking Chu's naval force. An engagement ensued between a part of the fleets, in which Chu proved victorious; and next day, all the squadrons having joined in order to come to a general engagement, Chu gained a second victory, and burnt 100 of the enemy's vessels. A third and fourth engagement happened, in both which Chu gained the victory; and in the last, Chen-yew-lyang himself was killed, his son taken prisoner, and his generals obliged to surrender themselves, with all their forces and vessels.

44 Moguls driven out.

45 Exploits of Chu.

46 He is proclaimed king of U.

In January 1364, Chu's generals proposed to proclaim him emperor; but this he declined, and at first contented himself with the title of king of *U*. In February he made himself master of Vu-chang-fu, capital of Hu quang: where, with his usual humanity, he relieved those in distress, encouraged the literati, and would allow his troops neither to plunder nor destroy. This wise conduct procured him an easy conquest both of Kyan-si and Hu quang. The Chinese submitted to him in crowds, and professed the greatest veneration and respect for his person and government.

All this time Shun-ti, with an unaccountable negligence, never thought of exerting himself against Chu, but continued to employ his forces against the rebels who had taken up arms in various parts of the empire; so that Chu found himself in a condition to assume the title of emperor. This he chose to do at Nanking on the first day of the year 1368. After this his troops entered the province of Honan, which they presently reduced. In the third month, Chu, who had now taken the title of *Hong-vu* or *Tay-tsu*, reduced the fortress of Tong-quan; after which his troops entered Pecheli from Honan on the one side, and Shang-tong on the other. Here his generals defeated and killed one of Shun ti's officers; after which they took the city of Tong-chew, and then prepared to attack the capital, from which they were now but 12 miles distant. On their approach the emperor fled with all his family beyond the great wall, and thus put an end to the dynasty of Ywen. In 1370 he died, and was succeeded by his son, whom the successor of Hong-vu drove beyond the Kobi or Great Desert, which separates China from Tartary. They continued their incursions, however, for many years; nor did they cease their attempts till 1583, when vast numbers of them were cut in pieces by the Chinese troops.

47 Becomes emperor of China.

48 Moguls driven beyond the desert.

49 China again conquered by the Tartars.

The 21st dynasty of Chinese emperors, founded in 1368 by Chu, continued till the year 1644, when they were again expelled by the Tartars. The last Chinese emperor was named Whay-tsong, and ascended the throne in 1628. He was a great lover of the sciences, and a favourer of the Christians; though much addicted to the superstitions of the Bonzes. He found himself engaged in a war with the Tartars, and a number of rebels in different provinces. That he might more effectually suppress the latter, he resolved to make peace with the former; and for that end sent one of his generals, named *Ywen*, into Tartary, at the head of an army, with full power to negotiate a peace; but that traitor made one upon such shameful terms, that the emperor refused to ratify it. Ywen, in order to oblige his master to comply with the terms made by himself, poisoned his best and most faithful general, named *Mau-ven-long*: and then desired the Tartars to march directly to Peking, by a road different from that which he took with his army. This they accordingly did, and laid siege to the capital.

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Ywen was ordered to come to its relief; but, on his arrival, was put to the torture and ſtrangled; of which the Tartars were no ſooner informed, than they raiſed the ſiege, and returned to their own country. In 1636, the rebels above mentioned compoſed four great armies, commanded by as many generals; which, however, were ſoon reduced to two, commanded by Li and Chang. Theſe agreed to divide the empire between them; Chang taking the weſtern provinces, and Li the eaſtern ones. The latter ſeized on part of Shen-ſi, and then on Honan, whoſe capital, named *Kay-fong-fu*, he laid ſiege to, but was repulſed with loſs. He renewed it ſix months after, but without ſucceſs; the beſieged chooſing rather to feed on human fleſh than ſurrender. The imperial forces coming ſoon after to its aſſiſtance, the general made no doubt of being able to deſtroy the rebels at once, by breaking down the banks of the Yellow river; but unfortunately the rebels eſcaped to the mountains, while the city was quite overflowed, and 300,000 of the inhabitants periſhed.

After this diſaſter, Li marched into the provinces of Shen-ſi and Honan; where he put to death all the mandarins, exacted great ſums from the officers in place, and ſhowed no favour to any but the populace, whom he freed from all taxes: by this means he drew ſo many to his intereſt, that he thought himſelf ſtrong enough to aſſume the title of emperor. He next advanced towards the capital, which, though well garriſoned, was divided into factions. Li had taken care to introduce beforehand a number of his men in diſguiſe: and by theſe the gates were opened to him the third day after his arrival. He entered the city in triumph at the head of 300,000 men, whilſt the emperor kept himſelf ſhut up in his palace, buſied only with his ſuperſtitions. It was not long, however, before he found himſelf betrayed; and, under the greateſt conſternation, made an effort to eſcape out of the palace, attended by about 600 of his guards. He was ſtill more ſurpriſed to ſee himſelf treacherouſly abandoned by them, and deprived of all hopes of eſcaping the inſults of his ſubjects. Upon this, preferring death to the diſgrace of falling alive into their hands, he immediately retired with his empreſs, whom he tenderly loved, and the princeſs her daughter, into a private part of the garden. His grief was ſo great that he was not able to utter a word; but ſhe ſoon underſtood his meaning, and, after a few ſilent embraces, hanged herſelf on a tree in a ſilken ſtring. Her huſband ſtaid only to write theſe words on the border of his veſt: "I have been baſely deſerted by my ſubjects; do what you will with me, but ſpare my people." He then cut off the young princeſs's head with one ſtroke of his ſcymitar, and hanged himſelf on another tree, in the 17th year of his reign, and 36th of his age. His prime miniſter, queens, and eunuchs, followed his example; and thus ended the Chineſe monarchy, to give place to that of the Tartars, which hath continued ever ſince.

50 Unhappy fate of the emperor and his family.

It was ſome time before the body of the unfortunate monarch was found. At laſt it was brought before the rebel Li, and by him uſed with the utmoſt indignity; after which he cauſed two of Whay-tſong's ſons, and all his miniſters, to be beheaded; but his eldeſt ſon happily eſcaped by flight. The whole empire ſubmitted peaceably to the uſurper, except Prince U-ſan-ghey, who commanded the imperial forces in the province of Lyau-tong. This brave prince, finding himſelf unable to cope with the uſurper, invited the Tartars to his aſſiſtance; and Tſong-te their king immediately joined him with an army of 80,000 men. Upon this the uſurper marched directly to Peking; but not thinking himſelf ſafe there, plundered and burnt the palace, and then fled with the immenſe treaſure he had got. What became of him afterwards we are not told; but the young Tartar monarch was immediately declared emperor of China, his father Tſong-te having died almoſt as ſoon as he ſet his foot on that empire.

The new emperor, named *Shun-chi*, or *Xun-chi*, began his reign with rewarding U-ſan-ghey, by conferring upon him the title of king; and aſſigned him the city of Si-gnan-fu, capital of Shen-ſi, for his reſidence. This, however, did not hinder U-ſan-ghey from repenting of his error in calling in the Tartars, or, as he himſelf uſed to phraſe it, "in ſending for lions to drive away dogs." In 1674, he formed a very ſtrong alliance againſt them, and had probably prevailed if his allies had been faithful; but they treacherouſly deſerted him one after another: which ſo affected him, that he died ſoon after. In 1681 Hong-wha, ſon to U-ſan-ghey, who continued his efforts againſt the Tartars, was reduced to ſuch ſtraits that he put an end to his own life.

During this time, ſome reſiſtance had been made to the Tartars in many of the provinces. Two princes of Chineſe extraction had at different times been proclaimed emperors; but both of them were overcome and put to death. In 1682, the whole 15 provinces were ſo effectually ſubdued, that the emperor Kang-hi, ſucceſſor to Shun-chi, determined to viſit his native dominions of Tartary. He was accompanied by an army of 70,000 men, and continued for ſome months taking the diverſion of hunting. For ſeveral years he repeated his viſits annually; and in his journeys took Father Verbieſt along with him; by which means we have a better deſcription of theſe countries than could have been otherwiſe obtained. This prince was a great encourager of learning and of the Chriſtian religion; and in favour of the latter he publiſhed a decree, dated in 1692. But in 1716, he revived ſome obſolete laws againſt the Chriſtians; nor could the Jeſuits with all their art preſerve the footing they had got in China. The cauſes of this alteration in his reſolution are, by the miſſionaries, ſaid to have been the ſlanders of the mandarins; but, from the known character of the Jeſuits, it will be readily believed, that there was ſomething more at bottom. This emperor died in 1722, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Yon-ching; who not only gave no encouragement to the miſſionaries, but perſecuted all Chriſtians of whatever denomination, not excepting even thoſe of the imperial race. At the beginning of his reign he baniſhed all the Jeſuits into the city of Canton, and in 1732 they were baniſhed from thence into Ma-kau, a little iſland inhabited by the Portugueſe, but ſubject to China. He died in 1736: but though the Jeſuits entertained great hopes from his ſucceſſor, we have not heard that they have yet met with any ſucceſs.

51 Empire totally reduced.

52 Chriſtianity firſt encouraged and then perſecuted.

Thus we have given an account of the moſt memorable

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rable tranſactions recorded in the Chineſe hiſtory. We now proceed to deſcribe the preſent ſtate of the empire and its inhabitants, according to the beſt and lateſt accounts.

53 Climate, ſoil, and produce.

The climate as well as the ſoil of this extenſive empire is very different in different parts; ſevere cold being often felt in the northern provinces, while the inhabitants of the ſouthern ones are ſcarcely able to bear the heat. In general, however, the air is accounted wholeſome, and the inhabitants live to a great age.—The northern and weſtern provinces have many mountains, which in the latter are cultivated, but in the north are barren, rocky, and incapable of improvement. On the mountains of Chenſi, Honan, Canton, and Fokien, are many foreſts, abounding with tall ſtraight trees, of different kinds, fit for building, and particularly adapted for maſts and ſhip timber. Theſe are uſed by the emperor in his private buildings; and from theſe foreſts enormous trunks are ſometimes tranſported to the diſtance of more than 300 leagues. Other mountains contain quickſilver, iron, tin, copper, gold, and ſilver. Formerly theſe laſt were not allowed to be opened, leſt the people ſhould thereby be induced to neglect the natural richneſs of the ſoil: and it is certain, that, in the 15th century, the emperor cauſed a mine of precious ſtones to be ſhut, which had been opened by a private perſon. Of late, however, the Chineſe are leſs ſcrupulous, and a great trade in gold is carried on by them. Many extravagant fables are told by the Chineſe of their mountains, particularly of one in Chenſi which throws out flames, and produces violent tempeſts, whenever any one beats a drum or plays on a muſical inſtrument near it. In the province of Fokien is a mountain the whole of which is an idol, or ſtatue of the god Fo. This natural coloſſus, for it appears not to have been the work of art, is of ſuch an enormous ſize, that each of its eyes is ſeveral miles in circumference, and its noſe extends ſome leagues.

54 Lakes and rivers.

China has ſeveral large lakes; the principal one is that named Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-ſi. It is formed by the confluence of four large rivers; extends near 100 leagues in length; and, like the ſea, its waters are raiſed into tempeſtuous waves. The empire is watered by an immenſe number of rivers of different ſizes, of which two are particularly celebrated, viz. the *Yang-tſe-kiang*, or *ſon of the ſea*, and *Hoang-ho*, or the *yellow-river*. The former riſes in the province of Yunan, and paſſing through Houquang and Kiang-nan, falls into the eaſtern ocean, after a courſe of 1200 miles, oppoſite to the iſland of Tſon-ming, which is formed by the ſand accumulated at its mouth. This river is of immenſe ſize, being half a league broad at Nanking, which is near 100 miles from its mouth. The navigation is dangerous, ſo that great numbers of veſſels are loſt on it. It runs with a rapid current, forming ſeveral iſlands in its courſe, which are again carried off, and new ones formed in different places, when the river is ſwelled by the torrents from the mountains. Theſe iſlands, while they remain, are very uſeful; producing great quantities of reeds ten or twelve feet high, which are uſed in all the neighbouring countries for fuel. The Hoang-ho, or Yellow-river, has its name from the yellow colour given it by the clay and ſand waſhed down in the time of rain. It riſes in the mountains which border the province of Te-tchuen on the weſt, and after a courſe of near 600 leagues, diſcharges itſelf into the eaſtern ſea, not far from the mouth of the Kiang. It is very broad and rapid, but ſo ſhallow that it is ſcarcely navigable. It is very liable to inundations, often overflowing its banks, and deſtroying whole villages. For this reaſon it has been found neceſſary to confine it in ſeveral places by long and ſtrong dikes, which yet do not entirely anſwer the purpoſe. The people of Honan, therefore, whoſe land is exceedingly low, have ſurrounded moſt of their cities with ſtrong ramparts of earth, faced with turf, at the diſtance of three furlongs.

55 Canals.

The Chineſe have been at great pains to turn their lakes and rivers to the advantage of commerce, by promoting an inland navigation. One of their principal works for this purpoſe is the celebrated canal reaching from Canton to Peking, and forming a communication between the ſouthern and northern provinces. This canal extends through no leſs a ſpace than 600 leagues; but its navigation is interrupted in one place by a mountain, where paſſengers are obliged to travel 10 or 12 leagues over land. A number of other canals are met with in this and other provinces; moſt of which have been executed by the induſtry of the inhabitants of different cities and towns, in order to promote their communication with the various parts of the empire. M. Groſier remarks, that, in theſe works, the Chineſe have "ſurmounted obſtacles that perhaps would have diſcouraged any other people: ſuch, for example, is part of a canal which conducts from *Chaoking* to *Ning-po*." Near theſe cities there are two canals, the waters of which do not communicate, and which differ ten or twelve feet in their level. To render this place paſſable for boats, the Chineſe have conſtructed a double glacis, of large ſtones, or rather two inclined planes, which unite as an acute angle at their upper extremity, and extend on each ſide to the ſurface of the water. If the bark is in the lower canal, they puſh it up the plane of the firſt glacis by means of ſeveral capſtans until it is raiſed to the angle, when by its own weight it glides down the ſecond glacis, and precipitates itſelf into the water of the higher canal with the velocity of an arrow. It is aſtoniſhing that theſe barks, which are generally very long and heavily loaden, never burſt aſunder when they are balanced on this acute angle; however, we never hear of any accident of this kind happening in the paſſage. It is true they take the precaution of uſing for their keels a kind of wood which is exceedingly hard, and proper for reſiſting the violence of ſuch an effort.

56 Remarkable river which partly ſinks under ground.

The following remarkable phenomenon in a Chineſe river is related by Father le Couteux, a French miſſionary. "Some leagues above the village Che-pai, (ſays he), the river becomes conſiderably ſmaller, although none of its waters flow into any other channel; and eight or nine leagues below, it reſumes its former breadth, without receiving any additional ſupply, excepting what it gets from a few ſmall rivulets, which are almoſt dry during the greater part of the year. Oppoſite to Che-pai it is ſo much diminiſhed, that, excepting one channel, which is not very broad, I have paſſed and repaſſed it ſeveral times by the help of a com-

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mon pole. I was always surprised to find this river so narrow and shallow in that place: but I never thought of inquiring into the cause of it, until the loss of a bark belonging to a Christian family afforded me an opportunity. In that place where the river diminishes almost of a sudden, it flows with great impetuosity; and where it resumes its former breadth it is equally rapid. At the sixth moon, when the water was high and the wind strong, the bark I have mentioned arriving above Che-pai, was driven on a sand-bank; for between these two places the river is full of moveable sands, which are continually shifting their situation. The master of the boat dropped his anchor until the wind should abate, and permit him to continue his voyage; but a violent vortex of moveable sand, which was cast up from the bottom of the river, laid the bark on its side; a second vortex succeeded; then a third; and afterwards a fourth, which shattered the bark to pieces. When I arrived at the place where this bark had been lost, the weather was mild and serene; I perceived eddies in the current everywhere around, which absorbed, and carried to the bottom of the river, whatever floated on the surface; and I observed, at the same time, that the sand was thrown violently up with a vortical motion. Above these eddies the water was rapid, but without any fall; and in the place below, where the river resumes its usual course, no eddies are to be seen, but the sand is thrown up in the same violent manner; and in some places there are water-falls and a kind of small islands scattered at some distance from one another. These islands which appear above the surface of the water, are not solid earth, but consist of branches of trees, roots, and herbs collected together. I was told that these boughs rose up from the water, and that no one knew the place from whence they came. I was informed that these masses, which were 40 or 50 feet in extent on that side on which we passed, were immoveable and fixed in the bottom of the river; that it was dangerous to approach them, because the water formed whirlpools everywhere around them; that, however, when the river was very low, the fishermen sometimes ventured to collect the bushes that floated on its surface, and which they used for fuel. I am of opinion, that, at the place of the river which is above Che-pai, the water falls into deep pits, from whence it forces up the sand with that vortical motion; and that it flows under-ground to the other place, eight or nine leagues below, where it carries with it all the boughs, weeds, and roots, which it washes down in its course, and thus forms those islands which appear above its surface. We know there are some rivers that lose themselves entirely, or in part, in the bowels of the earth, and which afterwards arise in some other place; but I believe there never was one known to lose part of its water below its own channel, and again to recover it at the distance of some leagues."

57 Why China is subject to famines, notwithstanding its fertility.

It has already been said, that China is, in general, a fertile country; and indeed all travellers agree in this respect, and make encomiums on the extent and beauty of its plains. So careful are the husbandmen of this empire to lose none of their ground, that neither inclosure, hedge, nor ditch, nay, scarce a single tree, are ever to be met with. In several places the land yields two crops a-year; and even in the interval between the harvests the people sow several kinds of pulse and small grain. The plains of the northern provinces yield wheat; those of the southern, rice, because the country is low and covered with water. Notwithstanding all this fertility, however, the inhabitants are much more frequently afflicted with famine than those of the European nations, though the countries of Europe produce much less than China. For this two causes are assigned. 1. The destruction of the rising crops by drought, hail, inundations, locusts, &c. in which case China cannot like the European countries be supplied by importation. This is evident by considering how it is situated with regard to other nations. On the north are the Mogul Tartars, a lazy and indolent race, who subsist principally on the flesh of their flocks; sowing only a little millet for their own use. The province of Leatong, which lies to the north-east, is indeed extremely fertile, but too far distant from the capital and centre of the empire to supply it with provisions; and besides, all carriage is impracticable but in the winter, when great quantities of game and fish, preserved in ice, are sent thither. No corn is brought from Corea to China; and though the Japan islands are only three or four days sailing from the Chinese provinces of Kiang-nan and Che-kyang, yet no attempt was ever made to obtain provisions from thence; whether it be that the Japanese have nothing to spare, or on account of the insults offered by these islanders to foreign merchants. Formosa lies opposite to the province of Fo-kien; but so far is that island from being able to supply any thing, that in a time of scarcity it requires a supply from China itself. The province of Canton is also bounded by the sea, and has nothing on the south but islands and remote countries. One year, when rice was exceedingly scarce there, the emperor sent for F. Parranin, a Jesuit missionary, and asked him if the city of Macao could not furnish Canton with rice until the supply he had ordered from other provinces should arrive: but was informed that Macao had neither rice, corn, fruit, herbs, nor flocks, and that it generally got from China what was necessary for its subsistence.—The only method, therefore, the Chinese can take to guard against famines arising from these causes, is to erect granaries and public magazines in every province and most of the principal cities of the empire. This has at all times been a principal object of care to the public ministers; but though this mode of relief still takes place in theory, so many ceremonies are to be gone through before any supply can be drawn from those public repositories, that it seldom arrives seasonably at the places where it is wanted: and thus numbers of unhappy wretches perish for want. 2. Another cause of the scarcity of grain in this empire, is the prodigious consumption of it in the composition of wines, and a spirituous liquor called *rack*. But though government is well apprized that this is one of the principal sources of famine throughout the empire, it never employed means sufficient to prevent it. Proclamations indeed have frequently been issued, prohibiting the distillation of rack; and the appointed officers will visit the still-houses and destroy the furnaces if nothing is given them; but on slipping some money into their hands, they shut their eyes, and go somewhere

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where elſe to receive another bribe. When the mandarin himſelf goes about, however, theſe diſtillers do not eſcape quite ſo eaſily, the workmen being whipped and impriſoned, after which they are obliged to carry a kind of collar called the *Cangue;* the maſters are likewiſe obliged to change their habitations and conceal themſelves for a ſhort time, after which they generally reſume their operations. It is impoſſible, however, that any method of this kind can prove effectual in ſuppreſſing theſe manufactories while the liquors themſelves are allowed to be ſold publicly; and againſt this there is no law throughout the empire. Our author, however, juſtly obſerves, that in caſe of a prohibition of this kind, the grandees would be obliged to deny themſelves the uſe of theſe luxuries, which would be too great a ſacrifice for the good of the empire.

58 Immenſe population.

The population of China, is ſo great, in compariſon with that of the European countries, that the accounts of it have generally been treated as fabulous by the weſtern nations; but by an accurate inveſtigation of ſome Chineſe records concerning the number of perſons liable to taxation throughout the empire, M. Groſier has ſhowed that it cannot be leſs than 200 millions. For this extraordinary population he aſſigns the following cauſes. 1. The ſtrict obſervance of filial duty throughout the empire, and the prerogatives of fraternity, which make a ſon the moſt valuable property of a father. 2. The infamy attached to the memory of thoſe who die without children. 3. The univerſal cuſtom by which the marriage of children becomes the principal concern of the parents. 4. The honours beſtowed by the ſtate on thoſe widows who do not marry a ſecond time. 5. Frequent adoptions, which prevent families from becoming extinct. 6. The return of wealth to its original ſtock by the diſinheriting of daughters. 7. The retirement of wives, which renders them more complaiſant to their huſbands, ſaves them from a number of accidents when big with child, and conſtrains them to employ themſelves in the care of their children. 8. The marriage of ſoldiers. 9. The fixed ſtate of taxes; which being always laid upon lands, never fall but indirectly on the trader and mechanic. 10. The ſmall number of ſailors and travellers. 11. To theſe may be added the great number of people who reſide in China only by intervals; the profound peace which the empire enjoys; the frugal and laborious manner in which the great live; the little attention that is paid to the vain and ridiculous prejudice of marrying below one's rank; the ancient policy of giving diſtinction to men and not to families, by attaching nobility only to employments and talents, without ſuffering it to become hereditary. And, 12. laſtly, A decency of public manners, and a total ignorance of ſcandalous intrigues and gallantry.

Extravagant, however, and almoſt incredible as this account of the population of China may appear to ſome, we have very high and reſpectable authority for believing that it is much below the truth. Whether the cauſes of this phenomenon, as above enumerated by M. Groſier, be the only ones aſſignable, it is certain that the immenſe population of this country amounted to 333,000,000 at the time when Sir George Staunton* viſited it in the capacity of ſecretary to the Britiſh plenipotentiary, as appears from the following eſtimate of the population of each province, made by Chow-ta-zhin, and taken from his official documents.

59 Population of the different provinces.

Provinces.	Population.
Pe-che-lee,	38,000,000
Kiang-nan, two provinces,	32,000,000
Kiang-ſee,	19,000,000
Tche-kiang,	21,000,000
Fo-chen,	15,000,000
Hou-pe, } Houquang,	14,000,000
Hou-nan, } Houquang,	13,000,000
Ho-nan,	25,000,000
Shan-tung,	24,000,000
Shan-ſee,	27,000,000
Shen-ſee,	18,000,000
Kan-ſou,	12,000,000
Se-chuen,	27,000,000
Canton,	21,000,000
Quang-ſee,	10,000,000
Yu-nan,	8,000,000
Koei-cheou,	9,000,000
	333,000,000

This prodigious ſum total may exceed the belief of thoſe who are only accuſtomed to calculate from analogy, not recollecting that China cannot have its population reduced by thoſe fertile cauſes, *war* and *debauchery*, the former deſtroying mankind by thouſands, and the latter rendering them unproductive.

60 Unlimited authority of the emperor.

The government of China, according to the Abbé Groſier, is purely patriarchal. The emperor is more unlimited in his authority than any other potentate on earth; no ſentence of death, pronounced by any of the tribunals, can be executed without his conſent, and every verdict in civil affairs is ſubject to be reviſed by him; nor can any determination be of force until it has been confirmed by the emperor: and, on the contrary, whatever ſentence he paſſes is executed without delay; his edicts are reſpected throughout the empire as if they came from a divinity; he alone has the diſpoſal of all offices, nor is there any ſuch thing as the purchaſe of places in China; merit, real or ſuppoſed, raiſes to an office, and rank is attached to it only. Even the ſucceſſion to the throne is not altogether hereditary. The emperor of China has a power of chooſing his own ſucceſſor without conſulting any of his nobility; and can ſelect one not only from among his own children, but even from the body of his people; and there have been ſeveral inſtances of his making uſe of this right: and he has even a power of altering the ſucceſſion after it has once been fixed, in caſe the perſon pitched upon does not behave towards him with proper reſpect. The emperor can alſo prevent the princes of the blood from exerciſing the title, with which, according to the conſtitution of the empire, they are invested. They may, indeed, notwithſtanding this, poſſeſs their hereditary dignity; in which caſe they are allowed a revenue proportioned to their high birth, as well as a palace, officers, and

* In 1793.

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a court; but they have neither influence nor power, and their authority is lower than that of the meaneſt mandarin.

61 Mandarins of different claſſes.

The mandarins are of two claſſes, viz. thoſe of letters, and the inferior ſort ſtyled mandarins of arms. The latter by no means enjoy the ſame conſideration with the former ſort; indeed in China the literati are highly honoured, and to their influence M. Groſier ſuppoſes that we may in a great meaſure aſcribe the mildneſs and equity of the government; though he thinks that the balance may incline rather too much in their favour. Several degrees, anſwering to thoſe of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, muſt be paſſed through before one can attain to the dignity of a mandarin of letters; though ſometimes, by the favour of the emperor, it is conferred on thoſe who have attained only the two firſt degrees: but even the perſons who have gone through all the three, enjoy at firſt only the government of a city of the ſecond or third claſs. When ſeveral vacancies happen in the government of cities, the emperor invites to court a correſponding number of the literati, whoſe names are written down in a liſt. The names of the vacant governments are then put into a box, raiſed ſo high that the candidates are able only to reach it with their hands; after which they draw in their turns, and each is appointed governor of the city whoſe name he has drawn.

There are eight orders of theſe mandarins in China. 1. The *calao*, from whom are choſen the miniſters of ſtate, the preſidents of the ſupreme courts, and all the ſuperior officers among the militia. The chief of this order preſides alſo in the emperor's council, and enjoys a great ſhare of his confidence. 2. The *te-hioſe*, or man of acknowledged ability, is a title beſtowed upon every mandarin of the ſecond rank; and from theſe are ſelected the viceroys and preſidents of the ſupreme council in the different provinces. 3. The *tchong-tchueo*, or ſchool of mandarins, act as ſecretaries to the emperor. 4. *Y-tchuen-tao*. Theſe keep in repair the harbours, royal lodging houſes, and barks which belong to the emperor, unleſs particularly engaged in ſome other office by his order. 5. The *ting-pi-tao* have the inſpection of the troops. 6. The *tun-tien-hao* have the care of the highways 7. The *ho-tao* ſuperintend the rivers. 8. The *hai-tao* inſpect the ſea coaſts.

Thus the whole adminiſtration of the Chineſe empire is intruſted to the mandarins of letters; and the homage paid by the common people to every mandarin in office almoſt equals that paid to the emperor himſelf. This indeed flows from the nature of their government. In China it is a received opinion that the emperor is the father of the whole empire; that the governor of a province is the father of that province; and that the mandarin who is governor of a city is alſo the father of that city. This idea is productive of the higheſt reſpect and ſubmiſſion, which is not at all leſſened by their great number; for though the mandarins of letters amount to more than 14,000, the ſame reſpect is paid to every one of them.

The mandarins of arms are never indulged with any ſhare in the government of the ſtate; however, to attain to this dignity, it is alſo neceſſary to paſs through the degrees of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor of arms. The accompliſhments neceſſary for a mandarin of arms are, ſtrength of body, with agility and readineſs in performing the various military exerciſes, and comprehending the orders requiſite for the profeſſion of arms; an examination on theſe ſubjects muſt be undergone before the candidate can attain the wiſhed-for dignity.

62 Tribunal of the mandarins of arms.

The mandarins of arms have tribunals, the members of which are ſelected from among their chiefs; and among theſe they reckon princes, counts, and dukes; for all theſe dignities, or ſomething equivalent to them, are met with in China. The principal of theſe tribunals is held at Peking, and conſiſts of five claſſes: 1. The mandarins of the rear-guard, called *heou-fou*. 2. Of the left wing, or *tſa-fou*. 3. Of the right wing, or *yeou-ſeou*. 4. Of the advanced main-guard, or *te-hong-fou*. 5. Of the advanced guard, or *tſien-fou*. Theſe five tribunals are ſubordinate to one named *iong-tching-fou*; the preſident of which is one of the great lords of the empire, whoſe authority extends over all the military men of the empire. By his high dignity he could render himſelf formidable even to the emperor; but to prevent this inconvenience, he has for his aſſeſſor a mandarin of letters, who enjoys the title and exerciſes the function of ſuperintendant of arms. He muſt alſo take the advice of two inſpectors who are named by the emperor; and when theſe four have agreed upon any meaſure, their reſolution muſt ſtill be ſubmitted to the reviſal of a higher court named *ping-pou*, which is entirely of a civil nature. The chief of theſe mandarins is a general of courſe, whoſe powers are equivalent to thoſe of our commanders in chief; and below him are other mandarins who act as ſubordinate officers.

Theſe two claſſes of mandarins compoſe what is called the nobility of China: but as we have already hinted, their office is not hereditary; the emperor alone continues or confers it. They have the privilege of remonſtrating to the emperor, either as individuals or in a body, upon any part of his conduct which appears contrary to the intereſt of the empire. Theſe remonſtrances are ſeldom ill received, though the ſovereign complies with them only when he himſelf thinks proper. The number of literary mandarins in China is computed at upwards of 14,000; and thoſe of arms at 18,000; the former, however, are conſidered as the principal body in the empire; and this preference is thought to damp the military ardour of the nation in general, and to be one cauſe of that weakneſs in war for which the Chineſe are remarkable.

63 Military force.

The armies of this empire are proportioned to its vaſt extent and population; being computed in time of peace at more than 700,000. Their pay amounts to about two-pence halfpenny and a meaſure of rice per day, though ſome of them have double pay, and the pay of a horſeman is double that of a foot ſoldier; the emperor furniſhes a horſe, and the horſeman receives two meaſures of ſmall beans for his daily ſubſiſtence; the arrears of the army being punctually paid up every three months.

The arms of a horſeman are, a helmet, cuiraſs, lance, and ſabre; thoſe of a foot ſoldier are a pike and ſabre; ſome have fuſees, and others bows and arrows. All theſe are carefully inſpected at every review; and if any of them are found in the leaſt ruſted, or otherwiſe in

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in bad condition, the poſſeſſor is inſtantly puniſhed; if a Chineſe, with 30 or 40 blows of a ſtick; or if a Tartar, with as many laſhes.

64 Uſe of fire-arms loſt and revived.

Though the uſe of gun-powder is certainly very ancient in China, it appears to have been afterwards totally loſt, at leaſt fire-arms ſeem to have been almoſt entirely unknown ſome centuries ago. Three or four cannon were to be ſeen at that time about the gates of Nanking; but not a ſingle perſon in China knew how to make uſe of them; ſo that, in 1621, when the city of Macao made a preſent of three pieces of artillery to the emperor, it was found neceſſary alſo to ſend three men to load them. The utility of theſe weapons was quickly perceived by the execution which the three cannon did againſt the Tartars, at that time advanced as far as the great wall. When the invaders threatened to return, the mandarins of arms gave it as their opinion, that cannons were the beſt arms they could make uſe of againſt them. They were then taught the art of caſting cannon by F. Adam Schaal and Verbieſt, two Jeſuit miſſionaries, and their artillery was increaſed to the number of 320 pieces; at the ſame time that they were inſtructed in the method of fortifying towns, and conſtructing fortreſſes and other buildings according to the rules of modern architecture.

The beſt ſoldiers in China are procured from the three northern provinces, the others being ſeldom called forth, but allowed to remain at peace with their families; indeed there is not often occaſion for exerting their military talents, unleſs it be in the quelling of an inſurrection, when a mandarin or governor uſually accompanies them. They march in a very tumultuous manner, but want neither ſkill nor agility in performing their different evolutions. They, in general, handle a ſabre well, and ſhoot very dexterouſly with bows and arrows. There are in China more than 2000 places of arms; and through the different provinces there are diſperſed about 3000 towers or caſtles, all of them defended by garriſons. Soldiers continually mount guard there; and on the firſt appearance of tumult, the neareſt ſentinel makes a ſignal from the top of the tower, by hoiſting a flag in the day-time, or lighting a torch in the night; when the neighbouring garriſons immediately repair to the place where their preſence is neceſſary.

65 Account of the great wall.

The principal defence of the empire againſt a foreign enemy is the great wall which ſeparates China from Tartary, extending more than 1500 miles in length, and of ſuch a thickneſs that ſix horſemen may eaſily ride abreaſt upon it. It is flanked with towers two bow-ſhots diſtant from one another; and it is ſaid that a third of the able-bodied men in the empire were employed in conſtructing it. The workmen were ordered, under pain of death, to place the materials ſo cloſely, that not the leaſt entrance might be afforded for any inſtrument of iron; and thus the work was conſtructed with ſuch ſolidity, that it is ſtill almoſt entire, though 2000 years have elapſed ſince it was conſtructed. This extraordinary work is carried on not only through the low lands and valleys, but over hills and mountains; the height of one of which was computed by F. Verbieſt at 1236 feet above the level of the ſpot where he ſtood. According to F. Martini it begins at the gulf of Lea-tong, and reaches to the mountains near the city of Kin on the Yellow river; between which places it meets with no interruption except to the north of the city of Suen in the province of Pecheli, where it is interrupted by a ridge of hideous and inacceſſible mountains, to which it is cloſely united. It is likewiſe interrupted by the river Hoang-ho; but for others of an inferior ſize, arches have been conſtructed, through which the water paſſes freely. Mr Bell informs us, that it is carried acroſs rivers, and over the tops of the higheſt hills, without the leaſt interruption, keeping nearly along that circular range of barren rocks which incloſes the country; and, after running about 1200 miles, ends in impaſſable mountains and ſandy deſerts. The foundation conſiſts of large blocks of ſtone laid in mortar; but all the reſt is of brick. The whole is ſo ſtrong and well built, that it ſcarcely needs any repairs; and, in the dry climate in which it ſtands, may remain in the ſame condition for many ages. When carried over ſteep rocks, where no horſe can paſs, it is about 15 or 20 feet high, but when running through a valley, or croſſing a river, it is about 30 feet high, with ſquare towers and embraſures at equal diſtances. The top is flat and paved with cut ſtone; and where it riſes over a rock or eminence, there is an aſcent made by an eaſy ſtone ſtair. "This wall (our author adds) was begun and completely finiſhed in the ſhort ſpace of five years; and it is reported, that the labourers ſtood ſo cloſe for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. This ſeems the more probable, as the rugged rocks among which it is built muſt have prevented all uſe of carriages; and neither clay for making bricks, nor any kind of cement are to be found among them."

To this account of the moſt aſtoniſhing production of human labour and induſtry to be met with on the face of the earth, we may add, that if to its prodigious length of 1500 miles, we aſſume as true, the probable conjecture that its dimenſions throughout are nearly the ſame as where it was croſſed by the Britiſh embaſſy, it contains materials more than ſufficient to erect all the dwelling houſes in England and Scotland, even admitting their number to be 1,800,000, and each to contain 2000 cubic feet of maſonry. In this calculation the huge projecting maſſes of ſtone called towers, are not included, which of themſelves would erect a city as large as London. To aſſiſt the conceptions of our readers ſtill farther reſpecting this ſingular and ſtupendous fabric, we ſhall only obſerve, that were its materials converted into a wall 12 feet high and four feet thick, it would poſſeſs ſufficient length to ſurround the globe, at its equatorial circumference.

66 Courts by which the civil government is managed.

The whole civil government of China is managed by the following courts. 1. The emperor's grand council, compoſed of all the miniſters of ſtate, preſidents and aſſeſſors of the ſix ſovereign courts, and of three others, to be afterwards mentioned. This is never aſſembled but on affairs of the greateſt importance; the emperor's private council being ſubſtituted to it in all caſes of ſmaller moment. 2. The chief of the other courts furniſhes mandarins for the different provinces, watches over their conduct, keeps a journal of their tranſactions, and informs the emperor of them, who rewards or puniſhes according to the report he gets.

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This ſecond tribunal, which may be called a kind of civil inquiſition, is ſubdivided into four others; the firſt entruſted with the care of ſelecting thoſe who, on account of their learning or other good properties, are capable of filling the offices of government; the ſecond appointed to take care of the conduct of the mandarins; the third affixing the ſeals to the different public acts, giving the ſeals to mandarins, and examining thoſe of the different diſpatches; while the fourth inquires into the merit of the grandees of the empire, not excepting the princes of the imperial blood themſelves. The principal ſovereign court to which theſe four laſt are ſubordinate is called *Lii-pou*.

2. *Hou-pou*, or the grand treaſurer, ſuperintends all the finances of the ſtate; is the guardian and protector of the treaſures and dominions of the emperor, keeping an account of his revenues, &c. ſuperintending the management and coining of money, the public magazines, cuſtomhouſes; and, laſtly, keeping an exact regiſter of all the families in the empire. To aſſiſt this court, 14 others are appointed throughout the different provinces of the empire.

3. *Li-pou*, or the court of ceremonies. "It is an undoubted fact (ſays M. Groſier), that ceremonies form, in part, the baſe of the Chineſe government. This tribunal therefore takes care to ſupport them, and enforce their obſervance; it inſpects alſo the arts and ſciences. It is conſulted by the emperor when he deſigns to confer particular honours; takes care of the annual ſacrifices offered up by him, and even regulates the entertainments which he gives either to ſtrangers or to his own ſubjects. It alſo receives and entertains foreign ambaſſadors, and preſerves tranquillity among the different religious ſects in the empire. It is aſſiſted by four inferior tribunals.

4. *Ping-pou*, or the tribunal of arms, comprehends in its juriſdiction the whole militia of the empire; inſpecting alſo the fortreſſes, magazines, arſenals, and ſtore-houſes of every kind, as well as the manufactories of arms both offenſive and defenſive; examining and appointing officers of every rank. It is compoſed entirely of mandarins of letters; and the four tribunals depending upon it conſiſt alſo of literati."

5. The *hong-pou*, is a criminal bench for the whole empire, and is aſſiſted by 14 ſubordinate tribunals.

6. The *cong-pou*, or tribunal of public works, ſurveys and keeps in repair the emperor's palaces, as well as thoſe of the princes and viceroys, and the buildings where the tribunals are held, with the temples, tombs of the ſovereigns, and all public monuments. It has beſides the ſuperintendance of the ſtreets, public highways, bridges, lakes, rivers, and every thing relating either to internal or foreign navigation. Four inferior tribunals aſſiſt in the diſcharge of theſe duties; the firſt drawing the plans of public works; the ſecond directing the work-ſhops in the different cities of the empire; the third ſurveying the cauſeways, roads, bridges, canals, &c.; and the fourth taking care of the emperor's palaces, gardens, and orchards, and receiving their produce.

67 Partiality of government towards the Chineſe.

All the tribunals are compoſed, one half of Chineſe, and the other of Tartars; and one of the preſidents of each ſuperior tribunal is always a Tartar born. None of the courts above deſcribed, however, has abſolute authority even in its own juriſdiction; nor can its deciſions be carried into execution without the concurrence of another tribunal, and ſometimes of ſeveral others. The fourth tribunal, for inſtance, has indeed under its juriſdiction the whole troops of the empire; but the payment of them is entruſted with the ſecond; while the ſixth has the care of the arms, tents, chariots, barks, and ſtores neceſſary for military operations; ſo that nothing relative to theſe can be put in execution without the concurrence of all the three tribunals.

68 Cenſors.

To prevent any unlawful combination among the tribunals, each has its *cenſor* appointed. This is an officer whoſe duty is merely to watch over the proceedings of the court, without deciding upon any thing himſelf. He aſſiſts therefore at all aſſemblies, reviſes all their acts, and without acquainting the court in the leaſt with either his ſentiments or intentions, immediately informs the emperor of what he judges to be amiſs. He likewiſe gives information of the behaviour of the mandarins, either in the public adminiſtration of affairs, or in their private conduct; nay, ſometimes he will not ſcruple to reprimand the emperor for what he ſuppoſes to be erroneous in his conduct.

Theſe cenſors are never removed from their places but in order to be promoted; and thus, holding their offices for life, they have the greater courage to ſpeak out when they obſerve any impropriety or abuſe. Their accuſation is ſufficient to ſet on foot an inquiry, which generally leads to a proof; in which caſe the accuſed is diſcharged from his office, and never held in any eſtimation afterwards. The complaints of the cenſors, however, are referred to the very tribunal againſt whoſe members they complain; though, being afraid of an accuſation themſelves, they very ſeldom paſs ſentence againſt the accuſers.

Beſides all this, the cenſors alſo form a tribunal of their own, named *tou-tche-yven*. Its members have a right of remonſtrating with the emperor, whenever his own intereſt or that of the public renders it neceſſary. They inſpect all lawyers and military men in public employments. "In ſhort (ſays M. Groſier), they are, morally ſpeaking, placed between the prince and the mandarins; between the mandarins and the people; between the people and families; between families and individuals; and they generally unite to the importance of their office incorruptible probity and invincible courage. The ſovereign may, if he proceeds to rigour, take away their lives; but many of them have patiently ſuffered death, rather than betray the cauſe of truth or wink at abuſes. It is not ſufficient therefore to have got rid of one, they muſt all be treated in the ſame manner; the laſt that might be ſpared would tread in the ſame ſteps with no leſs reſolution than thoſe who went before him. In the annals of no nation do we find an example of ſuch a tribunal, yet it appears to be neceſſary in all without exception. We muſt not, however, imagine, that the privileges of a cenſor give him a right to forget his duty to his ſovereign, or to communicate to the public thoſe remarks which he takes the liberty of making to him: were he only to give the leaſt hint of them to his colleagues, he would be puniſhed with death; and he would ſhare the ſame fate did he, in any of his repreſentations,

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ſentations, ſuffer a ſingle word, inconſiſtent with moderation or reſpect, to eſcape him."

69 Two courts peculiar to China.

There are ſtill two other courts in China, both of them peculiar to the empire, which deſerve to be mentioned. The firſt is that of princes; and which, in conformity with its title, is compoſed of princes only. In the regiſters of this tribunal are inſcribed the names of all the children of the imperial family as ſoon as they are born: and to theſe are alſo conſigned the dignities and titles which the emperor confers upon them. This is the only tribunal where the princes can be tried; and here they are abſolved or puniſhed according to the pleaſure of the judges.

The other tribunal is that of hiſtory, called by the Chineſe *han-lin-yvan*. It is compoſed of the greateſt geniuſes of the empire, and of men of the moſt profound erudition. Theſe are entruſted with the education of the heir apparent to the throne, and the compilation and arrangement of the general hiſtory of the empire; which laſt part of their office renders them formidable even to the emperor himſelf. From this body the mandarins of the firſt claſs, and the preſidents of the ſupreme claſs, are generally choſen.

70 Filial piety the baſis of all their laws.

The baſis of all the civil laws of the Chineſe is filial piety. Every mandarin, who is a governor either of a province or city, muſt inſtruct the people aſſembled round him twice a-month, and recommend to them the obſervance of certain ſalutary rules, which are ſummed up in a few ſhort ſentences, and ſuch as no perſon can ever be ſuppoſed capable of forgetting.

71 Of their marriages.

The Chineſe are allowed only to have one wife, whoſe rank and age muſt be nearly equal to that of their huſbands; but they are allowed to have ſeveral concubines, whom they may admit into their houſes without any formality, after paying the parents a ſum of money, and entering into a written engagement to uſe their daughters well. Theſe concubines, however, are all in ſubjection to the lawful wife; their children are conſidered as hers; they addreſs her as mother, and can give this title to her only. A perſon that has once been married, whether man or woman, may lawfully marry again, but it is then no longer neceſſary to ſtudy equality of age or condition. A man may chooſe his ſecond wife from among his concubines; and, in all caſes, this new marriage requires very few formalities. A widow is abſolute miſtreſs of herſelf, and can neither be compelled by her parents to marry again, nor continue in a ſtate of widowhood, contrary to her own inclination. Thoſe of moderate rank, however, who have no children, do not enjoy the ſame privilege; as the parents of the former huſband can diſpoſe of her in marriage, not only without her conſent, but without her knowledge. The law authorizes the diſpoſal of them in this manner, in order to indemnify the relations of the deceaſed huſband for the money they may have coſt him. If the wife is left big with child, this cannot take place, until ſhe is delivered; nor can it be done at all if ſhe brings forth a ſon. There are likewiſe two exceptions; 1. when the parents of the widow aſſign her a proper maintenance; and, 2. if the widow embraces a religious life, and becomes a bonzeſſe.

72 Divorces, unlawful marriages, &c.

Divorces are allowed in China in caſes of adultery, mutual diſlike, incompatibility of tempers, jealouſy, &c. No huſband, however, can put away or ſell his wife until a divorce is legally obtained; and if this regulation be not ſtrictly obſerved, the buyer and ſeller become equally culpable. If a wife, lawfully married, privately withdraws herſelf from her huſband, he may immediately commence an action at law; by the ſentence of which ſhe becomes his ſlave, and he is at liberty to ſell her to whom he pleaſes. On the other hand, if a huſband leaves his wife for three years, ſhe is at liberty, after laying her caſe before the mandarins, to take another huſband; but if ſhe were to anticipate their conſent, ſhe would be liable to a ſevere puniſhment.

Marriage is deemed illegal in China in the following caſes. 1. If the young woman has been betrothed to a young man, and preſents have been given and received by the parents of the intended huſband and wife. 2. If in the room of a beautiful young woman another be ſubſtituted of a diſagreeable figure; or if the daughter of a free man marry his ſlave; or if any one give his ſlave to a free woman, pretending to her parents that he is his ſon or relation. In all theſe caſes the marriage is null and void; and all thoſe who have had any ſhare in making up the match are ſeverely puniſhed.

3. Any mandarin of letters is forbidden to form an alliance with any family reſiding in the province or city of which he is governor.

4. No Chineſe youth can enter into a ſtate of marriage during the time of mourning for his father or mother; and if promiſes have been made before, they ceaſe immediately on that event taking place. After the uſual time of mourning is expired, however, the parents of the intended bride are obliged to write to thoſe of the young man, putting him in mind of his engagement.

5. Marriage is alſo ſuſpended when a family experiences any ſevere misfortune, and even if a near relation were thrown into priſon; though this may be ſet aſide, provided the unfortunate perſon gives his conſent.

6. Two brothers cannot marry two ſiſters; nor is a widower at liberty to marry his ſon to the daughter of a widow whom he chooſes for his own wife. A man is alſo forbidden to marry any of his own relations, however diſtant the degree of conſanguinity between them.

In China, every father of a family is reſponſible for the conduct of his children, and even of his domeſtics; all thoſe faults being imputed to him which it was his duty to have prevented. Every father has the power of ſelling his ſon, "provided (ſays the law) the ſon has a right of ſelling himſelf." This cuſtom, however, is barely tolerated among the middling and inferior ranks; and all are forbidden to ſell them to comedians, or people of infamous character or very mean ſtations.

In China a ſon remains a minor during the whole lifetime, and is even liable for the debts contracted by his father, thoſe from gaming only excepted. Adoption is authorized by law, and the adopted child immediately enters into all the rights of a lawful ſon; only the law gives a right to the father of making a few diſpoſitions in favour of his real children. The children, however, whether adopted or not, cannot ſucceed

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ceed to the dignity or titles of their father, though they may to his eſtate. The emperor alone can confer honours; and even then they muſt be reſigned when the perſon attains the age of 70; though this reſignation is conſidered as an advice rather than a law. The will of a father cannot be ſet aſide in China on account of any informality; nor can any mother in this empire make a will.

Though the Chineſe laws authorize ſlavery, yet the power of the maſter extends only to thoſe matters which concern his own ſervice; and he would be puniſhed with death for taking advantage of his power to debauch the wife of his ſlave.

By the laws of China huſbandmen are exempt from the payment of taxes after they have begun to till the earth to the beginning of harveſt.

73 Criminal code.

It appears, from recent information reſpecting many intereſting particulars relating to China, that the utmoſt attention ſeems to have been paid to the different degrees of enormity attached to thoſe actions of men which are denominated criminal. The code of laws is pronounced the reverſe of ſanguinary, and it is affirmed by competent judges, that if the practice in all reſpects coincided with the theory, few nations could boaſt of a milder or more effectual adminiſtration of juſtice. But while they do not conſider the crime of pilfering a few ſmall pieces of money as of equal enormity with the ſhedding of human blood, yet they pay too little attention to the three different circumſtances under which that action may exiſt; either as accidental, unintentional as to the extent of taking away life, or maliciouſly premeditated. Even foreigners who have the misfortune to kill a Chineſe, however caſually it may be done, have been puniſhed in the very ſame manner as a traitor or deliberate aſſaſſin. As foreigners intending to reſide in China may be at a loſs to determine how, when, and by what various means their lives may be endangered, the following abſtract of the criminal code of that country may perhaps be beneficial to ſome of our readers.

1. A man who kills another on the ſuppoſition of theft, ſhall be ſtrangled, according to the law of homicide committed in an affray.

2. A man who fires at another with a muſket, and kills him, ſhall be beheaded, as in caſes of wilful murder. If the ſufferer be wounded, but not mortally, the offender ſhall be ſent into exile.

3. A man who puts to death a criminal who had been apprehended, and made no reſiſtance, ſhall be ſtrangled, according to the law againſt homicide committed in an affray.

4. A man who falſely accuſes an innocent perſon of theft (in caſes of greateſt criminality) is guilty of a capital offence; in all other caſes the offenders, whether principals or acceſſaries, ſhall be ſent into exile.

5. A man who wounds another unintentionally, ſhall be tried according to the law reſpecting blows given in an affray, and the puniſhment rendered more or leſs ſevere, according to the degree of injury ſuſtained.

6. A man who, intoxicated with liquor, commits outrages againſt the laws, ſhall be exiled to a deſert country, there to remain in a ſtate of ſervitude.

For this abſtract we are indebted to the humane interference of the ſupercargoes of the Eaſt India Company, on account of the diſagreeable diſputes which frequently took place with the Chineſe government, owing to accidents of the moſt trivial nature, which the people ſometimes met with from the Britiſh in the port of Canton.

The blood of a traitor is ſuppoſed to be contaminated in this country to the 10th generation, although the law in general is conceived to be ſatisfied with implicating the neareſt male relatives in the guilt of the actual perpetrator of the crime, but with commutation of puniſhment from death to exile. It appears to us, that nothing can be conceived more tyrannical than a law which pretends to inflict puniſhment on an innocent perſon, ſince no man can be a traitor, merely from the circumſtance of his being the relation of one, and the abſurdity of ſuppoſing that a non-exiſtence is capable of committing a crime, muſt be obvious to every man. The fifth law in the forementioned extract is peculiarly cruel and unjuſt, ſince it ſubjects a man to different degrees of puniſhment, according to the different effects which thoſe actions may produce. It is with a degree of national pride that we turn from this cruel, abſurd ſpecimen of Chineſe legiſlation, this ſtrange judicial thermometer, if we may be allowed the expreſſion, to the nice diſcriminations which are made by the laws of our own country reſpecting the ſhedding of blood, the gradations of guilt attending which we have already mentioned, and which are diſtinguiſhed by the appropriate names of *manſlaughter*, *culpable homicide*, and *wilful murder*.

The denunciations of Moſes, it may be ſaid, have ſome reſemblance to this gothic code of the Chineſe, eſpecially when he declares that the deity would viſit the iniquities of the fathers upon the children to the third and fourth generation. It is not our province in this account of China, to write an apology for Moſes in this particular inſtance, although it muſt be granted that he had a moſt obſtinate and refractory race of beings to govern, and to preſerve a becoming degree of order and ſubordination among them. He might therefore have nothing more in view than political expedience, an opinion which we are the more encouraged to entertain, when we find the prophet Ezekiel reprobating the idea of making the innocent ſuffer for the guilty, in the following beautiful paſſage. "What mean ye that ye uſe this proverb concerning the land of Iſrael, ſaying, the fathers have eaten ſour grapes, and the children's teeth are ſet on edge? As I live, ſaith the Lord, ye ſhall not have occaſion any more to uſe this proverb in Iſrael. Behold all ſouls are mine; as the ſoul of the father, ſo alſo the ſoul of the ſon, is mine. The ſoul that ſinneth, *it* ſhall die. The ſon ſhall not bear the iniquity of the father, neither ſhall the father bear the iniquity of the ſon: the righteouſneſs of the righteous ſhall be upon *him*, and the wickedneſs of the wicked ſhall be upon *him*."

In criminal matters every perſon accuſed muſt be examined before five or ſix tribunals; and whoſe inquiries are directed not only againſt him, but againſt his accuſer, and the witneſſes that appear in the cauſe. He is, however, obliged to remain in priſon during the proceſs: "but (ſays M. Groſier) the Chineſe priſons are not horrible dungeons like thoſe of ſo many other nations; they are ſpacious, and have even a degree

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degree of convenience. One of the mandarins is obliged to inspect them frequently; and this he does with the greater punctuality, as he must answer for those who are sick. He is obliged to see them properly treated, to send for physicians, and to supply them with medicines at the emperor's expence. If any of them dies, he must inform the emperor, who perhaps will order some of the higher mandarins to examine whether the former has discharged his duty faithfully or not.

74 Method of inflicting the bastinado.

The slightest punishment in China is the bastinado; and the number of blows is to be determined by the degree of the offender's guilt. Twenty is the lowest number: and in this case the punishment is considered as having nothing infamous in it, but being only a simple paternal correction. In this way the emperor sometimes orders it to be inflicted on his courtiers; which does not prevent them from being afterwards received into favour, and as much respected as before. Every mandarin may inflict the bastinado when any one forgets to salute him, or when he sits in judgment in public. The instrument of correction is called *pan-tsee*, and is a piece of bamboo a little flatted, broad at the bottom, and polished at the upper extremity, in order to manage it more easily with the hand. When the punishment is to be inflicted, the magistrate sits gravely behind a table, having on it a bag filled with small sticks, while a number of petty officers stand around him, each furnished with these *pan-tsees*, and waiting only for his signal to make use of them. The mandarin then takes out one of the little sticks contained in the bag, and throws it into the hall of audience. On this the culprit is seized and stretched out with his belly towards the ground; his breeches are pulled down to his heels, and an athletic domestic applies five smart blows with his *pan-tsee*. If the judge draws another small stick from the bag, another officer succeeds, and bestows five more blows; and so on until the judge makes no more signals. When the punishment is over, the criminal must throw himself on his knees, incline his body three times to the earth, and thank the judge for the care he takes of his education.

75 The *cangue*, or wooden collar.

For faults of a higher nature, the carrying of a wooden collar, called by the Portuguese the *cangue*, is inflicted. This machine is composed of two pieces of wood hollowed out in the middle, which, when put together, leave sufficient room for the neck. These are laid upon the shoulders of the criminal, and joined together in such a manner, that he can neither see his feet nor put his hands to his mouth; so that he is incapable of eating without the assistance of another. This disagreeable burden he is obliged to carry day and night; its weight is from 50 to 200 pounds, according to the enormity of the crime, to which the time of carrying it is also proportioned. For robbery, breaking the peace, or disturbing a family, or being a notorious gambler, it is generally carried three months. During all this time the criminal is not allowed to take shelter in his own house, but is stationed for a certain space of time, either in some public square, the gate of a city or temple, or perhaps even of the tribunal where he was condemned. On the expiration of his term of punishment, he is again brought before the judge, who exhorts him in a friendly manner to amend; and after giving him 20 found blows discharges him.

76 Banishment, &c.

Banishment is inflicted for crimes of a nature inferior to homicide, and the duration is often for life, if the criminals be sent into Tartary. Some culprits are condemned to drag the royal bark for three years, or to be branded in the cheeks with a hot iron, indicating the nature of their transgressions. Robbery between relations is more severely punished than any other; and that is accounted the most atrocious where younger brothers or nephews appropriate to themselves beforehand any part of the succession in which they have a right to share with their elder brothers or nephews.

77 Punishment of informers against parents, &c.

Information against a father or mother, grandfather or grandmother, uncle or eldest brother, even though the accusation be just, is punished with 100 blows of the pan-tsee and three years banishment. If the accusation be false, it is punished with death. Deficiency in proper filial respect to a father, mother, grandfather, or grandmother, is punished with 100 blows of the pan-tsee; abusive language to these relations is death by strangling; to strike them is punished by beheading; and if any one presumes to hurt or maim them, his flesh is torn from his bones with red-hot pincers, and he is cut into a thousand pieces. Abusing an elder brother is punished with 100 blows of the pan-tsee; striking him, with the punishment of exile.

78 Capital punishments, how inflicted.

Homicide, even though accidental, is punished with death in China. A rope about six or seven feet in length, with a running noose, is thrown over the criminal's head; and a couple of domestics belonging to the tribunal pull it strongly in different directions. They then suddenly quit it, and in a few moments give a second pull; a third is seldom necessary to finish the business. Beheading is accounted in China the most dishonourable of all punishments, and is reserved only for desperate assassins, or those who commit some crime equally atrocious with murder. To be cut in a thousand pieces is a punishment inflicted only upon state criminals or rebellious subjects. It is performed by tying the criminal to a post, scalping the skin from the head and pulling it over the eyes. The executioner then tears the flesh from different parts of the unhappy wretch's body; and never quits this horrible employment till mere fatigue obliges him to give over: the remains of the body are then left to the barbarous spectators, who finish what he has begun. Though this punishment, however, has been inflicted by some emperors with all the dreadful circumstances just mentioned, the law orders only the criminal's belly to be opened, his body to be cut into several pieces, and then thrown into a ditch or river.

The torture, both ordinary and extraordinary, is used in China. The former is applied to the hands or feet: for the hands, small pieces of wood are applied diagonally between the fingers of the criminal; his fingers are then tied close with cords, and he is left for some time in that painful situation. The torture for the feet is still worse. An instrument, consisting of three cross pieces of wood, is provided, that in the middle being fixed, the others moveable. The feet of the criminal are then put into this machine, which squeezes them so close that the ankle bones become flat. The extraordinary torture consists in

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making ſmall gaſhes in the body, and then tearing off the ſkin like thongs. It is never applied but for ſome great crime, ſuch as treaſon, or where the criminal's guilt has been clearly proved, and it is neceſſary to make him diſcover his accomplices.

79 M. Groſier's general view of the Chineſe laws.

Notwithſtanding theſe dreadful puniſhments, M. Groſier is at great pains to prove that the laws of the Chineſe, with regard to criminal matters, are extremely mild. "One law (ſays he) will no doubt appear exceedingly ſevere and rigorous; it inflicts the puniſhment of death on thoſe who uſe pearls. Thoſe who read the hiſtory of China will be apt to fall into certain miſtakes reſpecting the penal laws of that nation. Some of its ſovereigns have indulged themſelves in gratifying ſanguinary caprices which were not authorized by the laws, and which have often been confounded with them; but theſe princes are even yet ranked among the number of tyrants, and their names are ſtill abhorred and deteſted throughout the whole empire. The Chineſe, in their criminal procedure, have a great advantage over all other nations: it is almoſt impoſſible that an innocent man ſhould ever become a victim to a falſe accuſation: in ſuch caſes the accuſer and witneſſes are expoſed to too much danger. The ſlowneſs of the proceſs, and the numberleſs reviſions it undergoes, are another ſafeguard for the accuſed. In ſhort, no ſentence of death is ever carried into execution until it has been approved and confirmed by the emperor. A fair copy of the whole proceſs is laid before him; a number of other copies are alſo made out, both in the Chineſe and Tartar languages, which the emperor ſubmits to the examination of a like number of doctors, either Tartars or Chineſe. When the crime is of great enormity, and clearly proved, the emperor writes with his own hand at the bottom of the ſentence, "When you receive this order, let it be executed without delay." In caſes where the crime, though puniſhable by death according to law, is ranked only in the ordinary claſs, the emperor writes at the bottom of the ſentence, "Let the criminal be detained in priſon, and executed in autumn;" that being the ſeaſon in which they are generally executed, and all on the ſame day.

80 Caſes in which crimes may be pardoned.

The emperor of China never ſigns an order for the execution of a criminal till he has prepared himſelf by faſting. Like other monarchs he has the power of giving pardons; but in this reſpect is much more limited than any other. The only caſes in which the Chineſe monarch can remit the puniſhment inflicted by law are, 1. To the ſon of a widow who has not married again; 2. To the heir of an ancient family; 3. The deſcendants of great men or citizens who have deſerved well of their country; and, 4. laſtly, The ſons or grandſons of a mandarin, who has become illuſtrious, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by faithfully diſcharging the duties of his office. Neither a child, nor a man of very advanced age, can be cited before a tribunal. The ſon of a very aged father and mother is pardoned, if private property or the public peace be not hurt by giving him a pardon; and if the ſons of ſuch a father and mother be all guilty, or accomplices in the ſame crime, the youngeſt is pardoned in order to comfort his parents.

In China the accuſed are always treated with tenderneſs and lenity, being accounted innocent until their guilt be clearly proved; and even then, liberty excepted, they are ſcarce allowed to want for any thing. A jailor is puniſhed who behaves rigorouſly towards his priſoners; and the judges muſt likewiſe anſwer at their peril for any additions to the ſeverity of the law; depoſition being the ſlighteſt puniſhment inflicted upon them.

Subſtitution is ſometimes allowed by the laws of China; ſo that the near relation of a guilty perſon may put himſelf in the criminal's place, provided however, that the chaſtiſement be ſlight, and the accuſed his ancient friend. The ſons, grandſons, wife, and brothers of a baniſhed Chineſe, are allowed to follow him into exile; and the relations of all perſons are permitted to viſit them in priſons, and to give them every aſſiſtance in their power; to do which good offices they are even encouraged, inſtead of being prevented.

81 Of the cities and their government.

Every city in China is divided into different quarters, each of which is ſubjected to the inſpection of a certain officer, who is anſwerable for whatever paſſes in the places under his juriſdiction. Fathers of families, as we have already obſerved, are anſwerable for the conduct of their children and domeſtics. Neighbours are even obliged to anſwer for one another, and are bound to give every help and aſſiſtance in caſes of robbery, fire, or any accident, eſpecially in the night-time. All the cities are furniſhed with gates, which are barricaded on the commencement of night. Centinels are alſo poſted at certain diſtances throughout the ſtreets, who ſtop all who walk in the night, and a number of horſemen go round the ramparts for the ſame purpoſe; ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible to elude their vigilance by favour of the darkneſs. A ſtrict watch is alſo kept during the day-time; and all thoſe who give any ſuſpicion by their looks, accent, or behaviour, are immediately carried before a mandarin, and ſometimes even detained until the pleaſure of the governor be known.

Private quarrels do not often happen in China, and it is rare that they are attended with a fatal iſſue. The champions ſometimes decide the quarrel with their fiſts, but moſt frequently refer the caſe to a mandarin, who very often orders them both a ſound drubbing. None but military people are permitted to wear arms in public; and this privilege is extended even to them only during the time of war, or when they accompany a mandarin, mount guard, or attend a review. Proſtitutes are not allowed to remain within the walls of a city, or to keep a houſe of their own even in the ſuburbs. They may, however, lodge in the houſe of another; but that other is accountable for every diſturbance which may happen on their account.

82 Borrowing of money.

In all the Chineſe cities, and even in ſome of their ordinary towns, there is an office where money may be borrowed upon pledges at the common rate of the country; which, however, is no leſs than 30 per cent. Every pledge is marked with a number when left at the office, and muſt be produced when demanded; but it becomes the property of the office if left there a ſingle day longer than the term agreed upon for the payment of the money. The whole tranſaction remains an inviolable ſecret; not even the name of

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of the person who leaves the pledge being inquired after.

This mode of procuring a supply of money for the exigencies of the moment, has been long known in Britain, and the people who thus lend money on pledges under the sanction of government, have a most exorbitant interest, as well as in China, but we are sorry to add, that it is by no means conducted with such profound secrecy. The person's name and surname who offers a pledge must be inserted in the pawn-broker's books, who is thus enabled to make the transaction as public as he pleases. Institutions of this nature are no doubt of considerable utility to the modest poor during a period of embarrassment; but the monstrous evils to which they have given rise are more than sufficient to counterbalance their advantages. We should deem an open avowal of poverty and want to be infinitely preferable to an application to such a sink of corruption and extortion, assured that genuine distress will never want a friend among the sons of benevolence or philanthropy.

83 Of the Chinese roads.

Great attention is paid by the administration of China to the conveniency of travellers. The roads are generally very broad, all of them paved in the southern provinces, and some in the northern; but neither horses nor carriages are allowed to pass along these. In many places valleys have been filled up, and rocks and mountains cut through, for the purpose of making commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and in some places with walls eight or ten feet high, to prevent travellers from going into the fields; but openings are left in proper places, which give a passage into cross roads that lead to different villages. Covered seats are erected on all the great roads, where travellers may shelter themselves from the inclemency of the weather; temples and pagods are also frequent, into which travellers are admitted without scruple in the day-time, but often meet with a refusal in the night. In these the mandarins only have a right to rest themselves as long as they think proper. There is, however, no want of inns on the great roads, or even the cross ones in China; but they are ill supplied with provisions; and those who frequent them are even obliged to carry beds along with them to sleep on, or else take up with a plain mat.

Towers are erected on all the roads of this great empire, with watch-boxes on the top, with flag-staffs, for the convenience of signals in case of any alarm. These towers are square, and generally constructed of brick, but seldom exceed twelve feet in height. They are built, however, in sight of one another, and are guarded by soldiers, who run with great speed from one to another, carrying letters which concern the emperor. Intelligence of any remarkable event is also conveyed by signals; and thus the court is informed with surprising quickness of any important matter. Those which are built on any of the roads conducting to court, are furnished with battlements, and have also very large bells of cast iron. According to law these towers should be only five *lys*, about half a French league, distant from one another.

84 Method of conveyance.

There is no public post-office in China, though several private ones have been established; but the couriers and officers charged with dispatches for the empire have only a right to make use of them. This inconvenience, however, excepted, travellers find conveyance very easy from one part of China to another. Great numbers of porters are employed in every city, all of whom are associated under the conduct of a chief, who regulates all their engagements, fixes the price of their labour, receives their hire, and is responsible for every thing they carry. When porters are wanted, he furnishes as many as may be necessary, and gives the same number of tickets to the traveller; who returns one to each porter when they have conveyed their loads to an appointed place. These tickets are carried back to the chief, who immediately pays them from the money he received in advance. On all the great roads in China there are several offices of this kind, which have a settled correspondence with others; the travellers therefore have only to carry to one of these offices a list of such things as they wish to have transported: this is immediately written down in a book; and though there should be occasion for two, three, or four hundred porters, they are instantly furnished. Every thing is weighed before the eyes of their chief, and the hire is fivepence per hundred weight for one day's carriage. An exact register of every thing is kept in the office; the traveller pays the money in advance, after which he has no occasion to give himself any farther trouble; on his arrival at the city he designs, his baggage is found at the corresponding office, and every thing is delivered to him with the most scrupulous exactness.

85 Custom-houses.

The customhouses are here regulated by the general police of the country; and according to M. Grosier's account, these customhouse officers are the most civil in the world. They have no concern with any class of people but the merchants, whom they take care not to distress by any rigorous exactions; neither, though they have authority to do so, do they stop travellers till their baggage is examined, nor do they ever require the smallest fee from them. Duties are paid either by the piece or by the load; and in the former case credit is given to the merchant's book without asking any questions. A mandarin is appointed by the viceroy of each province to inspect the customhouses of the whole district; and the mandarins have also the care of the post-offices.

86 Money of the empire.

In former times the only money used in China was made of small shells, but now both silver and copper coin are met with. The latter consists of round pieces about nine-tenths of an inch (A) in diameter, with a small square hole in the middle, inscribed with two Chinese words on one side, and two Tartar ones on the other. The silver pieces are valued only by their weight. For the convenience of commerce the metal is therefore cast into plates of different sizes: and

(A) The Chinese foot is longer by one hundredth part than the French, and the inch is divided into ten parts.

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and for want of fmall coin, a Chinefe always carries about him his fcales, weights, and a pair of fciffars to cut the metal. This operation is performed by putting the filver between the fciffars, and then knocking them againft a ftone till the pieces drop off. In giving of change, however, people have no right to value filver by the numerical value of copper, this being entirely regulated by the intrinfic value of the metals. Thus, an ounce of filver will fometimes be worth 1000 copper pieces, and fometimes only 800; and thus the copper money of China may frequently be fold for more than it would pafs for in commerce. The emperor would lofe much by this recoinage, were he not the fole proprietor of all the copper mines in China. It is, however, exprefsly forbidden to employ copper coin in any manufacture where it might be employed as plain copper, and it is alfo forbidden to be fold for the purpofe of melting: but, if the price of the metal has not fallen, the infraction of this law is not very feverely punifhed. On the other hand, if the value of unwrought copper exceeds that of the coin, a quantity of the latter is iffued out to reftore the equilibrium.

To keep up a conftant circulation of all the coin in the empire, the Chinefe government are attentive to preferve an equilibrium between the proportional value of the gold and filver; that is, to regulate the intrinfic value of each in fuch a manner that the poffeffor of filver may not be afraid to exchange it for copper, nor the poffeffor of copper for filver. The method ufed for this purpofe is, when filver becomes fcarce, to make all the payments for fome time in filver; but if copper, to make them all for fome time in that metal only.

87 Of the Chinefe commerce.

The commerce of China is under the infpection of the tribunal of finances; but on this fubject the Chinefe entertain an opinion quite different from that of the Europeans. Commerce, according to them, is only ufeful as far as it eafes the people of their fuperfluities, and procures them neceffaries. For this reafon they confider even that which is carried on at Canton as prejudicial to the intereft of the empire. "They take from us (fay the Chinefe) our filks, teas, and porcelain: the price of thefe articles is raifed throughout the provinces: fuch a trade therefore cannot be beneficial. The money brought us by Europeans, and the high-priced baubles that accompany it, are mere fuperfluities to fuch a ftate as ours. We have no occafion for more bullion than what may be neceffary to anfwer the exigencies of government, and to fupply the relative wants of individuals. It was faid by Kouan-tfe, two thoufand years ago, That the money introduced does not enrich a kingdom in any other way than as it is introduced by commerce. No commerce can be advantageous long, but that which confifts in a mutual exchange of things neceffary or ufeful. That trade, whether carried on by barter or money, which has for its object the importing of articles that tend to the gratification of pride, luxury, or curiofity, always fuppofes the exiftence of luxury: but luxury, which is an abundance of fuperfluities among certain claffes of people, fuppofes the want of neceffaries among a great many others. The more horfes the rich put to their carriages, the greater will be the number of thofe who are obliged to walk on foot; the larger and more magnificent their houfes are, fo much the more confined and wretched muft thofe of the poor be; and the more their tables are covered with a variety of difhes, the more muft the number of thofe increafe who are reduced to the neceffity of feeding upon plain rice. Men, united by fociety in a large and populous kingdom, can employ their induftry, talents, and economy, to no better purpofe than to provide neceffaries for all, and procure convenience for fome."

88 History of the trade with Ruffia.

The only commerce confidered by the Chinefe as advantageous to their empire, is that with Ruffia and Tartary; by which they are fupplied with thofe furs fo neceffary in the northern provinces. The difputes concerning the limits of the refpective empires of Ruffia and China feem to have paved the way to this commerce. Thefe difputes were fettled by treaty on the 27th of Auguft 1689, under the reign of Ivan and Peter Alexiowitz. The chief of the embaffy on the part of Ruffia was Golovin governor of Siberia; and two Jefuits were deputed on the part of the emperor of China; and the conferences were held in Latin, with a German in the Ruffian ambaffador's train, who was acquainted with that language. By this treaty the Ruffians obtained a regular and permanent trade with China, which they had long defired; but in return they yielded up a large territory, befides the navigation of the river Amour. The firft intercourfe had taken place in the beginning of the 17th century; at which time a fmall quantity of Chinefe merchandife was procured by fome Ruffian merchants from the Kalmuck Tartars. The rapid and profitable fale of thefe commodities encouraged certain Siberian wayvodes to attempt a direct and open communication with China. For this purpofe feveral deputations were fent to the emperor; and though they failed of obtaining the grant of a regular commerce, their attempts were attended with fome confequences of importance. Thus the Ruffian merchants were tempted to fend traders occafionally to Peking; by which means a faint connexion was preferved with that metropolis. This commerce, however, was at laft interrupted by the commencement of hoftilities on the river Amour; but after the conclufion of the treaty in 1689, was refumed with uncommon alacrity on the part of the Ruffians: and the advantages thence arifing were found to be fo confiderable, that a defign of enlarging it was formed by Peter the Great. Ifbrand Ides, a native of the duchy of Holftein, then in the Ruffian fervice, was therefore defpatched to Peking in 1692; by whofe means the liberty of trade, before confined to individuals, was now extended to caravans. In the mean time, private merchants continued to trade as before, not only with the Chinefe, but alfo at the head quarters of the Mogul Tartars. The camp of thefe roving Tartars, which was generally ftationed near the confluence of the Orhon and Toula rivers, between the fouthern frontiers of Siberia and the Mogul defert, thus became the feat of an annual fair. Complaints, however, were foon made of the diforderly behaviour of the Ruffians; on which the Chinefe monarch threatened to expel them from his dominions entirely, and to allow them neither to trade with the Chinefe nor Moguls. This produced another embaffy to Peking in 1719, when matters were again adjufted to the

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the ſatisfaction of both parties. The reconciliation was of no long duration; for the Ruſſians having ſoon renewed their diſorderly behaviour, an order for their expulſion was iſſued in 1722, and all intercourſe between the two nations forbidden. The differences were once more made up in 1727, and a caravan allowed to go to Peking once in three years, provided it conſiſted of no more than a hundred perſons; and that during their ſtay their expences ſhould not, as formerly, be defrayed by the emperor of China. The Ruſſians at the ſame time obtained permiſſion to build a church within the precincts of the caravanſary; and four prieſts were allowed to reſide at Peking for the celebration of divine ſervice; the ſame indulgence being granted to ſome Ruſſian ſcholars, for the purpoſe of learning the Chineſe language, and qualifying themſelves for being interpreters between the two nations. This intercourſe continued till the year 1755; ſince which time no more caravans have been ſent to China. It was firſt interrupted by a miſunderſtanding betwixt the two courts; and though that difference was afterwards made up, no caravans have been ſent ever ſince. The empreſs of Ruſſia, ſenſible that the monopoly of the fur trade (which was entirely confined to the caravans belonging to the crown, and prohibited to individuals) was prejudicial to commerce, gave it up in favour of her ſubjects in 1762; and the centre of commerce betwixt the two nations is now at Kiatka. Here the trade is entirely carried on by barter. The Ruſſians are prohibited from exporting their own coin; finding it more advantageous to take goods in exchange than to receive bullion at the Chineſe ſtandard. The principal exports from Ruſſia are furs of different kinds; the moſt valuable of which are thoſe of ſea otters, beavers, wolves, foxes, martins, ſables, and ermines; the greater part of which are brought from Siberia and the newly diſcovered iſlands; but as they cannot ſupply the demand, there is a neceſſity for importing foreign furs to Peterſburg, which are afterwards ſent to Kiatka. Various kinds of cloth are likewiſe ſent to China, as well as hardware, and live cattle, ſuch as horſes, camels, &c. The exports from China are raw and manufactured ſilk, cotton, porcelain, rhubarb, muſk, &c. The government of Ruſſia likewiſe reſerves to itſelf the excluſive privilege of purchaſing rhubarb. It is brought to Kiatka by ſome Bukharian merchants, who have entered into a contract to ſupply the crown with it in exchange for furs: the exportation of the beſt rhubarb is forbidden under ſevere penalties, but yet is procured in ſufficient quantities, ſometimes by clandeſtinely mixing it with inferior roots, and ſometimes by ſmuggling it directly. Great part of Europe is ſupplied with rhubarb from Ruſſia.

89 Emperor's revenue.

The revenue of the emperor of China amounts to more than 41 millions ſterling; and might eaſily be increaſed, did the ſovereign incline to burden his ſubjects with new impoſitions. When Lord Macartney viſited this vaſt empire in the capacity of his Britannic majeſty's ambaſſador, the revenue of the Chineſe emperor was not leſs than 66 millions ſterling; but it cannot be ſuppoſed that a very large ſhare of this enormous ſum is actually expended by the emperor, after deducting the almoſt incalculable number of ſalaries which it is deſtined to pay, together with a ſtanding army of 1,800,000 men. Yet upon the ſuppoſition that each individual is taxed equally, this enormous ſum will amount to no more than 4s. a head annually, while the ſame analogy applied to Britain will make an individual ſhare amount to 3l. There is reaſon, however, to conclude, that the Chineſe, in the above eſtimate of their ſtanding army, have been rather hyperbolical, for Lord Macartney, from the information communicated by Vang-ta-zin, makes the whole of the expences of government to leave a ſurplus for the uſe of the emperor of 14,043,743l. ſterling, which we preſume would be impoſſible, were their ſtanding army as enormous as ſome of the Chineſe pretend.

Sum total of the revenue,		L. 66,000,000
Civil eſtabliſhment, L.	1,973,333	
Military ditto,	49,982,933	
		51,956,266
Surplus for the emperor,		L. 14,043,734*

* Barrow's Travels, p. 407.

The annual expences of government are indeed immenſe, but they are regulated in ſuch a manner as never to be augmented but in caſes of the utmoſt neceſſity. It even happens very often that adminiſtration makes greater ſavings every year. When this happens to be the caſe, the ſurplus ſerves to increaſe the general treaſure of the empire, and prevents the neceſſity of new impoſitions in time of war, or other public calamities. The greater part of the taxes are paid in kind; thoſe, for inſtance, who breed ſilk worms, pay their taxes in ſilk, the huſbandmen in grain, the gardeners in fruits, &c. This method, at the ſame time that it is exceedingly convenient for the ſubject, is no way detrimental to the public intereſt. There are numbers of people everywhere in the ſervice of government, who are thus furniſhed with food and clothing; ſo that the commodities collected as taxes are almoſt conſumed in the provinces where they are levied; what remains is ſold for the behoof of the emperor, and the money depoſited in the imperial treaſury. The taxes paid in money ariſe principally from the cuſtoms and ſale of ſalt (which belongs entirely to the emperor), from the duties paid by veſſels entering any port, and from other impoſts on various branches of manufactures. Excepting theſe, the trader ſcarcely contributes any thing to the exigencies of the ſtate, and the mechanic nothing at all; the whole burden of taxation thus falling upon the huſbandman. This burden is regulated in proportion to the extent and fertility of his lands; and the greateſt care has been taken to manage matters ſo, that he may neither be overcharged in the impoſition nor haraſſed in the levying of the duties. "The regiſtering of lands (ſays M. Groſier), ſo often and to no purpoſe projected in France, has been long practiſed in this empire, notwithſtanding its prodigious extent."

90 Of the taxes in China.

The levying of taxes in China is as ſimple as the nature of the thing will admit of. The duties levied from towns and villages are carried to cities of the third claſs; then they are conducted to thoſe of the ſecond; then to thoſe of the firſt; and at laſt to the capital. The levying and impoſition of taxes is ſubmitted to the tribunal of finances; and matters are ſo managed, that beſides the conſumption in each diſtrict for

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for discharging the ordinary expences of government, something is left by way of reserve for answering accidental demands, and to be ready in cases of necessity. This sum becomes gradually less from the capital to cities of the first, second, and third class. A proper statement of what is paid in the provinces, of what is reserved in the different cities, or contained in the different treasuries of the empire, is subjected to the examination of the grand tribunal of finances. This revises the whole, and keeps an exact account of what is consumed, and of whatever surplus may be left.

91 Of lending money, and deficiencies in paying interest.

Lending money upon interest has been in use in China for about 2000 years. It has often been abolished, and as often established. The interest, as has been already hinted, is no less than 30 per cent. and the year is only lunar. A tenth part of this interest is paid monthly: and concerning neglects of payment, the following laws have been enacted. "However much the debt may have accumulated by months or years, the principal and interest shall remain always the same. Whoever infringes this law shall receive 40 blows of a *pan-tsee;* or an hundred, if he uses any artifice to add the principal and interest together." This law is explained by the following. "Whoever shall be convicted before a mandarin of not having paid a month's interest, shall receive ten blows; twenty for two months, and thirty for three; and in this manner as far as sixty; that is to say, to the sixth month. The debtor is then obliged to pay principal and interest; but those who obtain payment by using violence and force are condemned to receive 24 blows.

Many Chinese writers have endeavoured unsuccessfully to show why government should allow such exorbitant interest to be taken for money; but the most satisfactory and rational account seems to be, that the great interest of money prevents the rich from purchasing much land; as landed estates would only embarrass and impoverish them, their produce being so much inferior to that of money. The patrimony of a family in China is seldom divided; and it never happens there, as in almost every other country, that wealth and riches are engrossed by one part of the nation, while the other possesses nothing.

92 Agriculture greatly encouraged.

Agriculture is by the Chinese considered as the first and most honourable of all professions; so that in this empire the husbandman enjoys many and great privileges, while the merchant and mechanic are much less esteemed. He is considered as next in dignity to officers of state, from whom indeed they very frequently originate. The soldier in China cultivates the ground, and even the priests are employed in agriculture, when their convents happen to be endowed with land. From the principle that the emperor is absolute proprietor of the soil, one would imagine that the tenant must hold his share of it by a very precarious tenure, yet it is certain that when any man is dispossessed, his own culpable conduct is the cause. The Chinese are so habituated to consider a piece of land as their own, while they continue to be punctual in the payment of their rent, that a Portuguese resident in Macao who attempted to raise the rent of his tenants, ran the hazard of losing his life. There are no prodigiously overgrown farms in China, no monopolizers of farms, no wholesale dealers in grain, but every man has it in his power to carry his produce to a free and open market. Part of the crop is allowed to be used in distillation; but if the harvest happens to be bad, this operation is prohibited. In China, the tillage of the earth is not only encouraged by law, but also by the example of the emperor, who annually tills the earth with his own hands. The beginning of spring in China is always reckoned to be in the month of February; but it belongs to the tribunal of mathematics to determine the precise day. The tribunal of ceremonies announces it to the emperor by a memorial; in which every thing requisite to be done by him is mentioned with the most scrupulous exactness. The sovereign then names 12 of the most illustrious persons in his court to accompany him, and to hold the plough after he has performed his part of the ceremony. Among these there are always three princes of the blood, and nine presidents of supreme courts; and if any of them are too old and infirm to undergo the fatigue, the substitutes must be authorized by the emperor. The festival is preceded by a sacrifice, which the emperor offers up to *Chang-ti* (the supreme God); after which he and his attendants prepare themselves by three days fasting and continence. Others are appointed by the emperor, on the evening before the ceremony, to go and prostrate themselves at the sepulchre of his ancestors, and to acquaint them, that, on the day following, he intends to celebrate a grand sacrifice. This is offered upon a small mount a few furlongs distant from the city, which, by the indispensable rules of the ceremony, must be 50 feet in height. The Chang-ti is invoked by the emperor, who sacrifices under the title of sovereign pontiff, and prays for an abundant harvest in favour of his people. He then descends, accompanied by the three princes and nine presidents who are to put their hands to the plough along with him; the field set apart for this purpose being at a small distance from the mount. Forty labourers are selected to yoke the oxen, and to prepare the seed which the emperor is to sow; and which are of five different kinds, viz. wheat, rice, two kinds of millet, and beans. They are brought to the spot in magnificent boxes, carried by persons of the most distinguished rank. The emperor then lays hold of the plough, and turns up several furrows; the princes of the blood do the same, and then the presidents; after which the emperor throws into the furrows the five kinds of seeds already mentioned: lastly, four pieces of cotton-cloth, proper for making dresses, are distributed to each of the labourers, who assist in yoking the oxen and preparing the seeds; and the same presents are made to forty other persons who have only been spectators of the ceremony.

93 Ceremony of the emperor tilling the earth with his own hands.

94 Of the peasants.

"We must not (says M. Grosier) judge of the Chinese peasants from those of Europe, especially in what relates to the lights acquired by education. Free schools are very numerous in every province of China, and even some of the villages are not destitute of this advantage. The sons of the poor are there received as readily as those of the rich; their duties and their studies are the same; the attention of the masters is equally divided between them; and from this obscure source talents often spring, which afterwards make a conspicuous figure on the grand stage of life. Nothing is more common in China than to see the son of

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of a peasant governor of that province in which his father had long toiled in cultivating only a few acres. The father himself, if taken from his plough, and elevated to a superior sphere, might, by reviving the instruction he received in his youth, and especially if he be endowed with genius, find himself fully competent for his new employment.

95 Grosier's defence of the Chinese from the charge of murdering and exposing their children.

The Chinese have been greatly reproached with the inhuman practice of murdering their children; but though our author cannot deny that they are guilty of this practice, he excuses them by saying, that "the crime when committed in China is commonly owing to the fanaticism of idolatry; a fanaticism which prevails only among the lowest of the people. It is either in obedience to the oracle of a bonze, to deliver themselves from the power of magic spells, or to discharge a vow, that these infatuated wretches precipitate their children into the river: they imagine that, by so doing, they make an expiatory sacrifice to the spirit of the river. All nations of antiquity almost have disgraced themselves by the like horrid practices; but the Chinese are far from countenancing this barbarity on that account. Besides, these criminal sacrifices are never practised but in certain cantons of China, where the people, blinded by idolatry, are the dupes of prejudice, fanaticism, and superstition.—It often happens also, that the bodies of those children which are seen floating on the water have not been thrown into it till after their death; and this is likewise the case with those which are found in the streets, or lying near the public roads. The poverty of the parents suggests this dismal resource, because their children are then buried at the expence of the public. Exposing of children in public places is a custom tolerated in China; and government employs as much vigilance to have them carried away in the morning, as it bestows care on their education. This is certainly giving people intimation to expose their children in the nighttime, and no doubt encourages the practice; but the dictates of humanity are here united to those of sound policy. No law in China authorizes mutilation: there are indeed eunuchs in the empire, but their number is much less than what it is generally supposed to be by Europeans. The greater part of the eunuchs belonging to the emperor and empresses have no higher employment than that of sweeping the courts of justice."

96 Gazette of Peking.

Like the capital cities of European kingdoms, Peking, the metropolis of the Chinese empire, is furnished with a gazette, which circulates into the remotest provinces, and which is even considered by administration as an essential part of the political constitution. It is printed daily at Peking, and contains an account of all these objects to which the attention of administration is directed. In this gazette may be seen the names of all those mandarins who are stripped of their employments, and the causes of their disgrace; it mentions also the names of all those delinquents who are punished with death; of the officers appointed to fill the places of the disgraced mandarins; the calamities which have afflicted any of the provinces; the relief given by government; and the expences incurred by administration for the subsistence of the troops, supplying the wants of the people, repairing or erecting public works; and, lastly, the remonstrances made to the sovereign by the superior tribunals, either with regard to his public decisions or private conduct, and sometimes even with regard to both. Nothing, however, is contained in this gazette that has not immediately come from the emperor, or been submitted to his inspection; and immediate death would be the consequence of inserting a falsehood in this ministerial paper.

97 Seals of the emperor, mandarins, &c.

No law or sentence, as has already been said, is of any force, until the emperor's seal has been affixed to it. This is about eight inches square, and is made of fine jasper, a kind of precious stone much esteemed in China; of which only the emperor is allowed to have a seal. Those given to princes as marks of honour are composed of gold; the seals of the viceroys and great mandarins, of silver; while those of inferior mandarins and magistrates are made only of lead or copper. The size of these seals is greater or smaller according to the rank their possessors hold in the tribunals or as mandarins; and when any of them happens to be worn out, intimation must be sent to the next superior tribunal; on which a new one is sent, and the old one must then be delivered up. The commission of every inspector sent into the provinces must also be confirmed by the emperor's seal. The duty of these officers is to examine into the conduct of governors, magistrates, and private individuals; and instances are recorded of emperors themselves assuming the office of inspectors in some of the provinces. These officers are not only superior to all the magistrates, but even to the viceroys of the provinces themselves. When a superior magistrate behaves ill to an inferior one, the former instantly becomes the prisoner of the inspector, and is suspended from his office until he has cleared himself from every imputation laid to his charge. The viceroy, however, is allowed to enjoy his office until the report of the inspector has been transmitted to the emperor.

98 Power of the viceroys of provinces.

These viceroys are distinguished by the title of *Tsong-tou*, and are always mandarins of the first class, possessing an almost unlimited power within their districts. They march abroad with all the pomp of royal magnificence, never quitting their palaces, on the most trifling occasion, without a guard of 100 men. A viceroy is the receiver-general of all the taxes collected in the province, transmitting them to the capital, after having reserved what he judges necessary for the demands of his district. All law-suits must be brought before his tribunal; and he has the power of passing sentence of death, but it cannot be put in execution without being first carried to the emperor. Every three years he sends to court a report of the conduct of the mandarins subordinate to him; and according to the contents, they are either continued or disgraced. Those of whom he makes an unfavourable report are punished in proportion to their delinquency; while, on the other hand, those who have the good fortune to be well reported are rewarded in a similar proportion.

99 Degradation of mandarins.

The principal mandarins are sometimes broken and dismissed from all their employments, while others are only removed some degrees lower. Those who have been degraded ten steps run a great risk of never being employed again. These degraded mandarins are kept in perpetual remembrance of their misfortune, by being obliged to mention it in every public order they issue forth in their inferior station; thus: "I such a mandarin, degraded one, two, three, &c. steps, command

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mand and order," &c. Over these inferior mandarins the inspector of the province has a very unlimited authority, and can, by his own power, deprive them of their employments for a great offence; nor does he consult the court excepting where the immediate punishment of the criminal is not necessary. Every one of the mandarins, of whatever rank or denomination, is obliged, once in three years, to give in writing an exact account of the faults he has committed in the execution of his office. If he is a mandarin belonging to any of the four first classes, this confession is examined at court; but if it is made by any of the inferior ones, it must be laid before the provincial tribunal of the governor. Government, however, is not satisfied even with this confession; inquiry is made into the truth of it, and the conduct of the mandarin is scrutinized with the utmost severity, the informations being subjected to the tribunal of mandarins; where they are carefully examined, the merits and demerits of those subjected to this political inquisition carefully balanced, and their names afterwards divided into three classes. The first consists of those for whom rewards and preferment are intended: the second, for whom gentle reproof and admonition are thought necessary; and the third, of those who are to be suspended for some time, or removed altogether, from their offices. Of these last some are allowed to continue; but they receive no salary, and are not only deprived of all their emoluments, but even of their honours. If they have been guilty of any action tending to oppress the people, or to occasion a famine or scarcity among the lower ranks, their punishment is not confined to dismission from their offices, but they are also criminally impeached. The family-burying-place of every Chinese is accounted sacred; none dares cut down the trees with which it is overshadowed until they become decayed with age; and even then, not until their condition has been attested by a mandarin: but for certain crimes against government or the people, the burying-place of a mandarin is rased to the foundation. No kind of punishment, however, inflicted on a father, is supposed in the least to affect the character of his son; and therefore, when the latter is asked by the emperor concerning his family, he will perhaps coolly answer, "My father was disgraced for such a crime, my grandfather was beheaded for such another," without the acknowledgement being in the least detrimental. On the contrary, by great and important services, it is possible for him to wipe out these stains from the memory of his ancestors.

Though the empire of China is governed by Tartar princes, the latter seem to bestow much more care and attention on the Chinese than their own natural subjects. Should any dispute arise between a Chinese and Tartar, the former must have greatly deviated from the rules of justice, if he is not acquitted even by those tribunals which are composed of half Chinese and half Tartars. The slightest fault committed by a Tartar mandarin is always severely punished; but the punishment of the Chinese is often mitigated if the delinquent be a Chinese; and the same severity is exercised towards those of the military department. Those faults, however, are punished with the greatest severity which hurt the interests of the people; for which reason they seldom fall a sacrifice to that class of petty tyrants who in other countries prey upon an devour them. Every superior mandarin is obliged to inform himself of the faults of his inferiors and expose them; nay, he would be punished for them himself if he did not.

100 Privileges of princes, &c. in China.

Very little regard, as we have already had occasion to observe, is paid to hereditary rights in China. Even the princes of the blood enjoy no other privilege by birth but that of wearing a yellow girdle; and the names of their children, with the exact time of their birth, are inscribed in a yellow book appropriated to that purpose. Collateral princes are distinguished by an orange girdle, and their children are marked in a book of a red colour. The surnames of the princes of the reigning family are determined by the emperor alone; the rest not being allowed to assume any name that too much resembles those of the Moguls or Chinese. The rank even of the emperor's sons diminishes one degree every generation; so that, at the seventh, only the eldest branch has a title to wear the yellow girdle, the rest being sunk into the rank of plain citizens. An hereditary sovereignty, however, passes from one eldest son to another; and this title cannot be forfeited, unless the possessor be guilty of some crime. In this case the emperor appoints to the succession either one of his younger brothers or a cousin; but these must be always chosen from the same branch, as the lawful branch cannot be deprived of its right without the condemnation of all who compose it. The only hereditary authority of the other princes exists among these troops called the *Tartar bands*. There they enjoy, without opposition, that rank which they derive from their birth, but in every thing else are on a level with others. They are subjected to a military examination at stated periods, and are always promoted or degraded according to the degree of skill they exhibit. The same trial is undergone by the heir apparent and his sons; the only indulgence shewn them being, that schools are appointed for their particular use. The princes are likewise indulged with a tribunal appropriated on purpose for them, and before which alone they can be tried. An insult offered to a prince decorated with the yellow girdle is punished with death; but if he has omitted to put it on, the aggressor escapes with a bastinading. A prince may be put to death with the emperor's consent; but he escapes every slighter corporal punishment by paying a fine. Untitled princes have very few privileges superior to those of common citizens; and are generally very poor, unless possessed of some lucrative office. Thus they are sometimes reduced to the necessity of accepting the highest pay of a common soldier in the Tartar bands. When they, or any of their children, however, enter into the marriage-state, the emperor usually makes them a present of 100 ounces of silver. He will also relieve them on other occasions, assist their widows and orphans, &c. but in all this never departs from the most exact rules of economy; so that the mandarins in this respect are much better than the relations of the sovereign himself.

101 F. Amiot's account of the ancient religion of China.

With regard to the ancient religion of China, F. Amiot informs us, that, after making every possible research, comparing and reasoning upon his observations, he at last concluded, that "The Chinese are a distinct people, who have still preserved the characteristic marks of their first origin; a people whose primitive

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tive doctrine will be found, by those who take the trouble of investigating it thoroughly, to agree in its essential parts with the doctrine of the chosen people, before Moses, by the command of God himself, had consigned the explanation of it to the sacred records; a people, in a word, whose traditional knowledge, when freed from whatever the ignorance or superstition of later ages has added to it, may be traced back from age to age, and from epocha to epocha, without interruption, for the space of 4000 years, even to the renewal of the human race by the grandson of Noah." The *king*, or canonical books of the Chinese, everywhere inculcate the belief of a Supreme Being, the author and preserver of all things. Under him they mention the names of *Tien*, or heaven; *Chang-tien*, or Supreme heaven; *Chang-ti*, or Supreme Lord; and of *Hoang-chan-ti*, Sovereign and Supreme Lord: "Names (says M. Grosier) corresponding to those which we use when we speak of God, the Lord, the Almighty, the Most High."

According to the Chinese books, the Supreme Being is the principle of every thing that exists, and the father of all living; he is eternal, immoveable, and independent; his power knows no bounds; his sight equally comprehends the past, present, and the future, penetrating even into the inmost recesses of the heart. Heaven and earth are under his government; all events, all revolutions, are the consequences of his will; he is pure, holy, and impartial; wickedness offends his sight; but he beholds with an eye of complacency the virtuous actions of men. Severe, yet just, he punishes vice in a striking manner even on the throne, and often precipitates from thence the guilty, to place upon it the man who walks after his own heart, whom he hath raised from obscurity. Good, merciful, and full of pity, he relents on the repentance of the wicked: public calamities, and the irregularities of the seasons, are only salutary warnings, which his fatherly goodness gives to men to induce them to reform and amend.

The performance of religious worship at the proper and appointed times, has given occasion to the great exactness with respect to the kalendar, which is remarkable throughout the empire of China; and all the celebrated emperors have begun their reigns with a reformation of it. Our historians, however, not contented with discovering in the Chinese religion the fundamental principles of the ancient patriarchal religion, have also found in it evident symptoms of a knowledge of the Trinity as believed among Christians. "Among the ancient Chinese characters (says M. Grosier), which have escaped the ravages of time, we find the following △. According to the dictionary of *Kang-hi*, this signifies union; according to the *Choue-ouen* (that book so highly esteemed in China) △ is three united in one; it derives it from the characters *jou* (to enter or penetrate), and *ye*, one; whence it concludes, that △ means three united, penetrated, or incorporated into one. According to another book, accounted a learned and accurate explanation of the ancient characters, ' △ signifies strict union, harmony, the chief good of man, of heaven, and of earth; it is the union of the three *tsai* (powers, principles, or intelligences; for, united, they direct, create, and nourish together. The image $\frac{\overline{\ }}{\overline{\ }}$ (three united in one figure) is not so obscure in itself; however, it is difficult to reason upon it without being deceived: on this subject it is difficult to speak."

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"Father Amiot, spite of all the objections which the critics of Europe may make, seems to conjecture, that the character △ might have been, among the ancient Chinese, the symbol of the most holy Trinity; ' and the more so (he adds), as the ancient books furnish a number of texts, which give us reason to suppose them to have been possessed of some knowledge of this sublime mystery.' The book *See-ki* says, ' The emperor formerly offered up a solemn sacrifice every three years to the Spirit, Trinity and Unity, *Chin-san-ye*.' The following celebrated text of *Lao-tse* has long been known in Europe. ' *Tao* is one by nature: the first begot the second; two produced the third; the three created all things.'

"F. Amiot quotes another passage, which appears to be no less singular. He who is, as it were, visible, and cannot be seen, is named *Khi*; he who may be heard yet speaketh not to the ears, is called *Hi*; he whom, in a manner, we feel, yet cannot touch, is named *Ouei*. In vain do we interrogate our senses respecting these three; our reason, which alone can give us any satisfaction, will tell us that they make only one. Above there is no light; below there is no darkness. He is eternal; there is no name which can be given him. He resembles nothing that exists; he is an image without figure; a figure without matter: his light is surrounded by darkness. If we look up to him above, we behold no beginning; if we follow him, we discover no end. From what the *Tao* hath been at all times, conclude what he is, viz. that he is eternal: he is the beginning of wisdom.' The commentaries which explain this passage speak in such strong and precise terms, that F. Amiot forbears to quote them, lest he might incur the censure of too many incredulous readers (A)."

The sacrifices of the Chinese were first offered up in the open fields, or on some mountain, upon what they call the *Tan*, which signifies a quantity of stones thrown together in a round form, or simply a round heap of earth. A double fence called *Kiao*, composed of turf and branches of trees, was raised around this; and, in the space left between the two fences, two lesser altars were erected on the right and left; upon which, immediately after the sacrifice offered up to the *Tien*, they sacrificed also to the *Cheng*, or good spirits of every rank, and to their virtuous ancestors. The sovereign alone had a right of sacrificing upon this *Tan*; and the custom of sacrificing to inferior spirits, according to the Chinese commentators, may be traced even to the days of *Fo-hi* himself. The same writers add, that, in addressing themselves to the Chang-ti, they considered him as the sovereign lord of the universe, clothed with all that power which was necessary to satisfy them with regard to the different objects

(A) It is a singular circumstance that F. Amiot should have passed over in silence such unintelligible mummery, without a single animadversion. Reason humbly confesses every word of it to be absolutely incomprehensible; and faith itself has almost as hard a struggle in believing it as the never-to-be-fathomed creed of Athanasius.

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objects of their requests; but that, in offering up their prayers to the inferior objects of worship, they only implored their protection and mediation with the Chang-ti.

While the empire was confined within narrow bounds, one mountain was sufficient for the sacrifices; but in process of time it became necessary to consecrate four others. These were situated at the extremities of the empire, and were supposed to correspond with the four quarters of the world; and the prince went successively every year to one of these mountains to offer up sacrifices; taking occasion at the same time to show himself to his people, and to inform himself of their wants. This custom subsisted for a long time; but at length it was found convenient to add a fifth mountain in the centre of the empire; and ever since these have been called the five *Yo*, or the five mountains of sacrifice. This method of subjecting the emperor to regular annual journeys could not but be attended with many inconveniencies. It was found necessary on this account to consecrate some spot in the neighbourhood of his palace, which might be substituted for the *Yo* upon all occasions when the emperor could not repair to them. An edifice was therefore erected, which at once represented the *Kiao*, *Tan*, and the *Hall of ancestors*. This last was a necessary part of the edifice; because it was incumbent on those who offered up sacrifices, first to repair to this hall, and acquaint their ancestors with what they were about to perform; and thither also they returned after sacrificing, to thank the same ancestors for the protection they had received from the Chang-ti; after which they offered up a sacrifice of thanksgiving in honour of them, and performed certain other ceremonies to show their respect. The building contained five separate halls, appropriated to different purposes; originally it had neither paintings nor ornaments of any kind, and a staircase of nine steps conducted to the principal entrance. Afterwards, however it was much more richly ornamented, each of the five halls being decorated with columns, over which others were placed that supported a second roof. In succeeding times it was stripped of all its ornaments, with a view to bring back religion to its primitive simplicity. Its four gates were covered with fine moss, representing the branches of which the double fence of the ancient *Kiao* were formed. The ridge of the roof was covered with the same, and the whole was encompassed by a canal filled with water at the time of offering up the sacrifices. To this a second building was added, which they called the *temple of neatness*, and which was used only for purifications and ceremonies, the former being entirely consecrated to the worship of the Chang-ti.

At present there are only two temples in Peking, named the *Tian tan* and the *Ti tan*; in the construction of which all the elegance of Chinese architecture is displayed. These are both dedicated to the Chang-ti, but under different titles; in the one he is adored as the *eternal spirit*; in the other, as the creator and preserver of the world. The ceremonies of the modern sacrifices are greatly multiplied; and nothing can exceed the splendour and magnificence with which these solemnities are performed. Sometimes before the day appointed for the grand ceremony, the monarch, the grandees of the court, and all those whom their employments qualify to assist at the solemnity, prepare themselves by retirement, fasting, and continence; no audience is given by the emperor, and the tribunals are entirely shut; marriages, funerals, rejoicings, and entertainments of every kind, are then forbidden. At last, on the day appointed, the emperor appears, attended by an innumerable multitude, and his person surrounded by a vast number of princes, lords, and officers, while every part of the temple seems to correspond with the magnificence of the sovereign; all the vases and utensils employed in the sacrifices are of gold, and cannot be applied to any other purpose; even the instruments of music are of enormous magnitude, and never used anywhere else. All this grandeur, however, serves only to display in a more eminent manner the humility and abasement of the monarch during his devotion; at which time he rolls in the dust, and speaks of himself before the *Chang-ti* in terms of the most abject submission and humiliation.

103 Sect of Tao-sse.

The purity of the ancient Chinese religion has, however, been long contaminated by many idolatrous and fanatical sects. Among these, one named *Tao-sse* was founded by a philosopher called *Lao-kiun* or *Lao-tse*, who was born 603 B. C. He died in an advanced age, leaving to his disciples a book entitled *Tao-te*, being a collection of 5000 sentences. His morality has a great resemblance to that of Epicurus. It consists principally in banishing all vehement desires and passions capable of disturbing the peace and tranquillity of the soul. According to him, the care of every wise man ought to be only to endeavour to live free from grief and pain, and to glide gently down the stream of life devoid of anxiety and care. To arrive at this happy state he advises his followers to banish all thoughts of the past, and to abstain from every vain and useless inquiry concerning futurity, as well as all tormenting thoughts of ambition, avarice, &c. It was found by the disciples of this philosopher, however, that all their endeavours to obtain a perfect tranquillity of mind were vain, as long as the thoughts of death intervened; they therefore declared it possible to discover a composition from which drink might be made that would render mankind immortal. Hence they were led to the study of chemistry; and, like the western alchemists, wearied themselves in search of the philosopher's stone, until at last they gave themselves up to all the extravagancies of magic.

The desire of avoiding death, together with the credulity natural to unenlightened minds, quickly produced a number of converts to the sect of *Tao-sse*. Magical practices, the invocation of spirits, and the art of foretelling events by divination, quickly diffused themselves over the empire, and the imbecility of the emperors contributed to propagate the deception. Temples consecrated to spirits quickly reared their heads in every corner of the empire; and two of the most celebrated of the sect were authorized to maintain public worship there after the form which had been prescribed by their master. At the same time they distributed and sold at a dear rate, images of the imaginary spirits with which they had peopled the heavens and the earth. These were, by their command, worshipped as so many deities independent of the Supreme Being: and in like manner, several of the ancient emperors were invoked as gods.

Being patronized by the emperors of several dynasties,

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nasties, this sect became more and more powerful. At last they had the impudence to affix, during the night-time, to one of the gates of the imperial city, a book filled with mystic characters and magical figures. At break of day they informed the emperor of the sudden appearance of this book, and publicly declared that it was fallen from heaven. This trick easily imposed upon the weak prince. He immediately repaired, with a numerous train, to the spot where the sacred volume appeared; and having taken it into his hands in a respectful manner, carried it in triumph to his palace, where he shut it up in a golden box. Another emperor carried his reverence for the sect to such a height of impiety and extravagance, as to order a celebrated *Tao-sse* to be publicly worshipped under the name of *Chang-ti*. The sect thus patronized by the princes, and accommodated to the credulity of the vulgar, continued to gain ground in spite of every opposition from the wiser part of the people, and is still very powerful in China. At present they offer up three different victims, a hog, a fowl, and a fish, to a spirit whom they invoke. Various ceremonies, such as howling, drawing fantastical figures upon paper, making a hideous noise with kettles and drums, are used in their incantations; and though it may readily be believed that they are for the most part unsuccessful, yet their credit is still kept up by those cases in which they succeed by accident.

The chief of the *Tao-sse* is invested by government with the dignity of grand mandarin, which is enjoyed by his successors: he resides in a sumptuous palace in a town of Kiang-si; and the superstitious confidence of the people attracts an immense number thither from all parts of the empire. Some arrive in order to be cured of diseases, others to get an insight into futurity. The impostor distributes to them small bits of paper filled with magical characters; and the ignorant wretches depart well satisfied, without grudging the expence of their journey, though ever so long.

104 Of the worshippers of Fo.

A still more pernicious and more widely diffused sect is that of the idol *Fo*, which came originally from India. The *Tao-sse* had promised to the brother of one of the emperors of China to introduce him to a communication with spirits. The credulous prince having heard of a great spirit named *Fo*, who resided in India, prevailed on his brother to send an embassy thither. On the arrival of the ambassadors, however, they could find only two worshippers of this deity, both of whom they brought to China. Several images of Fo were also collected at the same time: and these, together with some canonical books of the Indians, were placed on a white horse, and carried in procession to the imperial city.

This superstition was introduced into China about the 65th year of the Christian æra, and soon made vast progress. One of its principal doctrines is that of the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, of which M. Grosier thinks he was the inventor, and that Pythagoras, who travelled into several parts of India, had borrowed the doctrine from him. The account given of him by the bonzes is, that finding himself, at the age of 70, oppressed with infirmities, he called his disciples together, and told them he was unwilling to leave the world without communicating the secret and hidden mysteries of his doctrine; which were, in short, that all things had proceeded from a vacuum and nothing, and to that they must return. This doctrine produced a corresponding mode of action, or rather of inaction, in those who believed it: for thus the great happiness of man was made to consist in absolute annihilation: and therefore the nearer he could bring himself to this state during life, the happier he was supposed to be.

The common doctrine, however, which admits of a distinction between good and evil, finds more proselytes among the vulgar, whose situation in life will not allow them to spend their time in perpetual idleness. According to this, the righteous will be rewarded and the wicked punished after death. They say also, that the god Fo came to save mankind, and to expiate their sins; and that he alone can procure them a happy regeneration in the life to come. Five precepts are likewise inculcated on those who adopt this doctrine: 1. Not to kill any living creature; 2. Not to take away the goods of another; 3. Not to pollute themselves by uncleanness; 4. Not to lie; and, 5. Not to drink wine. Above all, they recommend to them to perform acts of mercy, to treat their bonzes well, build temples, &c.

The doctrine of metempsychosis has introduced into China an infinite number of idols, who are all worshipped on the supposition that the spirit of Fo has transmigrated into the animals they represent. These idols, however, seem not to be worshipped with great sincerity; but, like the images of saints in the more superstitious countries of Europe, are beaten and thrown in the dirt when their votaries happen not to obtain their desires, which they impute to the obstinacy or weakness of the idol. Nay, M. Grosier gives an account of one man, who having ineffectually paid a sum of money to the bonzes of a certain idol for the cure of his daughter, brought a formal accusation against the idol himself; and in spite of all that the bonzes could say in its behalf, got its worship suppressed throughout the province.

105 Bad character of the Bonzes.

The bonzes of China are represented as a most avaricious and hypocritical race of men, ready to practise every kind of villany, and even to subject themselves to the most intolerable tortures, in order to obtain money from the compassion of the public when they cannot get it in any other way; and an edict of one of the emperors is cited by M. Grosier, by which great numbers of their religious houses were suppressed. In order to perpetuate their sect, they purchase young children, whom they take care to instruct in all the mysteries and tricks of their profession; but excepting this, they are in general very ignorant, and few of them would be able to give any tolerable account of the tenets of their own sect. They are not subject to a regular hierarchy, but acknowledge superiors among them whom they call grand bonzes, who have the first place in all religious assemblies at which they happen to be present: and great profit is derived from certain religious clubs, both of men and women, at which the bonzes are always called to assist. Their wealth is likewise augmented by pilgrimages to certain places where there are temples more or less reverenced, and where a multitude of absurd ceremonies is performed. These bonzes, as may be easily imagined, are inveterate enemies to the progress of Christianity, telling

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ing the moſt abſurd ſtories concerning the miſſionaries; as that they pluck out the eyes of their converts to conſtruct teleſcopes with, &c. The literati, however, and the more ſenſible part of the nation, hold them in the greateſt contempt.

106 Ridiculous ſuperſtition of the *fong-choui*.

We ſhall conclude this detail of the Chineſe religion with giving an account of one other ſuperſtition which ſeems peculiar to the nation. It is named *fong-choui*, which ſignifies wind and water. By this they mean the lucky or unlucky ſituation of a houſe, burying-place, &c. If any imprudent perſon has built a houſe cloſe to that of a Chineſe, in ſuch a manner that the angle formed by its roof flanks the wall or roof of the former houſe, the proprietor ever after lives in terror of utter ruin and deſtruction from the malignant influence of that angle. An implacable hatred inſtantly commences betwixt the two families, and often gives riſe to a law-ſuit, which furniſhes matter of diſcuſſion for ſome of the ſuperior tribunals. If no redreſs can be had at law, however, the Chineſe is then reduced to the neceſſity of erecting, on the top of his houſe, an enormous image of a dragon, or ſome other monſter, with its mouth gaping towards the angle, and, as it were, threatening to ſwallow it up; after which the apprehenſions of the proprietor begin to ſubſide, and tranquillity is reſtored to the family. In this manner the governor of *Kien-tchang* ſecured himſelf from the influence of the church of the Jeſuits, which, being built on an eminence, overlooked his palace. Not depending, however, entirely on the good offices of his tutelary dragon, he alſo took the wiſe precaution of altering his principal apartments, and raiſing, at the diſtance of 200 paces from the church, a kind of large façade three ſtories high. But unluckily the death of his ſucceſſor was attributed to this façade; for the mandarin being attacked with a diſorder in the breaſt, which made him ſpit up a white phlegm, this ſymptom was thought to be owing to the walls of the façade, which were very white, and which were forthwith painted black. The ſalutary precaution, however, happened to be taken too late; for the governor died notwithſtanding the black colour of the walls.

"We ſhould never have done (ſays M. Groſier), were we to relate all the ſuperſtitious ideas of the Chineſe, reſpecting the lucky and unlucky ſituation of houſes, the quarter which doors ought to front, and the plan and day proper for conſtructing the ſtoves in which they cook their rice." But the object on which they employ their greateſt care is the choice of the ground and ſituation for a burying-place. Some quacks follow no other profeſſion than that of pointing out hills and mountains which have an aſpect favourable for works of that kind. When a Chineſe is perſuaded of the truth of ſuch information, there is no ſum which he would not give to be in poſſeſſion of the fortunate ſpot. The greater part of the Chineſe are of opinion that all the happineſs and misfortunes of life depend upon the *fong-choui*.

107 Jews and Mahometans in China.

A colony of Jews was eſtabliſhed in China about the year 206 B. C.; but they are now reduced to a ſmall number of families at Cai-fong, the capital of the province of Honan. The Mahometans have multiplied much more than the Jews. It is about 600 years ſince they firſt entered the empire, where they have formed different eſtabliſhments. At firſt their number was augmented only by marriages; but for ſome time paſt they have been more particularly attentive to the extending of their ſect and propagating their doctrine. The principal means employed for this purpoſe are, to purchaſe a great number of children brought up in idolatry, whom their poor parents are glad to part with; and theſe they circumciſe, and afterwards inſtruct in the principles of their religion. During the time of a famine which deſolated the province of Chang-tong, they purchaſed more than 10,000 of theſe children; for whom, when grown up, they procured wives, built houſes, and even formed whole villages of them. They are now become ſo numerous, that in the places where they reſide they entirely exclude every inhabitant who does not believe in their prophet, and frequent a moſque.

108 Ceremonies of marriage.

With regard to the manners of the Chineſe, they bear no reſemblance to thoſe of any other nation; and, if we may believe their hiſtorians, they are the ſame at this day that they were 4000 years ago. The women are condemned almoſt to perpetual impriſonment within the precincts of their own houſes, and are never ſeen even by their intended huſbands before marriage. He knows nothing of her looks or perſon, but from the account of ſome female relation or confidant, who in ſuch caſes acts the part of match-maker; though if impoſed upon either with regard to her age or figure, he can have recourſe to a divorce. The ſame matrons who negociate the marriage, alſo determine the ſum which the intended huſband muſt pay to the parents of the bride: for in China a father does not give a dowry to his daughter; it is the huſband who gives a dowry to the wife. When the day appointed for the marriage is arrived, the bride is placed in a chair or cloſe palanquin, the key of which is committed to the care of a truſty domeſtic, who muſt deliver it to none but the huſband. The latter, richly dreſſed, waits at his gate for the arrival of the proceſſion. As ſoon as it approaches, the key is put into his hands; he eagerly opens the chair, and for the firſt time perceives his good or bad fortune. If he is contented with his new ſpouſe, the bride deſcends and enters the houſe, where the marriage is concluded by feaſting and merriment as in other countries; but if the bridegroom is very much diſappointed, he ſuddenly ſhuts the chair, and ſends the bride home to her relations. To get rid of her in this manner, however, coſts a ſum equal to what he originally gave in dowry to obtain her.

The Chineſe women, even of the firſt rank, ſeldom quit their apartment, which is ſituated in the moſt retired part of the houſe, and in which they are ſecluded from all ſociety but that of their domeſtics. The book of ceremonies requires that there ſhould be two apartments in every houſe; the exterior one for the huſband, the interior for the wife. They muſt even be ſeparated by a wall or wooden partition, the door of which is carefully guarded; nor is the huſband at liberty to enter the wife's apartment, or ſhe to quit it, without ſufficient reaſon. According to the ſame book, the prattling and loquacity of a woman are reckoned ſufficient grounds for a divorce. If this be founded in fact, the women of China are either unexampled for taciturnity, or elſe multitudes of divorces muſt be daily occurrences. A woman, however, cannot be divorced on

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on any account, if ſhe loſes her parents after marriage, or if ſhe has worn three years mourning for the loſs of her huſband, father, or mother.

A widow of any rank above the common, who has children, ſeldom enters a ſecond time into the marriage ſtate, though thoſe of the ordinary rank generally do. The poorer ſort are not at liberty to follow their own inclination, but are ſold for the behoof of the parents of the deceaſed. As ſoon as the bargain is concluded, a couple of porters bring a chair, which is guarded by a number of truſty people. In this the widow is ſhut up, and thus conducted to her new huſband.

"Maſters (ſays M. Groſier), for the moſt part, are very deſirous of promoting marriage among their ſlaves, whatever Mr Paw may ſay; who, without any foundation, has ventured boldly to aſſert the contrary. They have even very ſtrong motives to induce them to encourage theſe marriages; the children produced by them are ſtill their ſlaves; and beſides their becoming new property to them, the fathers and mothers are thus more ſtrongly attached to their ſervice."

109 Concubinage tolerated.

Concubinage is tolerated in China, though not authorized by any law. This privilege is granted only to the emperor, the princes of the blood, and mandarins; and none but the emperor is permitted to have more than one. The common people generally avail themſelves of the toleration granted them in this reſpect, and will have two or three concubines if they can afford it. They are, however, careful to excuſe themſelves as well as they can to their wives in this reſpect, pretending only a deſire to have many children, and a number of women to attend their wives. Others, deſirous of having a male child, while perhaps their lawful wife cannot have any, take a concubine for this reaſon only, and diſmiſs her as ſoon as their wiſhes are accompliſhed; they then permit her to marry whom ſhe pleaſes, and frequently even provide a huſband for her themſelves. Theſe concubines are almoſt all procured from two cities named *Yang-tcheou* and *Sou-tcheou*, where they are educated, and taught ſinging, dancing, muſic, and every accompliſhment ſuitable to women of quality, or which can render them agreeable and pleaſing. The greateſt part of them are purchaſed in other places, to be again diſpoſed of; and this is the principal branch of trade carried on by theſe two cities. Unlawful intrigues are ſeldom heard of in China. Whoever ſeduces the wife of another is puniſhed with death; and the ſame puniſhment is generally inflicted on the perſon who debauches a young woman.

110 Education of children.

From the accounts we have of the education of children in China, one might be apt to conclude, that, inſtead of being the ignorant ſuperſtitious race already deſcribed, they ought to be the moſt intelligent people in the world. The book of ceremonies directs the education of a child to commence as ſoon as it is born, and deſcribes exactly the qualities which its nurſe ought to have. She muſt ſpeak little, adhere ſtrictly to truth, have a mild temper, behave with affability to her equals, and with reſpect to her ſuperiors. The child is taught to uſe the right hand as ſoon as it can put its hand to its mouth, and then it is weaned. At ſix years of age, if a male, he is taught the numbers moſt in uſe, and made acquainted with the names of the principal parts of the world; at ſeven, he is ſeparated from his ſiſters, and no longer allowed to eat with them, nor to ſit down in their preſence; at eight, he is inſtructed in the rules of good breeding and politeneſs; at nine, he ſtudies the kalendar; at ten, he is ſent to a public ſchool, where he learns to read, write, and caſt accounts; from 13 to 15 he is taught muſic, and every thing that he ſings conſiſts of moral precepts. It was formerly the cuſtom, that all the leſſons deſigned for the Chineſe youth were in verſe; and it is to this day lamented, that the ſame cuſtom is not followed, as their education has ſince been rendered much more difficult and laborious.

At the age of 15, the Chineſe boys are taught to handle the bow and arrow, and to mount on horſeback; at 20 they receive the firſt cap, if they are thought to deſerve it, and are permitted to wear ſilk dreſſes ornamented with furs; but before that period they are not allowed to wear any other thing than cotton.

Another method of initiating children into the principles of knowledge in this empire is, by ſelecting a number of characters expreſſive of the moſt common objects, engraving or painting them ſeparately on ſome kind of ſubſtance, and, under the thing repreſented, putting the name, which points out to them the meaning of the word.

As the Chineſe have no proper alphabet, they repreſent almoſt every thing by different characters. The labour of their youth, therefore, is intolerable; being obliged to ſtudy many thouſand characters, each of which has a diſtinct and appropriate ſignification. Some idea of their difficulties may be obtained from what we are told by F. Martini, who aſſures us, that he was under the neceſſity of learning 60,000 different characters before he could read the Chineſe authors with tolerable eaſe.

The book firſt put into the hands of the Chineſe children is an abridgement, which points out what a child ought to learn, and the manner in which he ſhould be taught. This volume is a collection of ſhort ſentences, conſiſting of three or four verſes each, all of which rhyme; and they are obliged to give an account in the evening of what they have learned in the day. After this elementary treatiſe, they put into their hands the four books which contain the doctrines of Confucius and Mencius. The ſenſe and meaning of the work is never explained to them until they have got by heart all the characters, that is to ſay, the *words* in the book; a method no doubt inconceivably diſguſting, and calculated utterly to deſtroy the genius of a boy, if he has any. While they are getting theſe characters by heart, indeed, they are likewiſe employed in learning to form them with a pencil. For this purpoſe they are furniſhed with large leaves of paper, on which are written or printed with red ink very big characters; and all they are required to do is to cover thoſe red characters with black ink, and to follow exactly their ſhape and figure; which inſenſibly accuſtoms them to form the different ſtrokes. After this they are made to trace other characters, placed under the paper on which they write. Theſe are black, and much ſmaller than the other. It is a great advantage to the Chineſe literati to be able to paint characters well; and on this account they beſtow great pains in forming the hands of young people. This is of the utmoſt conſequence to literary ſtudents in the examinations

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nations which they are obliged to undergo before they can be admitted to the first degree. Du Halde gives a remarkable instance, viz. that "a candidate for degrees having, contrary to order, made use of an abbreviation in writing the character *ma*, which signifies a horse, had the mortification of seeing his composition, though in other respects excellent, rejected merely on that account; besides being severely rallied by the mandarin, who told him a horse could not walk unless he had all his legs."

After the scholar has made himself master of the characters, he is then allowed to compose; but the subject of his composition is pointed out to him only by one word. Competitions are likewise established in China, but most of them are of a private nature. Twenty or thirty families, who are all of the same name, and who consequently have only one hall for the names of their ancestors, agree among themselves to send their children twice a month to this hall in order to compose. Each head of a family in turn gives the subject of this literary contest, and adjudges the prize; but this costs him a dinner, which he must cause to be carried to the hall of competition. A fine of about tenpence is imposed on the parent of each scholar who absents himself from this exercise.

Besides these private competitions, every student is obliged to compete at least twice a-year under the inspection of an inferior mandarin of letters styled *Hiokouan*. It frequently happens also, that the mandarins of letters order these students to be brought before them, to examine the progress they have made in their studies, to excite a spirit of emulation among them, and make them give such application as may qualify them for any employment in the state. Even the governors of cities do not think it below their dignity to take this care upon themselves; ordering all those students who reside near them to appear before their tribunal once a month: the author of the best competition is honoured with a prize, and the governor treats all the candidates on the day of composition at his own expence. In every city, town, and village in China, there are schoolmasters who teach such sciences as are known in that country. Parents possessed of a certain fortune provide masters for their children, to attend and instruct them, to form their minds to virtue, and to initiate them in the rules of good breeding and the accustomed ceremonies, as well as to make them acquainted with the laws and history, if their age will admit. These masters have, for the most part, attained to one or two degrees among the literati, and not unfrequently arrive at the first employments of the state.

The education of the Chinese women is confined to giving them a taste for solitude, and accustoming them to modesty and silence; and if their parents are rich, they are likewise instructed in such accomplishments as may render them agreeable to the other sex.

111 Dress.

There is little distinction in China between the ordinary dress of men and women. Rank and dignity are distinguished by certain accessary ornaments; and the person would be severely chastised who should presume to assume them without being properly authorized. The dress in general consists of a long vest which reaches to the ground. One part of this vest, viz. that on the left side, folds over the other, and is fastened to the right by four or five small gold or silver buttons, placed at a little distance from one another. The sleeves are wide towards the shoulder, growing narrower as they approach the wrist, where they terminate in the form of a horse shoe, covering the hands entirely, and leaving nothing but the ends of the fingers to be seen. Round their middle they wear a large girdle of silk, the ends of which hang down to their knees. From this girdle is suspended a sheath containing a knife and two of those small sticks which they use as forks. Below this robe they wear a pair of drawers, in summer made of linen, and in winter of satin lined with fur, sometimes of cotton, and in some of the northern provinces of skins. These are sometimes covered with another pair of white taffety. Their shirts are always very short and wide, of different kinds of cloth, according to the season. Under these they wear a silk net to prevent it from adhering to the skin. In warm weather they have their necks always bare; when it is cold, they wear a collar made of silk and sable, or fox's skin, joined to their robe, which in winter is trimmed with sheep skin, or quilted with silk and cotton. That of people of quality is entirely lined with beautiful sable skins brought from Tartary, or with the finest fox's skin, trimmed with sable; and in the spring it is lined with ermine. Above their robe they wear also a kind of surtout with wide sleeves, but very short, which is lined in the same manner. The emperor and princes of the blood only have a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins have liberty to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony: in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The common people are allowed to wear no other colours but blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth.

112 Chinese obliged by the Tartars to cut off their hair.

Formerly the Chinese were at great pains to preserve their hair; but the Tartars, who subdued them, compelled them to cut off the greater part of it, and to alter the form of their clothes after the Tartar fashion. This revolution in dress was not effected without bloodshed, though the conquerors at the same time adopted in other respects the laws, manners, and customs of the conquered people. Thus the Chinese are painted as if bald, but they are not so naturally: that small portion of hair which they preserve behind, or on the tops of their heads, is all that is now allowed them. This they wear very long, and plait like a tail. In summer they wear a kind of cap shaped like an inverted cone, lined with satin, and covered with ratan or cane very prettily wrought. The top terminates in a point, to which they fix a tuft of red hair, which spreads over it, and covers it to the brim. This hair grows between the legs of a kind of cow, and is capable of taking any colour, especially a deep red. This ornament is much used, and any person who chooses may wear it.

The mandarins and literati wear a cap of the same form as the foregoing, only it is lined with red satin, and covered on the outside with white. A large tuft of the finest red silk is fixed over it, which is suffered to hang down or wave with the wind. People of distinction generally use the common cap when they mount on horseback or during bad weather; being better calculated to keep off rain, and shelter those who wear it from the rays of the sun. For winter they have another cap bordered with sable, ermine, or fox's

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fox's ſkin, and ornamented with a tuft of ſilk like the former. In theſe fur-trimmings they are very curious, ſometimes expending 40 or 50 ounces of ſilver upon them.

The Chineſe people of rank never go abroad without boots made of ſatin or ſome other ſilk, and ſometimes of cotton, but always dyed. They have neither heel nor top, and are made to fit the foot with the greateſt exactneſs. When they travel on horſeback, however, they have others made of the ſkin of a cow or horſe made very pliable. Their boot-ſtockings are of ſilk ſtuff, quilted and lined with cotton, reaching above the top of their boot, and ornamented with a border of velvet or cloth. In ſummer they wear a cooler kind, and in their houſes a ſort of ſlippers made of ſilk ſtuff. The common people are contented with black ſlippers made of cotton cloth. The fan is alſo a neceſſary appendage of the Chineſe dreſs, and is reckoned equally neceſſary with the boots.

The dreſs of the women conſiſts of a long robe quite cloſe at top, and long enough to cover even their toes, with ſleeves ſo long that they could hang down upon the ground, did they not take care to tuck them up; but their hands are ſeldom ſeen. The colour of their dreſſes is entirely arbitrary, but black and violet are generally choſen by thoſe advanced in life. The young ladies, like thoſe of Europe, make uſe of paint to give a bloom to their complexions; but this, though not the ſame with the kind uſed in Europe, agrees with it in the effect of ſoon wrinkling the ſkin. Their general head-dreſs conſiſts in arranging their hair in ſeveral curls, among which are interſperſed ſmall tufts of gold or ſilver flowers. According to Du Halde, ſome of them ornament their heads with the image of a fabulous bird, concerning which many ſtories are told. This is made of copper or ſilver gilt, its wings extended and lying pretty cloſe to the head-dreſs, embracing the upper part of their temples, while the long ſpreading tail forms a kind of plume on the top of the head. Its body is directly over the head, and the neck and bill hang down, the former being joined to the body by a concealed hinge, in order that it may play freely, and move about on the leaſt motion of the head. The whole bird adheres to the head by means of the claws, which are fixed in the hair.

Ladies of quality ſometimes wear ſeveral of theſe birds made up into a ſingle ornament, the workmanſhip of which is very expenſive. Young ladies wear alſo a crown made of paſteboard, the fore part of which riſes in a point above the forehead, and is covered with jewels. The reſt of the head is decorated with natural or artificial flowers, among which ſmall diamond pins are interſperſed. The head-dreſs of the ordinary claſs of women, eſpecially when they are advanced in years, conſiſts only of a piece of very fine ſilk wrapped round their heads.

113 Abſurd cuſtom of preventing the feet of female infants from growing.

All authors agree, that an abſurd cuſtom prevails throughout China, of confining the feet of female infants in ſuch a manner that they are never allowed to grow to near their full ſize. The ſmallneſs of their feet is accounted ſuch a valuable beauty, that the Chineſe women never think they can pay too dear for it. As ſoon therefore as a female infant is born, the nurſe wraps up its feet in very tight bandages; and this torture muſt be endured until their feet have ceaſed to grow. So prevalent is the force of cuſtom, however, that as the child grows up ſhe voluntarily ſubmits to new tortures, in order to accompliſh the purpoſe more effectually. Thus the Chineſe women are deprived almoſt entirely of the uſe of their feet; and are ſcarce able to walk, in the moſt awkward hobbling manner, for the ſhorteſt ſpace. The ſhoe of a full grown Chineſe woman will frequently not exceed ſix inches.

The Chineſe uſe white as the colour proper for mourning; and though a ſon cannot wear this while his father and mother are alive, he can uſe no other for three years after their death; and ever afterwards his clothes muſt be of one colour. The law has forbidden the uſe of ſilk and furs to children; and has even preſcribed the time when they are firſt to wear a cap. This is put upon their heads by the maſter of ceremonies himſelf, who addreſſes them in the following manner: "Conſider that you now receive the dreſs of thoſe who have attained to maturity, and that you ceaſe to be children; renounce, therefore, all childiſh thoughts and inclinations, aſſume a grave and ſerious deportment, apply with reſolution to the ſtudy of virtue and wiſdom, and endeavour to merit a long and happy life." "This ceremony (ſays M. Groſier), which may appear trifling, is attended with the happieſt effects. The Chineſe give a kind of importance to every thing which can inſpire youth with a taſte for morality and a love of good order. It might be uſeful to mankind at every fixed epocha of their lives, to remind them of thoſe new duties impoſed by each ſucceſſive change; but, by uniting the ſolemnity of a public ceremony to this inſtruction, it will make a deeper impreſſion, and remain much longer imprinted on their memories."

114 Exceſſive ceremoniouſneſs of the Chineſe.

Nothing can appear more irkſome to an European than the multitude of ceremonies uſed on all occaſions by the Chineſe. An invitation to an entertainment is not ſuppoſed to be given with ſincerity until it has been renewed three or four times in writing. A card is ſent on the evening before the entertainment, another on the morning of the appointed day, and a third when every thing is prepared and the gueſts ready to ſit down to the table. The maſter of the houſe always introduces his gueſts into the hall, where he ſalutes them one after another. He then orders wine to be brought him in a ſmall cup made of ſilver, porcelain, or precious wood, and placed upon a ſmall varniſhed ſalver. He lays hold of it with both his hands, makes a bow to all the ſurrounding gueſts, and advances towards the fore part of the hall, which generally looks into a large court. He there raiſes his eyes and the cup towards heaven; after which he pours the wine on the ground, He afterwards pours ſome wine into a ſilver or porcelain cup, makes a bow to the moſt conſiderable perſon in company, and then goes to place the cup on the table before him; for in China every gueſt has a table for himſelf. The perſon for whom he intends this honour, however, generally ſaves him the trouble of placing the cup; calls for wine in his turn, and offers to place the cup on the maſter's table, who endeavours to prevent him, with a thouſand apologies and compliments according to the rules of Chineſe politeneſs. A ſuperior domeſtic conducts the principal gueſt to an elbow-chair covered with rich flowered ſilk, where the ſtranger again begins his compliments,

China. pliments, and begs to be excufed from fitting in fuch an honourable feat, which nevertheleſs he accepts of; and all the reft of the gueſts do the ſame, otherwife the cermonial would be gone through with each of them. The entertainment is concluded by fome theatrical repreſentations, accompanied with the mufic of the country; which, however, would give but little pleafure to an European. Befides the gueſts, a certain number of people are admitted into the court in order to behold thefe theatrical repreſentations; and even the women are allowed to view them through a wicket, contrived fo that they may behold them without being feen themfelves.

The entertainments of the Chinefe are begun, not by eating, but by drinking; and the liquor they drink muft always be pure wine. The intendant, or *maitre d'hotel*, falling down on one knee, firft invites the gueſts to take a glafs; on which each of them lays hold with both hands of that which is placed before him, raifing it as high as the forehead, then bringing it lower down than the table, and at laft putting it to his mouth: they all drink together, and very flowly, taking three or four draughts. While they are drinking, the difhes on each of the tables are removed, and others brought in. Each of the gueſts has twenty-four fet before him in fucceffion; all of them fat, and in the form of ragouts. They never ufe knives in their repafts; and two fmall pointed ficks, ornamented with ivory or filver, ferve them inftead of forks. They never begin to eat, however, until they are invited by the *maitre d'hotel;* and the fame ceremony muft be gone through every time they are going to take a cup of wine, or begin a new difh. Towards the middle of the entertainment the foup is brought in, accompanied with fmall loaves or meat pies. Thefe they take up with their fmall ficks, fteep them in the foup, and eat them without waiting for any fignal, or being obliged to keep time with the reft of the gueſts. The entertainment, however, continues in other refpects with the utmoft formality until tea is brought in; after which they retire from table and amufe themfelves in another hall, or in the garden, for a fhort time, until the deffert be brought in. This, like the entertainment itfelf, confifts of 24 difhes, which are made up of fweetmeats, fruits differently prepared, hams and falted ducks which have been baked or dried in the fun, with fhell and other kinds of fifh. The fame ceremonies which preceded the repaft are now renewed, and every one fits down at the fame place he occupied before. Larger cups are then brought in, and the mafter invites the gueſts to drink more freely.

Thefe entertainments begin towards evening, and never end till midnight. A fmall fum of money is given to the domeftics; when every one of the gueſts goes home in a chair preceded by feveral fervants, who carry large lanthorns of oiled paper, on which are infcribed the quality, and fometimes the name, of the mafter. Without fuch an attendance they would be taken up by the guard; and the day following they never fail to return a card of thanks to the officer.

Their method of drinking tea is not like that of other nations. A fmall quantity of bohea, fufficient to tinge the water and render it palatable (for they drink no green), is taken in the morning, and thrown into a veffel adapted to the number in family. This ftands till milk-warm; in which ftate it is kept the whole day, and a cup drank now and then without fugar or milk, in order to exhilarate the fpirits when exhaufted by fatigue: and if a ftranger call by accident, or a vifitor by appointment, the firft thing prefented, after the ufual ceremonies of meeting, is a very fmall pipe filled with tobacco of their own growth, and a cup of the tea already mentioned, or of fome frefh made of better quality, together with fweetmeats, &c. Tea is the daily beverage in China, and is drank by all ranks of people.

Some change has been made in the ceremonial of the Chinefe by the Tartar conqueft, and fome new difhes alfo introduced by the fame means; and here M. Grofier obferves, that the Tartars are much better cooks than the Chinefe. All their difhes are highly feafoned; and by a variation in the proportions of their fpiceries, they are able to form a variety of difhes out of the fame materials. None of their viands, however, are more efteemed than ftags finews, and the nefts of a particular fpecies of birds, which have the property of giving a moft agreeable relifh to whatever is mixed with them. Other difhes are introduced at thefe repafts, which would be accounted very difagreeable with us; fuch as the flefh of wild horfes, the paws of a bear, and the feet of feveral wild animals. The greater part of thefe provifions are brought preferved in falt from Siam, Camboya, and Tartary.

115 Chinefe wines.

The wines of China have no refemblance to ours either in tafte or quality, being procured from rice, and not from the vine. A particular kind of rice is employed for making them, and the grain is fteeped for 20 or 30 days in water, into which ingredients of a different nature are fucceffively thrown: they afterwards boil it; and as foon as it becomes diffolved by the heat, it immediately ferments, and throws up a vaporous fcum not unlike new wine. A very pure liquor is found under this fcum, which is drawn off and put into veffels well glazed: From the remaining leys an inflammable fpirit is made, little inferior, and fometimes even fuperior to the European. Another kind of wine is ufed by the Chinefe, or rather Tartars, called *lamb wine.* It is very ftrong, and has a difagreeable fmell; and the fame may be believed of a kind of fpirit diftilled from the flefh of fheep; though this laft is fometimes ufed by the emperors.

Thefe entertainments exceed the bounds of ordinary repafts; the Chinefe being naturally fober, and thofe in eafy circumftances living chiefly on pork; for which reafon a great number of hogs are bred in the country. Their flefh is much eafier of digeftion, and more agreeable to the tafte than thofe of Europe. The Chinefe hams are in high eftimation. The common people live very poorly; being fatisfied, in time of fcarcity, with the flefh of dogs, horfes, cats, and rats, which laft are fold publicly in the ftreets.

116 Public feftivals.

There are feveral public feftivals annually celebrated in China. One is that already mentioned, in which the emperor tills the ground with his own hands. This is alfo celebrated on the fame day throughout the empire. In the morning the governor of every city comes forth

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forth from his palace crowned with flowers, and enters his chair amidst the noise of different instruments which precede it; a great number of people attending, as is usual on all such occasions. The chair is surrounded by litters covered with silk carpets, on which are represented either some illustrious persons who have supported and encouraged agriculture, or some historical painting on the same subject. The streets are hung with carpets, triumphal arches are erected at certain distances, lanthorns everywhere displayed, and all the houses illuminated. During the ceremony a figure resembling a cow, made of baked earth, with gilt horns, is carried in procession, and of such enormous magnitude that 40 men are scarcely sufficient to support it. A child follows with one foot naked and the other shod, who is called the *spirit of labour and diligence*, and keeps continually beating the image with a rod to make it advance. Labourers, with their implements of husbandry, march behind; and the procession is closed by a number of comedians and people in masks. The governor advances towards the eastern gate, and returns in the same manner. The cow is then stripped of its ornaments, a prodigious number of earthen calves taken from its belly and distributed among the people; after which the large figure is broken in pieces and distributed in the same manner. The ceremony is ended by an oration in praise of agriculture, in which the governor endeavours to excite his hearers to the practice of that useful art.

Other two festivals are celebrated in China with still more magnificence than that above described. One of them is at the commencement of the year; the other is called the *feast of lanthorns*. During the celebration of the former, all business, whether private or public, is suspended, the tribunals are shut, the posts stopped, presents are given and received, and visits paid. All the family assemble in the evening, and partake of a feast to which no stranger is admitted; though they become a little more sociable on the following day.

The feast of lanthorns ought to take place on the 15th day of the first month, but usually commences on the evening of the 13th, and does not end till that of the 16th. At that time every city and village, the shores of the sea, and the banks of all the rivers, are hung with lanthorns of various shapes and sizes; some of them being seen in the courts and windows of the poorest houses. No expence is spared on this occasion; and some of the rich people will lay out eight or nine pounds sterling on one lanthorn. Some of these are very large, composed of six wooden frames either neatly painted or gilt, and filled up with pieces of fine transparent silk, upon which are painted flowers, animals, and human figures; others are blue, and made of a transparent kind of horn. Several lamps, and a great number of wax candles, are placed in the inside: to the corners of each are fixed streamers of silk and satin of different colours, with a curious piece of carved work on the top. They are likewise acquainted with our magic lanthorn, which they sometimes introduce into this festival. Besides this, they have the art of forming a snake 60 or 80 feet in length, filled with lights from one end to the other; which they cause twist itself into different forms, and move about as if it were a real serpent. During the same festival all the varieties of the Chinese fire-works, so justly admired, and which, some time ago at least, surpassed every thing of the kind that could be done in Europe, are exhibited.

117 Magnificence of the viceroys.

Every public ceremony in China is carefully rendered as striking as possible. A viceroy never quits his palace but with a royal train, dressed in his robes of ceremony, and carried in a chair elegantly gilt, which is borne upon the shoulders of eight domestics; two drummers marching before the guards, and beating upon copper basons to give notice of his approach. Eight other attendants carry standards of wood varnished, upon which are inscribed in large characters all his titles of honour. After these come 14 flags with the symbols of his office; such as the dragon, tyger, phœnix, flying tortoise, &c. Six officers follow, each bearing a piece of board in shape like a large shovel, on which are written in large golden characters the qualities of the mandarin himself; two others carry, the one a large umbrella of yellow silk, and the other the cover in which the umbrella is kept. The first guards are preceded by two archers on horseback; the latter are followed by others armed with a kind of weapons composed of hooked blades, fixed perpendicularly to long poles ornamented with four tufts of silk, placed at a small distance above one another. Behind these are two other files of soldiers, some of whom carry large maces with long handles; others iron maces in the shape of a snake; others are armed with huge hammers; while those behind them carry long battle-axes in the form of a crescent: others follow, who have battle-axes of another kind; and behind these are some with the hooked weapons already described.

Behind these come soldiers armed with triple-pointed spears, arrows, or battle-axes; having in front two men who carry a kind of box containing the viceroy's seal. Then come two other drummers to give notice of his approach. Two officers follow, having on their heads felt hats, adorned with plumes of feathers, and each armed with a cane to recommend regularity and good order to the surrounding multitude. Two others bear maces in the form of gilt dragons. These again are followed by a number of magistrates and officers of justice: some of whom carry whips or flat sticks, while others have chains, hangers, and silk scarfs. Two standard-bearers and a captain command this company, which immediately precede the governor. His chair is surrounded by pages and footmen, and an officer attends him who carries a large fan in form of a screen; he is followed by several guards differently armed, together with ensigns and other officers, who are also followed by a great number of domestics all on horseback, carrying various necessaries for the use of the mandarin. If he marches in the night-time, instead of flambeaux, as is customary in Europe, large lanthorns, exceedingly pretty, are carried before him; on the transparent part of which are written, in very conspicuous characters, his quality, titles, and rank, as mandarin. These are also intended to give notice to the passengers to stop, and to those who are sitting to rise up with respect; for whoever neglects either the one or the other is sure to receive a severe bastinading.

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The emperor marches with ſtill more magnificence, in proportion to his ſuperior quality. The trumpets uſed in this proceſſion are about three feet long, eight inches in diameter at the lower extremity, and pretty much reſembling a bell in ſhape: their ſound is peculiarly adapted to that of the drums. His cavalcade is cloſed by 2000 mandarins of letters, and as many of arms. Sometimes the great mandarins, as well as the emperor, travel in barks: their attendance is then ſomewhat different, but the magnificence almoſt the ſame. The honours paid to a viceroy who has governed a province with equity are exceedingly great on his departure from it. He has ſcarcely left the capital of the province when he finds on the highway, for the ſpace of two or three leagues, tables ranged at certain diſtances, each of which is ſurrounded with a long piece of ſilk that hangs down to the earth. On theſe wax candles are placed even in the open day: perfumes are burnt upon them; and they are loaded with a profuſion of victuals, and various kinds of fruit, while tea and wine are prepared for him on others. The people throw themſelves on their knees as he paſſes, and bow their heads even to the earth; ſome ſhed tears, or pretend to do ſo; ſome preſent him with wine and ſweetmeats; others frequently pull off his boots and give him new ones. Theſe boots, which he has perhaps uſed only for a moment, are conſidered as a valuable monument; thoſe firſt taken off are preſerved in a cage over the gate of the city; the reſt are carefully kept by his friends.

118 Knaviſh diſpoſition of the Chineſe.

Hitherto our author, M. Groſier, has ſeemed inclined to give a favourable idea of the Chineſe, and to cauſe us look upon them as many degrees ſuperior to ourſelves in the practice of virtue and morality; but when he comes to give an account of their dealings in trade, he is then obliged to confeſs that they are as diſhoneſt and knaviſh a race as any that exiſt. "The moſt frequented fairs of Europe (ſays he) afford but a faint idea of that immenſe number of buyers and ſellers with which the large cities of China are continually crowded. We may almoſt ſay, that the one half are employed in over-reaching the other. It is, above all, againſt ſtrangers that the Chineſe merchants exerciſe, without any ſenſe of ſhame, their inſatiable rapacity. Of this F. du Halde gives a ſtriking example, which might be ſupported by many others: 'The captain of an Engliſh veſſel bargained with a Chineſe merchant at Canton for ſeveral bales of ſilk, which the latter was to provide againſt a certain time. When they were ready, the captain went with his interpreter to the houſe of the Chineſe merchant to examine whether they were ſound and in good condition. On opening the firſt bale, he found it according to his wiſh, but all the reſt were damaged and good for nothing. The captain on this fell into a great paſſion, and reproached the merchant in the ſevereſt terms for his diſhoneſty. The Chineſe, after having heard him for ſome time, with great coolneſs, replied, 'Blame, Sir, your knave of an interpreter: he aſſured me that you would not inſpect the bales.'

"The lower claſs of people are, above all, very dexterous in counterfeiting and adulterating every thing they ſell. Sometimes you think you have bought a capon, and you receive nothing but ſkin; all the reſt has been ſcooped out, and the place ſo ingeniouſly filled, that the deception cannot be diſcovered till the moment you begin to eat it. The counterfeit hams of China have been often mentioned. They are made of a piece of wood cut in the form of a ham, and coated over with a certain kind of earth which is covered with hog's ſkin. The whole is ſo curiouſly painted and prepared, that a knife is neceſſary to detect the fraud. Mr Oſbeck relates, that having one day obſerved a blind man carrying about for ſale ſome of thoſe trees called by the Chineſe, *Fokei*, he purchaſed one, which to appearance had fine double red and white flowers; but on cloſer examination, he found that the flowers were taken from another tree, and that one calyx was ſo neatly fitted into the other, with nails made of bamboo, that he ſhould ſcarcely have diſcovered the deceit had not the flowers begun to wither. The tree itſelf had buds, but not one open flower.

"The robbers in China ſignalize themſelves alſo by the dexterity and ingenuity which they diſplay in their profeſſion. They ſeldom have recourſe to acts of violence, but introduce themſelves into a houſe either privately or by forming ſome connection with the family. It is as difficult in China to avoid robbery as it is to apprehend the criminal in the fact. If we are deſirous of finding among the Chineſe openneſs of temper, benevolence, friendſhip, and, laſtly, virtue, we muſt not ſeek for it in cities, but in the boſom of the country, among that claſs of men who have devoted themſelves to labour and agriculture. A Chineſe ruſtic often diſcovers moral qualities which would add a luſtre to the character of men of the moſt exalted rank. It appears that rural life naturally inſpires ſentiments of benevolence; by continually receiving the gifts of nature, the mind is enlarged, and men are inſenſibly accuſtomed to diffuſe them to thoſe around them."

The internal commerce of China is much greater than that of all Europe; but its foreign trade is by no means equal to that of any of the grand European powers. Its internal commerce is greatly facilitated by the vaſt number of canals and rivers with which the country is interſected. The Chineſe, however, are not at all fitted for maritime commerce: Few of their veſſels go beyond the ſtraits of Sunda; their longeſt voyages to Malacca extended only as far as Acheen, towards the ſtraits of Batavia, and northwards to Japan.

Their commerce with the laſt mentioned iſland, conſidering the article of exchange, which they procure at Camboya or Siam, produces them cent. per cent. Their trade with the Manillas brings only about 50 per cent. Their profit is more conſiderable about Batavia; and the Dutch ſpare no pains to invite them to traffic at their ſettlements. The Chineſe traders go alſo, though not very frequently, to Acheen, Malacca, Thor, Patan, and Ligor, belonging to Siam and Cochin-china; from whence they bring gold and tin, together with ſome objects of luxury for the table. A great obſtacle to the foreign commerce of the Chineſe is their indifference about maritime affairs, and the bad conſtruction of their veſſels. This they themſelves acknowledge; but ſay, that any attempt to remove it would be derogating from the laws, and ſubverting the conſtitution of the empire.

119 Burying-places deſcribed.

The burying-places in China are always ſituated at

China. a ſmall diſtance from a city or town, and generally upon ſome eminence, having pines or cypreſſes uſually planted around them. The form of the tombs is various according to the different provinces, and the ſituation of thoſe for whom they are intended. The coffins of the poor are placed under a ſhed covered with thatch, or incloſed in a ſmall building of brick in the form of a tomb. The tombs of the rich are ſhaped like a horſe-ſhoe, well whitened, and finiſhed with great taſte; but thoſe of the mandarins and people of quality are much more ſumptuous and elegant. A vault is firſt conſtructed, in which the coffin is ſhut up; over this vault is raiſed a pyramid of earth well beat together, about 12 feet in height and 10 in diameter. A layer of lime and ſand laid over this earth makes a kind of plaſter, which renders the whole very durable and ſolid; various kinds of trees being planted around it in regular order. Before it is placed a large and long table of white marble, on the middle of which is ſet a cenſer, accompanied with two vaſes, and the ſame number of candleſticks of exquiſite workmanſhip. Beſides this a great number of figures, repreſenting officers, eunuchs, ſoldiers, ſaddled horſes, camels, lions, tortoiſes, &c. are ranged round the tombs in different rows; which F. du Halde aſſures us, produces a very ſtriking effect.

When a Chineſe dies in a province in which he was not born, his children have a right, nay it is their indiſpenſable duty, to tranſport the body to the burying-place of their anceſtors. A ſon, who ſhould be wanting in this reſpect, would be diſgraced, and his name never placed in the hall of his anceſtors. This is a vaſt building, conſidered as common to all the branches of the ſame family, and to which they all repair at a certain ſeaſon of the year. Sometimes they amount to ſeven or eight thouſand perſons, whoſe fortune, dignity, and rank in ſociety, are all very different; but there no diſtinction of rank is known; age only gives precedence, and the oldeſt always takes place of all the reſt, though he ſhould be the pooreſt in the company. The diſtinguiſhing ornament of this hall is a long table ſet againſt the wall, upon which is generally ſeen the image of one of their anceſtors, who has filled ſome office of diſtinction in the empire with honour to himſelf, or who has been rendered illuſtrious by his talents and abilities. Sometimes it only contains the names of men, women, and children belonging to the family, inſcribed upon tablets, together with their age, the day of their death, and the dignities they enjoyed at that time. Theſe tablets are ranged in two rows upon ſteps, and are only about a foot high each. In the ſpring, and ſometimes in the autumn, the relations of the deceaſed repair to this hall, where the only privilege enjoyed by the richeſt is that of preparing an entertainment, and treating the whole family at their own expence; but they never allow themſelves to taſte a bit of any thing until an offering has been firſt made to their anceſtors. This does not, however, excuſe them from viſiting the real tomb of their anceſtors once or twice a-year, generally in the month of April. At this time they pluck the weeds and buſhes from around the tomb, renew their expreſſions of grief, and conclude by placing upon it wine and proviſions, which ſerve to dine their aſſiſtants.

The funeral ceremonies are conſidered by the Chineſe as the moſt important of any. A few moments after a perſon has expired, he is dreſſed out in his richeſt attire, and adorned with every badge of his dignity; after which he is placed in the coffin. The preparation of a coffin, in which his body may be incloſed after death, is one of the chief objects of attention to a Chineſe during his life, and great expence is often thrown out upon it; inſomuch that the poor will give all they are worth, and the rich expend a thouſand crowns, nay, a ſon will ſell himſelf for a ſlave in order to purchaſe a coffin for his father. Sometimes the coffin, when purchaſed with all this labour and expence, will remain twenty years uſeleſs in the family, and is conſidered as the moſt valuable piece of furniture in his poſſeſſion. 120 Funeral ceremonies.

The manner of interment is as follows: Firſt they ſprinkle ſome lime in the bottom of the coffin; then they lay the body in it, taking care to place the head on a pillow, and to add a great deal of cotton, that it may remain more ſteady, and be prevented from ſhaking. In this manner the body remains expoſed ſeven days; but the time may be reduced to three, if any weighty reaſon makes it neceſſary; and, during this interval, all the relations and friends, who are purpoſely invited, come and pay their reſpects to the deceaſed, the neareſt relations even remaining in the houſe. The coffin is expoſed in the hall of ceremony, which is then hung with white, but ſome pieces of black or violet-coloured ſilk are here and there interſperſed, as well as ſome other ornaments of mourning. Before the coffin is placed a table, on which ſtands the image of the deceaſed, or a carved ornament inſcribed with his name; and theſe are always accompanied with flowers, perfumes, and lighted wax candles.

In the mean time thoſe who enter the hall are accuſtomed to ſalute the deceaſed as if he were ſtill in life. They proſtrate themſelves before the table, and knock their foreheads ſeveral times againſt the earth; after which they place on the table ſome perfumes and wax candles provided for the purpoſe. The ſalutation which they have made to the deceaſed is returned by the eldeſt ſon accompanied by his brothers. The latter come forth from behind a curtain, which hangs on one ſide of the coffin, creeping along the ground until they reach the ſpot where thoſe ſtand whom they are going to ſalute; after which, without riſing up, they return to the place from whence they came. The women are alſo concealed behind the ſame curtain, from whence they every now and then ſend forth diſmal cries.

After a number of ceremonies and invitations, the funeral proceſſion at laſt commences. A troop of men march in a file, carrying different figures made of paſteboard, and repreſenting ſlaves, lions, tigers, horſes, &c. Others follow, marching in two files; ſome of which carry ſtandards, ſome flags or cenſers filled with perfumes; while melancholy and plaintive airs are played by others on different muſical inſtruments. Theſe muſicians immediately precede the coffin, which is covered with a canopy in form of a dome, of violet-coloured ſilk; its four corners are ornamented with tufts of white ſilk very neatly embroidered, and covered at the top with net-work. The coffin is placed on the bottom of this machine, and is carried by 64 men.

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men. The eldeſt ſon, clothed in a frock of canvas, having his body bent and leaning on a ſtaff, follows near the coffin; and behind him his brothers and nephews, but none of them clothed in canvas. Then come the relations and friends, all clad in mourning, and followed by a great number of chairs covered with white ſtuff, which contain the wives and female ſlaves of the deceaſed. Theſe make great ſhow of ſorrow by their doleful cries; but M. Groſier obſerves, that, in ſpite of all they can do, the lamentations of the Chineſe are ſo methodical, that an European would be apt to conclude that they were the effects of art rather than the natural effuſions of a mind agitated and oppreſſed with grief. When they arrive at the burying place, the coffin is depoſited in a tomb appropriated for it, not far from which there are tables arranged in different halls, and on which the aſſiſtants are entertained with great ſplendour. The entertainment is ſometimes followed by freſh marks of homage to the corpſe; but theſe are often changed into thanks to the eldeſt ſon; who, however, anſwers only by ſigns. But if the deceaſed was a grandee of the empire, a certain number of his relations never leave the tomb for a month or two. There they reſide in apartments purpoſely provided for them, and every day renew their marks of grief in company with the children of the deceaſed. The magnificence of theſe funeral ceremonies is proportioned to the wealth or dignity of the deceaſed. That of one of the brothers of the emperor was attended by 16,000 people, each of whom had a particular office aſſigned him relating to the ceremony.

121 Mourning.

Mourning continues in China for three years; and during all this time they are obliged to abſtain from the uſe of fleſh and wine; nor can they aſſiſt at any entertainment of ceremony, or attend any public aſſembly. At firſt they are not even permitted to go abroad; and when they do ſo they are carried in a chair covered with a white cloth. Sometimes the filial piety of the Chineſe is carried to ſuch a length, that they preſerve the bodies of their deceaſed fathers in their houſes for three or four years; and thoſe who do ſo impoſe alſo upon themſelves a great number of other duties, uſing no other ſeat during the day but a ſtool covered with white ſerge, and no other bed but a plain mat made of reeds, which is placed near the coffin.

122 Diverſions of hunting and fiſhing.

According to M. Groſier, the only diverſions of the Chineſe are thoſe of hunting and fiſhing, dancing not being practiſed, and gaming forbidden by law. Fiſhing is conſidered by them rather as an object of commerce and induſtry than amuſement. They catch fiſh by various methods; uſing nets in their great fiſheries, but lines in the private. In certain provinces alſo they uſe a certain kind of bird whoſe plumage greatly reſembles that of a raven, but with a much longer bill, very ſharp and hooked. This method of fiſhing is practiſed in boats, of which great numbers may be ſeen on the river about ſun-riſing, with the fiſhing-birds perched on their prows. Theſe birds are taught to catch fiſh almoſt in the ſame manner that dogs purſue game. The fiſhermen, after making ſeveral turns with their boats, beat the water ſtrongly with one of their oars. This ſerves as a ſignal to the birds, who inſtantly plunge into the water, and diving, ſwallow as many ſmall fiſhes as they can, repairing immediately afterwards to the boat, and carrying a large one by the middle in their bill. The ſmall ones are prevented from paſſing into the ſtomach by a ring placed on purpoſe to confine its gullet: and thus the fiſherman by ſtroaking its neck with the head downwards, makes the bird diſgorge all thoſe ſmall fiſh it has ſwallowed. When they have done fiſhing, the rings are taken off, and the birds allowed to feed. When the fiſh happens to be too large for a ſingle bird, the others have ſagacity enough to aſſiſt it; one taking it by the tail, another by the head, &c. and thus they tranſport it to their maſter.

Another method of fiſhing, practiſed only in China, is as follows: They nail a board about two feet in breadth, which is covered with a white ſhining kind of varniſh, upon the edges of a long narrow boat, from one end to the other. This board is placed in ſuch a manner as to ſlope almoſt imperceptibly to the water. It is uſed only in the night-time, and is always turned towards the moon, that the reflection of light from the luminary may increaſe the ſplendour of the varniſh. The fiſh in ſporting, often miſtake this varniſhed board for water; and endeavouring to throw themſelves into it, fall into the boat.

The ſoldiers have a particular method of fiſhing with a bow and arrow; the latter of which is fixed to the bow by a ſtring, both to prevent it from being loſt, and to enable them to draw out the fiſh which the arrow has pierced; others make uſe of tridents to catch large fiſh which are ſometimes found in the mud.

Beſides theſe diverſions the Chineſe have ſome ſtrolling players, but no regular theatres; they have likewiſe muſicians and ſingers, but no operas, or indeed any public ſpectacle worthy of notice.

123 Of the Chineſe language.

The language of the Chineſe is not only very ancient, but, in M. Groſier's opinion, is ſtill ſpoken as in the moſt early ages without any variation. His reaſons for this opinion are, 1. We do not perceive in hiſtory, nor even in the moſt fabulous traditions, a ſingle fact tending to occaſion any doubt of the language ſpoken by the ancient Chineſe being different from that uſed at preſent. 2. China has never changed its inhabitants; and if revolutions have occaſioned any mixture of new languages, it appears that the ancient language has always been predominant, and that the new ſettlers have learned and ſpoken it, as the Manchew Tartars after their conqueſt. 3. The moſt intelligent and diſcerning of the literati agree, that the firſt chapters of the *Chou-king* were written under the reign of Yao, 2300 years before Chriſt; and in theſe ſeveral ſpeeches of the firſt emperors are related word for word; and it is not probable that the language of theſe princes was different from that of the hiſtorian. 4. A compliment paid to Yao by one of his ſubjects, with the anſwer of that prince, are ſtill preſerved, as well as two ſongs compoſed under the ſame reign. 5. The moſt ancient inſcriptions in China are all in the language ſpoken throughout the empire at this day. 6. The Chineſe have borrowed nothing from other nations; and their attachment to their own cuſtoms, and to antiquity, muſt undoubtedly be very unfavourable to any innovation. The language ſpoken by the vulgar, indeed, muſt have undergone ſome changes; but theſe may be accounted trivial, affecting only

China. only the pronunciation; which indeed appears to be varied in ſome few inſtances. It is certain, however, that the Chineſe players act theatrical pieces which were written 1000 years ago, and that theſe are ſtill underſtood throughout the empire.

The language of China has no alphabet; all the words which compoſe it conſiſt of one ſyllable only, and are very few in number. Theſe always remain the ſame, and continue monoſyllables even when two are joined together, being united in the ſame manner as the French words *bon* and *jour* are united to form *bon-jour*. Theſe monoſyllables never form but one ſound. When written by an European, they begin with the letters *ch*, *tch*, *f*, *g*, or *j*, *i*, *h*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *g*, *ng*, *p*, *ſ*, *ts*, *v*, *ou*; the final letters being *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *oi*, *ou*, *u*, *l*, *n*, *gn*. The middle of Chineſe words conſiſts of vowels and conſonants producing only one ſound, and pronounced always as monoſyllables. The whole primary words of the language are in number only about 330, though ſome dictionaries make them 484. The ſenſe of theſe words, however, is varied by the accents and changes of the voice in pronouncing them almoſt *ad infinitum*. Two principal accents are known in China; the *ping*, that is, *even*, without elevating or depreſſing the voice. This is divided into *tſing*, *clear*, and *tcho*, *obſcure*; or rather *open* and *mute*. The accent *tſe* is ſubdivided into *tchang*, ſharp, *kiu*, grave, and *jou*, re-entering. The tone is *chang* when one raiſes the voice at the end of a word, as when the negative *no* is pronounced with great emphaſis and force; it is *kiu* when one depreſſes the voice with an air of timidity. When the accent is *jou*, the voice is drawn back as it were into the throat; and the aſpiration which takes place on certain words beginning with the letters *c*, *k*, *p*, *t*, ſtill adds to theſe varieties.

By theſe differences in pronunciation the ſignification of the words is totally changed; thus the word *tchu*, pronounced by lengthening the *u*, and with a clear tone of voice, ſignifies *maſter* or *lord*: if it is pronounced in an uniform tone by lengthening the *u*, it ſignifies *hog*; when pronounced lightly and with rapidity, it ſignifies *kitchen*; and when articulated with a ſtrong voice depreſſed towards the end, it ſignifies a *pillar*.

By the conjunction and modification of theſe different monoſyllables, a Chineſe can expreſs every thing he has occaſion for; and it may be eaſily ſeen what variety muſt reſult from this art of multiplying words. The Chineſe language therefore has words expreſſive of the ſmalleſt variation of circumſtance, and which cannot be expreſſed in the European languages without a circumlocution. Thus inſtead of the five words, calf, bull, ox, heifer, cow, every time that a cow has a calf ſhe acquires a new name in the language of this empire; and ſtill another when ſhe becomes barren. An ox fed for ſacrifice has a particular name, which is changed when he goes to the altar. In like manner, a whole dictionary might be compoſed of the words that are employed to expreſs the different parts of the emperor's palace, and thoſe that are in a manner conſecrated to it; others being employed when the palaces of princes or mandarins are ſpoken of. Thus the number of their characters are augmented beyond all bounds, ſo that the greater part of their literati ſpend all their lives in ſtudying them.

In the Chineſe there are four different languages: China.
1. The *Kou-ouen*, or claſſical language. This is not ſpoken at preſent, though it is generally believed to have been the language of the early ages. It is ſo laconic, and the ideas are ſo crowded, that it is very difficult to be underſtood; however, the literati, who can read and underſtand it, are much delighted with it.

2. The *Ouen-tchang* is the language uſed in compoſitions where a noble and elevated ſtyle is requiſite. It is never ſpoken, but certain ſentences and complimentary expreſſions are ſometimes borrowed from it. It approaches near to the laconic brevity and majeſtic ſolemnity of the *Kou-ouen*, and is equally proper for every kind of ſubject, excepting only the ambiguities of metaphyſics, and the formal rugged diction uſed in treating of the abſtract ſciences.

3. The *Kouan-ha* is the language of the court, of people in office, and of the literati. It admits of ſynonymous expreſſions to moderate the brevity of monoſyllables; of pronouns and relatives; prepoſitions, adverbs, and particles; to ſupply the want of caſes, moods, tenſes, and numbers, which have place in other languages.

4. *Hing-tan* is a kind of corrupted language, or provincial dialect, ſpoken by the lower claſſes in China; and of which every province, city, and almoſt every village, has its own. Beſides the ſenſe of the words which is changed in a great variety of places, they are ſo altered by diverſity of pronunciation as to be almoſt unintelligible.

This language is ſo abſolutely original, that no traces of the moſt diſtant relation can be perceived, either in reference to the form of the character, the ſyſtem on which it appears to have been conſtructed, or its peculiar idiom to any other known language to be met with upon the face of the earth. Many attempts indeed have been made by the learned and ingenious, to diſcover ſome affinity between it and different languages; but we apprehend without ſucceſs. Etymological compariſons are often fanciful and ſtrained, and ſeldom fail to lead to erroneous concluſions. It may indeed be admitted that it is poſſible to trace a reſemblance between the ſounds of the Chineſe language and thoſe of other nations, yet no art or ingenuity, no *etymological trick*, as Mr Barrow expreſſes himſelf, will ever be able to trace any analogy between their written characters, farther than that they are made up of points and lines, which might conſtitute an affinity between the Chineſe and any other language on the face of the earth. It has no alphabetical arrangement, but conſiſts purely of a prodigious number of arbitrary ſigns, ſettled by convention, and which have no external affinity to the things they are meant to deſcribe. The ridiculous conjectures often made on this ſubject by etymologiſts might be pardoned if they were meant to be ſatirical, like Dean Swift's antiquity of the Engliſh tongue, from which he makes the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, to be derivatives.

Such is the nature of the Chineſe language, that it would be abſurd to expect among that people ſuch high attainments in every branch of literature as are to be met with in Europe. In the opinion of ſome very eminent men, their acquaintance with erudition of any kind was as great 2000 years ago as it is at preſent, while others are perſuaded that they are rather on the decline.

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decline. They pretend indeed, but without adducing any satisfactory proof of its truth, that the monuments of literature were destroyed by the tyrant She-whang-te, 200 years before the Christian era, that succeeding generations might consider him as the first civilized emperor who had swayed the sceptre over that extensive country. The chief works at present among them which are most valued, studied, and least understood, are the five classics collected by their favourite Cong-foo-tse, 450 years B. C. and which it seems had the good fortune to escape the unlettered fury of She-whang-te. These classics are enumerated by Mr Barrow in the following order.

1. *Shoo-king*. A collection of records and annals of various princes, commencing more than 2000 years B. C.

2. *Shee-king*. Odes, sonnets, and maxims; most of them so abundant in metaphor, and so obscure, that much of the sense is to be made out by the translator.

3. *Ye-king*. The perfect and the broken lines of Fo-shee; the most ancient relick in China, and perhaps the first attempt at written language: now perfectly incomprehensible.

4. *Chung choo*. Spring and autumn. The history of some of the kings of Loo: the work principally of Cong-foo-tse.

5. *Lee kee*. Ceremonies and moral duties, a compilation of Cong-foo-tse.

Without a complete change of the Chinese language, and a more extensive and friendly intercourse with foreign nations, it is not at all probable that that people will ever rank high for their knowledge of literature.

124 Chinese writing.

There are five kinds of writing mentioned by the Chinese literati; the most modern of which is a method of tracing out the characters with a pencil. This is difficult, and requires much experience; at any rate it disfigures the characters greatly, and is therefore only used in the prescriptions of physicians, prefaces to books, and inscriptions of fancy. The tracing of characters with neatness and accuracy, however, as we have already had occasion to observe, is greatly admired in China. They are often preferred to the most elegant painting; and some will give a most exorbitant price for a page of an old book, if it happens to be neatly written. They pay particular attention to well formed characters even in the most common books; and if any of the leaves happen to fall off, will replace them with the greatest attention. To apply them to any vile purpose, tread them under foot, &c. would be reckoned an unpardonable violation of decency and politeness; nay, it often happens, that workmen, such as masons and joiners, dare not tear a printed leaf of paper fixed to the wall.

125 Of their poetry.

Punctuation was not formerly used in China, nor are points as yet employed in works of an elevated style, or such as are to be presented to the emperor. Poetry is seldom an object of attention, though the taste for it seems to be pretty general in China. Their versification has its rules, and is no less difficult than that of other nations. Only the most harmonious, energetic, and picturesque words, are to be employed, and they must always be used in the same sense in which they were used by the ancients. Each verse can contain only a certain number of words; all of which must be ranged according to the rules of quantity, and terminate in rhyme. The number of verses in a strophe is not determined; but they must be uniform, and present the same distribution of rhymes. The small number of poetical expressions contained in the Chinese language has rendered it necessary to extend the poetical licence to a great length in this respect. The Chinese poets are allowed to employ a blank verse in every four. They are acquainted with most kinds of poetry in use among us. They have stanzas, odes, elegies, idyls, eclogues, epigrams, satires, and even *bouts rimes*. The common people have also ballads and songs peculiar to themselves. Some of the most distinguished of the literati have even thought it of importance enough to turn the most celebrated maxims of morality, with the rules of civility, into verse. Their poetry is seldom disgraced by any kind of obscenity; and indeed any such thing would be severely punished by government. That severe attention with which every thing tending to corrupt the morals is watched in China, prohibits not only poems of this kind, but likewise romances of all sorts. The police, however, permits such novels as have an useful tendency, and in which nothing is introduced prejudicial to sound morality. Every author who writes against government is punished with death, as well as all those who have had any hand in the printing or distribution of his works.

126 Chinese paper.

The arts of making paper and printing have been long known among the Chinese. That kind of paper now in use was first manufactured about 105 years before the Christian era. Before that period they used cloth, and various kinds of silk stuff, instead of paper; and to this day they still preserve a custom of writing the praises of the dead upon large pieces of silk, which are suspended on one side of the coffin, and carried in funeral processions; and of ornamenting their apartments with maxims and moral sentences written in the same manner. In ages still more early, they wrote with a kind of style upon pieces of bamboo, or even upon plates of metal. The first paper was invented by a mandarin. He took the bark of trees, hemp, and old pieces of silk-stuff, boiling them together until they were reduced to a kind of paste, of which he formed his paper; which by degrees was brought to perfection, and the art of whitening and giving it a lustre found out. A great number of different substances are now used in this empire for making paper; such as the bamboo reed, the cotton shrub, the bark of the plant called kou-chu, and of the mulberry tree; hemp, the straw of wheat and rice, parchment, the cods of the silk-worm, and several other substances unknown in Europe. In this manufacture the bark of trees and shrubs is used, and the woody substance of the bamboo and cotton tree, after it has been macerated and reduced to a thin paste. Most of the Chinese paper, however, is attended with the disadvantage of being very susceptible of moisture, readily attracts the dust, and worms insensibly get into it: to prevent which inconveniences, it is necessary to beat the books often, and expose them to the sun. That made of cotton is the prettiest, and most used of any. All of them, however, are much softer and smoother than ours; which is absolutely necessary for their method of writing with

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a pencil, in order that it may run with freedom, which it could not do upon ours. It is formed into ſheets of an enormous ſize; ſo that it would be no difficult matter to procure from the manufactories of this empire ſheets of paper 30 or 40 feet long.

127 Ink.

The Chineſe ink came originally from Corea; and it was not until the year 900, that they hit upon the method of making it to perfection. The beſt is made in *Hoei-tcheou* in the province of *Kiang-nan;* but its compoſition is a ſecret, which the workmen conceal not only from ſtrangers but from their fellow-citizens. When a Chineſe has occaſion to write, he places upon his table a piece of poliſhed marble, having a cavity at one of its extremities to contain a little water. In this he dips the end of his cake of ink, and rubs it upon the ſmooth part of the marble; and as he preſſes more or leſs ſtrongly, the liquor acquires a deeper or lighter tinge of black. When he has done writing, the ſtone is carefully waſhed; for it would be diſhonoured by allowing the leaſt ſpot to remain. Then pencils uſed in writing are commonly made of the fur of a rabbit, and conſequently very ſoft.

128 Their method of printing.

The Chineſe method of printing is exceedingly different from ours; and indeed it would be in a manner impoſſible to have moveable types for ſuch a number of characters as their language requires. The whole work which they intend to print is therefore engraved upon blocks of wood; and their method of proceeding is as follows. They firſt employ an excellent writer, who tranſcribes the whole upon very thin paper. The engraver glues each of the leaves of the manuſcript upon a piece of plank made of any hard wood: he then traces over with a graver the ſtrokes of the writing, carves out the characters in relief, and cuts down the intermediate part of the wood. Thus each page of a book requires a ſeparate plank; and the exceſſive multiplication of theſe is no doubt a very great inconvenience, one chamber being ſcarce ſufficient to preſerve thoſe employed for a ſingle book. The advantages are, that the work is thus free from typographical errors, and the author has no occaſion to correct the proofs. Thus alſo the bookſellers in China have a decided advantage over thoſe of Europe, as they are able by this method of printing to throw off copies according to their ſale, without running the riſk of being ruined by too large an edition. In this method the beauty of the work depends entirely upon the ſkill of the writer previouſly employed. The engravers are exceedingly dexterous, and imitate every ſtroke ſo exactly, that it is ſometimes difficult to diſtinguiſh a printed work from one that is only written.

The method of printing in China is not by a preſs as in Europe, as neither their wooden planks nor their ſoft paper could ſuſtain ſo much preſſure. They firſt place the plank level, and then fix it in that poſition. The printer is provided with two bruſhes, and with the hardeſt daubs the plank with ink; and one daubing is ſufficient for four or five leaves. After a leaf has been adjuſted upon the plank, the workman takes the ſecond bruſh, which is ſofter than the former, and of an oblong figure, and draws it gently over the paper, preſſing it down a little, that it may receive the ink. The degree of preſſure is to be regulated by the quantity of ink upon the planks: and in this manner one man is able to throw off almoſt 10,000 copies a day. The ink uſed for printing is different from that formerly deſcribed, and which is uſed in writing. The leaves, on account of the thinneſs of the paper, are printed only upon one ſide; on which account each leaf of a book is double, ſo that the fold ſtands uppermoſt, and the opening is towards the back, where it is ſtitched. Hence the Chineſe books are not cut on the edges, but on the back. They are generally bound in gray paſteboard, which is very neat; and thoſe who wiſh to have them more elegantly done, get the paſteboard covered with ſatin, flowered taffety, and ſometimes with gold and ſilver brocade. Their books are neither gilt nor coloured on the edges like ours.

It has been ſo juſtly and ſo frequently obſerved, that the liberty of the preſs muſt ever prove fatal to the exiſtence of tyranny and ſuperſtition, that it is a circumſtance peculiarly ſingular to behold the liberty of the preſs flouriſhing under a deſpotic government; yet this is actually the caſe in China, although its government may be ſaid to be founded on error and ſupported by oppreſſion. It was the liberty of the preſs which accompliſhed the overthrow of ſacerdotal tyranny in many European countries, by enlightening the minds of thoſe who were enſlaved. When the art of printing firſt found its way into England, an intelligent perſon obſerved to the abbot of Weſtminſter, "If you don't take care to deſtroy that machine, it will very ſoon deſtroy your trade." It was fortunate, however, for ſucceeding generations, that neither the abbot nor his ſanctified contemporaries had the penetration to diſcover the truth of this prediction, otherwiſe the ages of darkneſs and ſuperſtition might perhaps have been protracted to the preſent day.

129 Vaſt quantity of ſilk produced.

The art of manufacturing ſilk, according to the beſt authorities, was communicated by the Chineſe to the Perſians, and from them to the Greeks. The art has been known in this empire from the remoteſt antiquity; and the breeding of ſilk-worms and making of ſilk was one of the employments even of the empreſſes in very early ages.

The moſt beautiful ſilk in the whole empire is that of *Tche-kiang*, which is wrought by the manufactories of Nanking. From theſe are brought all the ſtuffs uſed by the emperor, and ſuch as he diſtributes in preſents to his nobility. A great number of excellent workmen are alſo drawn to the manufactories of Canton by the commerce with Europe and other parts of Aſia. Here are manufactured ribbons, ſtockings, and buttons. A pair of ſilk ſtockings here coſts little more than 6s. ſterling.

The quantity of ſilk produced in China ſeems to be almoſt inexhauſtible; the internal conſumption alone being incredibly great, beſides that which is exported in the commerce with Europe and the reſt of Aſia. In this empire all who poſſeſs a moderate fortune wear ſilk clothes; none but the lower claſs of people wearing cotton ſtuffs, which are commonly dyed blue. The principal ſtuffs manufactured by them are plain and flowered gauzes, of which they make ſummer dreſſes; damaſk of all colours; ſtriped and black ſatins; naped, flowered, ſtriped, clouded, and pinked taffeties; crapes, brocades, plush, different kinds of velvet, and a multitude of other ſtuffs unknown in Europe. They make particular

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particular use of two kinds; one named *touan-tse*, a kind of satin much stronger, but which has less lustre, than that of Europe; the other a kind of taffety, of which they make drawers and linings. It is woven exceedingly close, and is yet so pliable that it may be rumpled and rubbed between the hands without any crease; and even when washed like cotton-cloth, it loses very little of its lustre. They manufacture also a kind of gold brocades, but of such a slight nature, that they cannot be worn in clothes: they are fabricated by wrapping fine slips of gilt paper round the threads of silk.

130 Porcelain.

Porcelain is another great branch of Chinese manufacture, and employs a vast number of workmen. The finest is made in a village called *King-te-Ching* in the province of *Kiang-si*. Manufactories have also been erected in the provinces of Fo-kien and Canton, but their produce is not esteemed: and one which the emperor caused to be erected at Peking, in order to be under his own inspection, miscarried entirely.

The Chinese divide their porcelain into several classes, according to its different degrees of fineness and beauty. The whole of the first is reserved for the use of the emperor, so that none of it ever comes into the hands of other persons, unless it happen to be cracked or otherwise damaged in such a manner as to be unworthy of being presented to the sovereign. Among that sent to the emperor, however, there is some porcelain of an inferior quality, which he disposes of in presents. There is some doubt, therefore, whether any of the finest Chinese porcelain was ever seen in Europe. Some value, however, is now put upon the European porcelain by the Chinese themselves.

131 Glass of little estimation.

The use of glass is very ancient in China, though it does not appear that great value was ever put upon this kind of ware, the art of manufacturing it having been frequently lost and revived again in this empire. They greatly admire the workmanship of the European crystal, but prefer their own porcelain, which stands hot liquors, and is much less liable to be broken. The little estimation in which this substance was held, is even mentioned by their own writers in speaking of the false pearls, mirrors, and other toys which were made in former ages. The remembrance of a very large glass vessel, however, which was made in 627, is still preserved; and of which it was said that a mule could as easily enter it as a gnat could enter a pitcher. In order to transport this monstrous vessel from the place where it was manufactured to the emperor's palace, it was necessary to inclose it in a net, the four corners of which were fixed to four carriages. The same indifference with regard to glass is still entertained by the present emperors; however, a glass-house is established at Peking, where a number of vases and other works are made; and these are so much the more difficult in the execution, as none of them are blown. This manufactory, as well as many others, is considered only as an appendage of the court, destined for the purposes of pomp and magnificence.

132 Medicine.

It seems evident that medicine must have been one of the earliest studies to which mankind turned their attention, at least when they had attained to some degree of civilization. It is the common lot of humanity to be born to trouble as the sparks fly upward, and therefore an assiduous application to the study of those diseases to which man is subject, either with a view to effect a radical cure, or even to mitigate the virulence of their symptoms, must have secured to such characters the esteem and admiration of the world. Even savages have discovered respect for such of their own nation as could remove obstructions, heal bruises, or administer relief to the miserable in any shape whatever. The Chinese in this respect are perfectly unique, and seem to differ from every nation under heaven in their notions of medicine. They have no public seminaries where the healing art may be taught, because they do not consider the knowledge of any branch of medicine as in the smallest degree necessary. The very best performances of this nature to be met with in China, are little more than mere enumerations of the names and supposed qualities of different plants, —a sufficient stock of knowledge for constituting a Chinese physician. In a country where the people are so credulous, and the medical art at such a low ebb, it would be a singular circumstance to find no quacks. In every city, therefore, of this vast empire, multitudes are to be met with continually vending nostrums, as pretended specifics for some disease or other, and the easy credulity of the people affords them a comfortable subsistence.

Were the Chinese perpetual strangers to every species of disease, it would enable us to account for their unnatural apathy or indifference about the study of physic; but it will remain an inexplicable paradox, when we are assured upon undoubted authority, that they are subject to a multiplicity of distempers. The smallpox, ophthalmia, contagious fevers, sometimes the venereal or Canton ulcer, as it is denominated by themselves, are a few of the maladies incident to the Chinese, which might constitute a powerful stimulus, one would imagine, to the study of physic, with unremitting assiduity, which it is certain they do not, as appears from the subsequent assertion of Dr Gregory. "In the greatest, most ancient, and most civilized empire on the face of the earth, an empire that was great, populous, and highly civilized 2000 years ago, when this country was as savage as New Zealand is at present, no such good medical aid can be obtained among the people of it, as a smart boy of 16, who had been but 12 months apprentice to a good and well employed Edinburgh surgeon, might reasonably be expected to afford." This gives us a melancholy picture of the state of medicine in China, which, however, is confirmed by the united testimony of Sir George Staunton and Mr Barrow.

The people of China are said to be in the possession of a method for ascertaining whether a man has been murdered, or committed an act of suicide, of the probability of which our readers will be able to judge from the following process. The body to be examined is washed with vinegar. A large fire is kindled in a pit dug for the purpose, six feet long, three wide, and the same in depth. The fire receives new accession of fuel till the pit acquires the temperature of a heated oven, when the whole of the remaining fuel is taken out, and a large quantity of wine is poured into the pit. The body is then placed at full length on osier twigs over the mouth of it, and covered with a cloth for two hours, that the steam of the wine may act upon the body in all directions. The Chinese, it

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is ſaid, aſſert that if the blows given the body were ſo violent as to occaſion death, this proceſs makes the marks of them clearly appear, let the ſtate of the body, when ſubjected to this teſt, be ever ſo cadaverous.

133 Of their muſic.

With regard to the muſic of the Chineſe, we have the ſame ſtories related as of the Greeks and Egyptians, viz. that in former ages the muſicians could make brute animals leap at the ſound of their inſtruments. Our author, M. Groſier, indeed does not quote any Chineſe author who aſſerts that the ancient muſic could make trees dance, or ſtones arrange themſelves into a city; but he quotes them, aſſerting, "that the muſicians could call down ſuperior ſpirits of every age from the ethereal regions; raiſe up the manes of departed beings; inſpire men with a love of virtue; and lead them to the practice of their duty." Effects of this ſupernatural kind are attributed to the ſacred muſic by the inſpired writers; as in the caſe of Saul, out of whom an evil ſpirit departed at the ſound of David's harp; and of Eliſha, who was inſpired with the ſpirit of prophecy at the ſound of a muſical inſtrument. It is probable, therefore, that the relations both of the Greeks and Chineſe are founded upon facts of this kind; and we cannot from thence infer, that the muſic of early ages was at all ſuperior to that which followed. According to thoſe who have employed much time in theſe reſearches, the ancient Chineſe were acquainted with the diviſion of the octave into twelve ſemitones; and that before the time of Pythagoras, or even Mercury himſelf: that the lyre of Pythagoras, his invention of the diatonic tetrachords, and the formation of his grand ſyſtem, were merely borrowed from the ancient Chineſe. In ſhort, it is maintained, that the Greeks, even Pythagoras himſelf, did nothing but apply to ſtrings that theory which the Chineſe had before formed, and applied to pipes.

At preſent the Chineſe are not acquainted with the uſe of our muſical notes; they have not that diverſity of ſigns which diſtinguiſh the different tones, and the gradual elevation or depreſſion of the voice, nor any thing to point out the various modifications of ſound to produce harmony. They have only a few characters to mark the principal notes; and all the airs they learn are repeated merely by rote. The emperor Kang-hi was therefore greatly aſtoniſhed at the facility with which an European could catch and remember an air the firſt time he heard it. In 1679 he ſent for Fathers Grimaldi and Pereira, to play ſome tunes on the harpſichord, of which they had before made him a preſent. He was greatly entertained with their muſic, but altogether aſtoniſhed when he found that F. Pereira could take down a Chineſe air while the muſicians were playing it, and then repeat the whole without omitting a ſingle note. Having made ſeveral trials of this kind in order to ſatisfy himſelf, he beſtowed the higheſt encomiums upon the European muſic, and the means furniſhed by it to facilitate and leſſen the labour of the memory. "I muſt confeſs (ſays he) that the European muſic is incomparable, and that the like of this F. Pereira is not to be found in my whole kingdom."

134 Muſical inſtruments.

The Chineſe have always diſtinguiſhed eight different ſounds; and they believe that nature, in order to produce theſe, formed eight different kinds of ſonorous bodies. The order in which they diſtribute theſe ſounds, and the inſtruments they have contrived to produce them, are, 1. The ſounds of ſkin produced by drums; 2. That of ſtone produced by the *king*; 3. The ſound of metal by bells; 4. That of baked earth by the *huien*; 5. Of ſilk by the *kin* and *che*; 6. Of wood by the *yu* and *tchou*; 7. Of the bamboo by the *koan*, and different flutes; 8. That of a gourd by the *cheng*.

The drums were originally compoſed of a box made of baked earth, and covered at the extremities with the ſkin of ſome animal; but on account of the brittleneſs of baked earth, wood was ſoon ſubſtituted in its ſtead. Moſt of theſe inſtruments are ſhaped like our barrels, but ſome are cylindrical.

The inſtruments formed of the ſonorous ſtones are called *king*, diſtinguiſhed into *tſe king* and *pien king*. The *tſe-king* conſiſts only of one ſtone, and therefore produces only one note. The *pien-king* conſiſts of 16 ſtones ſuſpended together, and thus forming an inſtrument capable of producing all the tones admitted into the muſic of the ancient Chineſe. They are cut into the form of a carpenter's ſquare; their tone is flattened by diminiſhing their thickneſs, and is made ſharper by abridging their length.

Although in the eſtimation of the Chineſe, univerſal nature has been forced to contribute towards the perfection of their muſic, by furniſhing them with the ſkins of different animals, metals, ſtones, baked earths, and the fibrous parts of plants, Mr Barrow could diſcover no inſtrument among them of a muſical nature, the tones of which would have been even tolerable to a delicate European ear; and only one perſon in the courſe of his inveſtigations and reſearches could with any propriety be ſaid to ſing from tenderneſs and feeling. Yet without the ſmalleſt authority for ſuch a bold aſſertion, a certain Jeſuit has maintained, that the muſical ſyſtem of the Chineſe was borrowed from them by the Greeks and Egyptians before the time of Orpheus! He who can believe this extravagant aſſertion, after comparing the muſic of theſe countries together at any given period, will find it an eaſy matter to give credit to any thing whatever.

155 Bells of immenſe ſize.

The bells in China have always been made of a mixture of tin and copper. They are of different ſhapes, and thoſe of the ancients were not round but flattened, and in the lower part reſembling a creſcent. An inſtrument, correſponding to the king, already mentioned, is compoſed of 16 bells of different ſizes. Some of their bells uſed on public occaſions are of enormous magnitudes. One at Peking is deſcribed as $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter, $12\frac{1}{2}$ in height, and 42 in circumference; the weight being upwards of 120,000 pounds. It is uſed for announcing the hours or watches of the night; and its ſound, which is prodigiouſly loud and ſtrong, has a moſt awful effect in the nighttime, by reverberating round the walls and the echo of the ſurrounding country. There are ſeveral others likewiſe of vaſt ſize in the ſame city; one of which deſerves greatly to be admired on account of the beautiful characters with which it is covered; and which are as neat and perfect as if traced out by the hand of the fineſt writer, or formed by means of a ſtamp upon wax. F. le Compte tells us, that in all the cities of

China. of China there are bells for marking the hours and watches of the night. They generally divide the night into five watches, beginning at ſeven or eight in the evening. On the commencement of the firſt they give one ſtroke, which is repeated a moment after; and thus they continue for two hours till the beginning of the ſecond: they then give two ſtrokes, which are repeated at equal intervals till the beginning of the third watch; and thus they proceed to the fourth and fifth, always increaſing the number of the ſtrokes. For the ſame purpoſe alſo they uſe enormous drums, which they beat in a ſimilar manner. F. Magaillans mentions one at Peking upwards of 40 feet in circumference.

The inſtrument called *huien*, which is made of baked earth, is highly eſteemed by the Chineſe on account of its antiquity. It is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, the great and ſmall; the former being of the ſize of a gooſe's egg; the latter of that of a hen's. It has ſix holes for the notes, and a ſeventh for the mouth.

The *kin* and *tche* have been known from the remoteſt antiquity. The kin has ſeven ſtrings made of ſilk, and is diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, differing only in ſize. The body is formed of a kind of wood varniſhed black, and its whole length is about five feet five inches. The *tche* is about nine feet in length, has 25 ſtrings, and is divided into 25 kinds. F. Amiot aſſures us, that we have no inſtrument in Europe which deſerves to be preferred to it.

The inſtruments which emit the ſound of wood are the *tchou*, the *yu*, and the *tchoung-ton*. The firſt is ſhaped like a buſhel, and is beat on the inſide with a hammer; the ſecond, which repreſents a tyger ſquatting, is made to ſound by ſcraping its back gently with a rod; the third is a collection of twelve pieces of boards tied together, which are uſed for beating time, by holding them in the right hand, and knocking them gently againſt the palm of the left.

Many inſtruments are conſtructed of the bamboo. Theſe conſiſt of pipes joined together, or ſeparate, and pierced with more or fewer holes. The principal of all theſe wind inſtruments is the *cheng*, which emits the ſound of a gourd. This is formed by cutting off the neck of a gourd, and reſerving only the lower part. To this a cover is fitted, having as many holes as are equal to the number of ſounds required. In each of theſe holes a pipe made of bamboo is fixed, and ſhorter or longer according to the tone intended. The mouth of the inſtrument is formed of another pipe ſhaped like the neck of a gooſe; which is fixed to the gourd on one ſide; and ſerves to convey the air to all the pipes it contains. The ancient *cheng* varied in the number of their pipes; thoſe uſed at preſent have only 13.

136 Chineſe painting. The painting of the Chineſe is undoubtedly inferior to that of the Europeans, though we are not by any means to judge of the abilities of the painters of this empire by the performances which are brought to Europe. M. Groſier remarks, that the works of the eminent Chineſe painters are never brought to Canton, becauſe they cannot find purchaſers among the European merchants. The latter delight only in obſcene pictures, which are not permitted by government, nor indeed will any artiſt of character execute them, though they prevail upon ſome of the inferior daubers to gratify them in this reſpect. It ſeems, however, to be univerſally agreed, that the Chineſe have no notion of correctneſs or perſpective, and little knowledge of the proportions of the human body, though it cannot be denied that they excel in painting flowers and animals. In theſe they pride themſelves in a ſcrupulouſly exact imitation of nature, inſomuch that it is no uncommon thing to hear a painter aſk his pupil how many ſcales there are between the head and tail of a carp.

Painting was formerly much eſteemed in China, but has now fallen into diſrepute on account of its political inutility. The cabinets and galleries of the emperor, however, are filled with European paintings, and the celebrated artiſts Caſtiglioni and Attiret were both employed; but their offer of erecting a ſchool of painting was rejected, leſt they ſhould by this means revive the taſte for that art which it had been formerly thought prudent to ſuppreſs.

Painting in freſco was known in China long before the Chriſtian era; and, like the Grecians, the Chineſe boaſt much of their celebrated painters of antiquity. Thus we are told of a door painted by Fan-hien, which was ſo perfect an imitation, that the people who entered the temple where it was, attempted to go out by it, unleſs prevented by thoſe who had ſeen it before. The preſent emperor has in his park an European village painted in freſco, which produced the moſt agreeable deception. The remaining part of the wall repreſents a landſcape and little hills, which are ſo happily blended with the diſtant mountains, that nothing can be conceived more agreeable. This was the production of Chineſe painters, and executed from deſigns ſketched out for them.

After this account of the ſtate of painting in China, chiefly on the authority of M. Groſier, we beg leave to remark, upon the authority of more recent, and ſeemingly more competent as well as more inquiſitive obſervers, that painting in China is at a low ebb, which made a certain artiſt once exclaim, "Theſe Chineſe are fit for nothing but weighing ſilver, and eating rice." They can copy with tolerable exactneſs what is laid before them, but ſo deficient are they in reſpect to a judicious alternation of light and ſhade; and therefore without diſcovering a ſingle ſymptom of taſte, beauties and defects are alike ſlaviſhly imitated. Their ſuppoſed excellence in drawing flowers, birds, and inſects to the life, is moſt remarkable in the city of Canton; from which Mr Barrow conjectures that they acquire their eminence by copying the productions of Europe, occaſionally ſent over to be transferred to the porcelain deſigned for exportation.

137 Engraving. Engraving in three, four, or five colours, is very ancient among the Chineſe, and was known in this empire long before its diſcovery in Europe.

138 Sculpture. Sculpture is very little known in this empire; nor is there a ſingle ſtatue in any of the ſquares or public edifices of Peking, not even in the emperor's palace. The only real ſtatues to be met with in the empire are thoſe which, for the ſake of ceremonious diſtinction, are uſed to ornament the avenues leading to the tombs of princes and men of great rank; or thoſe that are placed near the emperor's coffin, and that of his ſons and daughters, in the interior part of the vault, where their remains are depoſited.

139 Architecture. The Chineſe architecture is entirely different from that

China.

that of the Greeks or Romans; but has nevertheleſs certain proportions of its own, and a beauty peculiar to itſelf. The habitations of the emperor are real palaces, and announce in a ſtriking manner the majeſty and grandeur of the maſter who inhabits them. All the miſſionaries who had acceſs to the inſide of the emperor's palace at Peking, agreed, that if each of its parts, taken ſeparately, does not afford ſo much delight to the eye as ſome pieces of the grand architecture of Europe, the whole preſents a ſight ſuperior to any thing they had ever ſeen before. In the Chineſe architecture, when a pillar is two feet in diameter at the baſe, its height muſt be 14 feet; and by meaſures of this kind the height of every building is determined.

Almoſt all the houſes and buildings in China are conſtructed of wood. One reaſon of this may be the dread of earthquakes; but, beſides this, ſuch buildings are rendered eligible by the heat and dampneſs of the ſouthern provinces, and the exceſſive cold in the northern, which would render ſtone houſes almoſt uninhabitable. Even at Peking, where the rains are but of ſhort duration, it is found neceſſary to cover the ſmall marble ſtaircaſes belonging to the imperial palace with pieces of felt; the humidity of the air moiſtens and ſoaks into every thing. During winter the cold is ſo exceſſively ſevere, that no window can be opened to the north; and water continues conſtantly frozen to the depth of a foot and a half for more than three months. For the ſame reaſons a variety of ſtories are not uſed in the Chineſe buildings; as neither a ſecond nor third ſtory would be habitable during the great heats of ſummer or the rigorous cold of winter. Though Peking is ſituated in the northern part of the empire, the heat there, during the dogdays, is ſo intolerably ſcorching, that the police obliges tradeſmen and ſhopkeepers to ſleep in the open air in the piazzas of their houſes, leſt they ſhould be ſtifled by retiring into their inner apartments. The habitations of people of rank, or of thoſe in eaſy circumſtances, generally conſiſt of five large courts, incloſed with buildings on every ſide. The method of building with ſeveral ſtories was, however, followed for ſeveral centuries, when the court reſided in the ſouthern provinces; and the taſte for this kind of building was carried to ſuch a height, that immenſe edifices were erected from 150 to 200 feet in height, and the pavilions or towers at the extremities roſe upwards of 300 feet. This kind of building, however, at length became diſguſting; though either to preſerve the remembrance of it, or for the ſake of variety, there are ſtill ſome buildings to be ſeen ſeveral ſtories high in the palaces belonging to the emperor.

140 Bridges.

A multiplicity of bridges is rendered neceſſary in China by the vaſt number of canals and rivers which interſect the empire. Anciently, however, the Chineſe bridges were much more ingenious as well as magnificent than they are at preſent. Some of them were ſo contrived that they could be erected in one day to ſupply the place of others which might happen to be broken down, or for other purpoſes. At that time they had bridges which derived their name from their figure; as *reſembling the rainbow; draw-bridges, bridges to move with pulleys, compaſs-bridges*, &c. with many others entirely unknown at preſent. The building of bridges indeed was once a luxurious folly of the emperors; ſo that they were multiplied from whim or caprice, without any neceſſity, and without uſe. Still, however, many of them are extremely beautiful and magnificent. The arches of ſome are very lofty and acute, with eaſy ſtairs on each ſide, the ſteps of which are not quite three inches in thickneſs, for the greater facility of aſcending and deſcending; others have no arches, but are compoſed of large ſtones, ſometimes 18 feet in length, placed tranſverſely upon piles like planks. Some of theſe bridges are conſtructed of ſtone, marble, or brick; others of wood; and ſome are formed of a certain number of barks joined together by very ſtrong iron chains. Theſe are known by the name of floating bridges, and ſeveral of them are to be ſeen on the large rivers Kiang and Hoang-ho.

141 Ship-building.

For ſeveral centuries the Chineſe have made no progreſs in ſhip-building. Their veſſels have neither mizen, bowſprit, nor top-maſt. They have only a main and fore-maſt, to which is ſometimes added a ſmall top-gallant-maſt. The main-maſt is placed almoſt in the ſame part of the deck as ours; but the fore-maſt ſtands much farther forward. The latter is to the former in the proportion of two to three; and the mainmaſt is generally two-thirds of the length of the veſſel. They uſe mats for ſails, ſtrengthening them with whole bamboos equal in length to the breadth of the ſail, and extended acroſs it at the diſtance of a foot from one another. Two pieces of wood are fixed to the top and bottom of the ſail; the upper ſerves as a ſail-yard; and the lower, which is about five or ſix inches in thickneſs, keeps the ſail ſtretched when it is neceſſary to heiſt or lower it. This kind of ſail may be folded or unfolded like a ſcreen. For caulking their veſſels they do not uſe pitch, but a particular kind of gum mixed with lime, which forms a compoſition of ſuch excellent quality, that one or two wells in the hold are ſufficient to keep the veſſel dry. They have not yet adopted the uſe of pumps, and therefore draw up the water with buckets. Their anchors are made of the hard wood called *iron wood*, which they ſay is much ſuperior to the metal, becauſe the latter ſometimes bend, but the former never do.

The Chineſe pretend to have been the firſt inventors of the mariners compaſs, but ſeem to have little inclination to improve ſuch an important inſtrument; however, they are well acquainted with the art of manœuvring a veſſel, and make excellent coaſting pilots, though they are bad ſailors in an open ſea.

CHINA-Root, in the *Materia Medica*, the root of a ſpecies of SMILAX, brought both from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and thence diſtinguiſhed into oriental and occidental. Both ſorts are longiſh, full of joints, of a pale reddiſh colour, with no ſmell, and very little taſte. The oriental, which is the moſt eſteemed, is conſiderably harder, and paler-coloured than the other. Such ſhould be choſen as is freſh, cloſe, heavy, and upon being chewed appears full of a fat unctuous juice. It is generally ſuppoſed to promote inſenſible perſpiration and the urinary diſcharge, and by its unctuous quality to obtund acrimonious juices. China-root was firſt brought into Europe in the year 1535. and uſed as a ſpecific againſt venereal and cutaneous diſorders.

diſorders. With this view it was made uſe of for ſome time; but has long ſince given place to more powerful medicines.

CHINA-Ware. See PORCELAIN.

CHINCA, a ſea-port town in Peru in South America, ſituated in an extenſive valley of the ſame name, in W. Long. 76. 0. S. Lat. 13. 0.

CHINCOUGH, a convulſive kind of cough to which children are generally ſubject. See MEDICINE *Index.*

CHINESE, in general, denotes any thing belonging to China or its inhabitants.

CHINESE Swanpan. See ABACUS.

CHINKAPIN. See FAGUS, BOTANY *Index.*

CHINNOR, a muſical inſtrument among the Hebrews, conſiſting of 32 chords. Kircher has given a figure of it, which is copied on Plate CXLV.

CHINON, an ancient town of Tourrain in France, remarkable for the death of Henry II. king of England, and for the birth of the famous Rabelais. It is ſeated on the river Vienne, in a pleaſant and fertile country, in E. Long. 0. 18. N. Lat. 47. 2.

CHIO, or CHIOS, an Aſiatic iſland lying near the coaſt of Natolia, oppoſite to the peninſula of Ionia. It was known to the ancients by the name of Ethalia, Macris, Pithyuſa, &c. as well as that of Chios. According to Herodotus, the iſland of Chios was peopled originally from Ionia. It was at firſt governed by kings: but afterwards the government aſſumed a republican form, which by the direction of Iſocrates was modelled after that of Athens. They were, however, ſoon enſlaved by tyrants, and afterwards conquered by Cyrus king of Perſia. They joined the other Grecians in the Ionian revolt; but were ſhamefully abandoned by the Samians, Leſbians, and others of their allies: ſo that they were again reduced under the yoke of the Perſians, who treated them with the utmoſt ſeverity. They continued ſubject to them till the battle of Mycale, when they were reſtored to their ancient liberty: this they enjoyed till the downfal of the Perſian empire, when they became ſubject to the Macedonian princes. In the time of the emperor Veſpaſian the iſland was reduced to the form of a Roman province; but the inhabitants were allowed to live according to their own laws under the ſuperintendence of a prætor. It is now ſubject to the Turks, and is called *Scio.* See that article.

CHICOCCA. See BOTANY *Index.*

CHIONANTHUS, the SNOW-DROP or FRINGE-TREE. See BOTANY *Index.*

CHIONE, in fabulous hiſtory, was daughter of Dædalion, of whom Apollo and Mercury became enamoured. To enjoy her company, Mercury lulled her to ſleep with his caduceus; and Apollo, in the night under the form of an old woman, obtained the ſame favours as Mercury. From this embrace Chione became mother of Philammon and Autolycus; the former of whom, as being ſon of Apollo, became an excellent muſician; and the latter was equally notorious for his robberies, of which his father Mercury was the patron. Chione grew ſo proud of her commerce with the gods, that ſhe even preferred her beauty to that of Juno; for which impiety ſhe was killed by the goddeſs and changed into a hawk.—Another of the ſame name was daughter of Boreas and Orithia, who had Eumolpus by Neptune. She threw her ſon into the ſea; but he was preſerved by his father.

CHIOS. See CHIO and SCIO.

CHIOURLIC, an ancient town of Turkey in Europe, and in Romania, with a ſee of a Greek biſhop. It is ſeated on a river of the ſame name, in E. Long. 7. 47. N. Lat. 41. 18.

CHIOZZO, an ancient and handſome town of Italy in the territory of Venice, and in a ſmall iſland, near the Lagunes, with a podeſta, a biſhop's ſee, and a harbour defended by a fort. E. Long. 12. 23. N. Lat. 45. 17.

CHIPPENHAM, a town of Wiltſhire, ſeated on the river Avon. It is a good thoroughfare town; has a handſome ſtone bridge over the river, conſiſting of arches; and ſends two members to parliament. There is here a manufacture of the beſt ſuperfine woollen cloth in England. W. Long. 2. 12. N. Lat. 51. 25.

CHIPPING, a phraſe uſed by the potters and china men to expreſs that common accident both of our own ſtone and earthen ware, and the porcelain of China, the flying off of ſmall pieces, or breaking at the edges. Our earthen wares are particularly ſubject to this, and are always ſpoiled by it before any other flaw appears in them. Our ſtone wares eſcape it better than theſe; but not ſo well as the porcelain of China, which is leſs ſubject to it than any other manufacture in the world. The method by which the Chineſe defend their ware from this accident, is this: They carefully burn ſome ſmall bamboo canes to a ſort of charcoal, which is very light, and very black; this they reduce to a fine powder, and then mix it into a thin paſte, with ſome of the varniſh which they uſe for their ware; they next take the veſſels when dried, and not yet baked, to the wheel; and turning them ſoftly round, they, with a pencil dipt in this paſte, cover the whole circumference with a thin coat of it; after this, the veſſel is again dried; and the border made with this paſte appears of a pale grayiſh colour when it is thoroughly dry. They work on it afterwards in the common way, covering both this edge and the reſt of the veſſel with the common varniſh. When the whole is baked on, the colour given by the aſhes diſappears, and the edges are as white as any other part; only when the baking has not been ſufficient, or the edges have not been covered with the ſecond varniſhing, we ſometimes find a duſky edge, as in ſome of the ordinary thick tea-cups. It may be a great advantage to our Engliſh manufacturers to attempt ſomething of this kind. The willow is known to make a very light and black charcoal: but the elder, though a thing ſeldom uſed, greatly exceeds it. The young green ſhoots of this ſhrub, which are almoſt all pith, make the lighteſt and the blackeſt of all charcoal; this readily mixes with any liquid, and might be eaſily uſed in the ſame way that the Chineſe uſe the charcoal of the bamboo cane, which is a light hollow vegetable, more reſembling the elder ſhoots than any other Engliſh plant. It is no wonder that the fixed ſalt and oil contained in this charcoal ſhould be able to penetrate the yet raw edges of the ware, and to give them in the ſubſequent baking a ſomewhat different degree of vitrification from the other parts of the veſſel; which, though, if given to the whole, it

Chipping || Chiron.

it might take off from the true ſemivitrified ſtate of that ware, yet at the edges is not to be regarded, and only ſerves to defend them from common accidents, and keep them entire. The Chineſe uſe two cautions in this application: the firſt in the preparation; the ſecond in the laying it on. They prepare the bamboo canes for burning into charcoal, by peeling off the rind. This might eaſily be done with our elder ſhoots, which are ſo ſucculent, that the bark ſtrips off with a touch. The Chineſe ſay, that if this is not done with their bamboo, the edges touched with the paſte will burſt in the baking: this does not ſeem indeed very probable; but the charcoal will certainly be lighter made from the peeled ſticks, and this is a known advantage. The other caution is, never to touch the veſſel with hands that have any greaſy or fatty ſubſtance about them; for if this is done, they always find the veſſel crack in that place.

CHIROGRAPH, was anciently a deed which, requiring a counterpart, was engroſſed twice on the ſame piece of parchment, counterwiſe; leaving a ſpace between, wherein was written CHIROGRAPH; through the middle whereof the parchment was cut, ſometimes ſtraight, ſometimes indentedly; and a moiety given to each of the parties. This was afterwards called *dividenda*, and *chartæ diviſæ;* and was the ſame with what we now call *charter-party*. See *CHARTER-Party*. The firſt uſe of theſe chirographs, with us, was in the time of Henry III.

CHIROGRAPH was alſo anciently uſed for a fine; and the manner of engroſſing the fines, and cutting the parchment in two pieces, is ſtill retained in the office called the *chirographer's office*.

CHIROGRAPHER *of* FINES, an officer in the common pleas, who engroſſes fines acknowledged in that court into a perpetual record (after they have been examined, and paſſed by other officers), and writes and delivers the indentures thereof to the party. He makes two indentures; one for the buyer, the other for the ſeller; and a third indented piece, containing the effect of the fine, and called *the foot of the fine:* and delivers it to the *cuſtos brevium*.—The ſame officer alſo, or his deputy, proclaims all fines in court every term, and indorſes the proclamations on the backſide of the foot; keeping, withal, the writ of covenant, and the writ of fine.

CHIROMANCY, a ſpecies of divination drawn from the lines and lineaments of a perſon's hand, by which means, it is pretended, the diſpoſitions may be diſcovered. See DIVINATION, N° 9.

CHIRON, a famous perſonage of antiquity; ſtyled by Plutarch, in his dialogue on muſic, "*The wiſe Centaur.*" Sir Iſaac Newton places his birth in the firſt age after Deucalion's deluge, commonly called the *Golden Age*; and adds, that he formed the conſtellations for the uſe of the Argonauts, when he was 88 years old; for he was a practical aſtronomer, as well as his daughter Hippo: he may, therefore, be ſaid to have flouriſhed in the earlieſt ages of Greece, as he preceded the conqueſt of the Golden Fleece, and the Trojan war. He is generally called the ſon of Saturn and Phillyra; and is ſaid to have been born in Theſſaly among the CENTAURS, who were the firſt Greeks that had acquired the art of breaking and riding horſes: whence the poets, painters, and ſculptors, have repreſented them as a compound of man and horſe; and perhaps it was at firſt imagined by the Greeks, as well as the Americans, when they firſt ſaw cavalry, that the horſe and the rider conſtituted the ſame animal.

Chiron.

Chiron was repreſented by the ancients as one of the firſt inventors of medicine, botany, and *chirurgery;* a word which ſome etymologiſts have derived from his name. He inhabited a grotto or cave in the foot of Mount Pelion, which, from his wiſdom and great knowledge of all kinds, became the moſt famous and frequented ſchool throughout Greece. Almoſt all the heroes of his time were fond of receiving his inſtructions; and Xenophon, who enumerates them, names the following illuſtrious perſonages among his diſciples: Cephalus, Æſculapius, Melanion, Neſtor, Amphiaraus, Peleus, Telamon, Meleager, Theſeus, Hippolitus, Palamedes, Ulyſſes, Mneſtheus, Diomedes, Caſtor and Pollux, Machaon and Podalirius, Antilochus, Æneas, and Achilles. From this catalogue it appears, that Chiron frequently inſtructed both fathers and ſons; and Xenophon has given a ſhort eulogium on each, which may be read in his works, and which redounds to the honour of the preceptor. The Greek hiſtorian, however, has omitted naming ſeveral of his ſcholars, ſuch as Bacchus, Phœnix, Cocytus, Aryſtæus, Jaſon, and his ſon Medeus, Ajax, and Proteſilaus. Of theſe we ſhall only take notice of ſuch as intereſt Chiron more particularly. It is pretended that the Grecian Bacchus was the favourite ſcholar of the Centaur; and that he learned of this maſter the revels, orgies, bacchanalia, and other ceremonies of his worſhip. According to Plutarch, it was likewiſe at the ſchool of Chiron that Hercules ſtudied muſic, medicine, and juſtice; though Diodorus Siculus tells us, that Linus was the muſic-maſter of this hero. But among all the heroes who have been diſciples of this Centaur, no one reflected ſo much honour upon him as Achilles, whoſe renown he in ſome meaſure ſhared; and to whoſe education he in a particular manner attended, being his grandfather by the mother's ſide. Apollodorus tells us, that the ſtudy of muſic employed a conſiderable part of the time which he beſtowed upon his young pupil, as an incitement to virtuous actions, and a bridle to the impetuoſity of his temper. One of the beſt remains of antique painting now exiſting, is a picture upon this ſubject, dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, in which Chiron is teaching the young Achilles to play on the lyre. The death of this philoſophic muſician was occaſioned, at an extreme old age, by an accidental wound in the knee with a poiſoned arrow, ſhot by his ſcholar Hercules at another. He was placed after his death by Muſæus among the conſtellations, through reſpect for his virtues, and in gratitude for the great ſervices which he had rendered the people of Greece. Sir Iſaac Newton ſays *, in proof of the conſtellations being formed by Chiron and Muſæus for the uſe and honour of the Argonauts, that nothing later than the expedition was delineated on the ſphere: according to the ſame author, Chiron lived till after the Argonautic expedition, in which he had two grandſons. The ancients have not failed to attribute to him ſeveral writings; among which, according to Suidas, are *precepts*, υποθηκας, in verſe, compoſed for the uſe of Achilles; and a medicinal treatiſe

Burney's Hiſt. of Muſic.

* *Chronol.* p. 151.

tise on the *diseases incident to horses* and other quadrupeds, ἱππιατρικόν; the lexicographer even pretends, that it is from this work the Centaur derived his name. Fabricius gives a list of the works attributed to Chiron, and discusses the claims which have been made for others to the same writings: and in vol. xiii. he gives him a distinguished place in his catalogue of ancient physicians.

CHIRONIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHIRONOMY, in antiquity, the art of representing any past transaction by the gestures of the body, more especially by the motions of the hands: this made a part of liberal education; it had the approbation of Socrates, and was ranked by Plato among the political virtues.

CHIROTONY, among ecclesiastical writers, denotes the imposition of hands used in conferring priestly orders. However, it is proper to remark, that chirotony originally was a method of electing magistrates, by holding up the hands.

CHIRURGEON, or SURGEON. See SURGEON.

CHIRURGERY. See SURGERY.

CHISLEY-LAND, in *Agriculture*, a soil of a middle nature between sandy and clayey land, with a large admixture of pebbles.

CHISON, KISON, or KISSON, (Judges iv. and v.) a river of Galilee; said to rise in Mount Tabor, to run by the town of Naim, and to fall into the Mediterranean between Mount Carmel and Ptolemais, (1 Kings xviii. 40.).

CHISSEL, or CHISEL, an instrument much used in sculpture, masonry, joinery, carpentry, &c.

These are chissels of different kinds; though their chief difference lies in their different size and strength, as being all made of steel well sharpened and tempered: but they have different names, according to the different uses to which they are applied. The chissels used in carpentry and joinery are, 1. The former; which is used first of all before the parting chissel, and just after the work is scribed. 2. The paring chissel; which has a fine smooth edge, and is used to pare off or smooth the irregularities which the former makes. This is not struck with a mallet as the former is, but is pressed with the shoulder of the workman. 3. Skew-former: this is used for cleansing acute angles with the point or corner of its narrow edge. 4. The mortise-chissel; which is narrow, but very thick and strong, to endure hard blows, and it is cut to a very broad basil. Its use is to cut deep square holes in the wood for mortises. 5. The gouge, which is a chissel with a round edge; one side whereof serves to prepare the way for an augre, and the other to cut such wood as is to be rounded, hollowed, &c. 6. Socket-chissels, which are chiefly used by carpenters, &c. have their shank made with a hollow socket at top; to receive a strong wooden sprig, fitted into it with a shoulder. These chissels are distinguished, according to the breadth of the blade, into half-inch chissels, three quarters of an inch chissels, &c. 7. Ripping chissels; which is a socket-chissel of an inch broad, having a blunt edge, with no basil to it. Its use is to rip or tear two pieces of wood asunder, by forcing in the blunt edge between them.

CHITON, in *Zoology*, a genus of the order of vermes testaceæ. The name *chiton* is from χιτων, *lorica*, a coat of mail. The shell is plated, and consists of many parts lying upon each other transversely: the inhabitant is a species of the DORIS. See CONCHOLOGY *Index*.

CHITTIM, in *Ancient Geography*, according to Le Clerc, Calmet, and others, was the same with Macedonia, peopled by Kittim the son of Javan and grandson of Noah.

CHITTRICK'S MEDICINE FOR THE STONE. This medicine was some years ago kept as a secret, and had great reputation as a lithontriptic, which indeed it seems in many cases to deserve. It was discovered by Dr Blackrie to be no more than soap-lye; and the following receipt for using it was procured by General Dunbar: "Take one tea-spoonful of the strongest soap-lye, mixed in two table-spoonfuls of sweet milk, an hour before breakfast, and at going to bed. Before you take the medicine, take a sup of pure milk, and immediately after you have swallowed the medicine take another. If you find this agrees with you for two or three days, you may add half as much more to the dose."

1 Definition.

CHIVALRY, (from *cheval*, "a horse"); an abstract term, used to express the peculiar privileges, obligations, and turn of mind, with all the other distinguishing characteristics of that order of men who flourished in Europe in the dark ages, during the vigour of the feudal systems of government, under the name of *Knights* or *Knights Errant*.

2 Difficulty of tracing the origin of chivalry.

To ascertain the period at which the order sprung up, and the circumstances to which its origin was owing, is no easy task. In the history of society, such a multiplicity of collateral facts appear interwoven together, and causes and effects run into each other by a gradation so imperceptible, that it is exceedingly difficult, even for the nicest eye, to discern causes from their immediate effects, or to distinguish to which among a number of collateral circumstances the origin of any particular event is to be referred. The age to which we must look for the origin of chivalry was singularly rude and illiterate. Even the principal events of that period, emigrations, wars, and the establishment of systems of laws and forms of government, have been but imperfectly, and in many instances unfaithfully, recorded. But the transactions which took place in the ordinary course of civil and domestic life, and which, though less striking, must have always prepared the way for the more remarkable events, have been generally thought unworthy of transmission to posterity, and have very seldom found a historian. Add to these difficulties which oppose our researches on this subject, that the nations of Europe were in that age a mixed multitude, consisting of the aborinal inhabitants, who, though either subdued by the Roman arms, or at least compelled to retire to the woods and mountains, still obstinately retained their primitive manners and customs; Roman colonies, and such of the original inhabitants of the countries in which these were established, as had yielded not only to the arms of the Romans, but also to the influence of their laws, arts, and manners; and the barbarians, who proceeding from the northern regions of Asia and Europe, the wilds of Scythia and Germany, dissolved the fabric of the Roman empire, and made themselves lords of Europe. Amid this confusion of nations, institutions, and

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and customs, it becomes almost impossible to trace any regular series of causes and effects.

Yet as the history of that period is not entirely unknown to us, and the obscure and imperfect records in which it is preserved, while they commemorate the more remarkable events, throw a faint light on the customs, manners, and ordinary transactions of the age; we can at least collect some circumstances, which, if they did not of themselves give rise to the institution of chivalry, must certainly have co-operated with others to that end. We may even be allowed, if we proceed with due diffidence and caution, to deduce, from a consideration of the effect, some inferences concerning the cause; from those particulars of its history which are known to us, we may venture to carry imagination backwards, under a proper restraint, to those which are hid under the darkness of a rude and illiterate age.

3 Distinction of ranks an essential part of the mechanism of society.

Distinction of ranks appears to be essentially necessary to the existence of civil order. Even in the simplest and rudest social establishments, we find not merely the natural distinctions of weak and strong, young and old, parent and child, husband and wife; these are always accompanied with others which owe their institution to the invention of man, and the consent, either tacit or formal, of the society among whom they prevail. In peace and in war, such distinctions are equally necessary; they constitute an essential and important part of the mechanism of society.

4 The early pre-eminence of the military character.

One of the earliest artificial distinctions introduced among mankind, is that which separates the bold and skilful warrior from those whose feebleness of body and mind renders them unable to excel in dexterity, stratagem, or valour. Among rude nations, who are but imperfectly acquainted with the advantages of social order, this distinction is more remarkably eminent than in any other state of society. The ferocity of the human character in such a period produces almost continual hostilities among neighbouring tribes; the elements of nature, and the brute inhabitants of the forest, are not yet reduced to be subservient to the will of man; and these, with other concomitant circumstances, render the warrior, who is equally distinguished by cunning and valour, more useful and respectable than any other character.

5 Subordinate distinctions of rank introduced into society.

On the same principles, as the boundaries of society are enlarged, and its form becomes more complex, the classes into which it is already distinguished are again subdivided. The invention of arts, and the acquisition of property, are the chief causes of these new distinctions which now arise among the orders of society; and they extend their influence equally through the whole system. Difference of armour, and different modes of military discipline, produce distinction of orders among those who practise the arts of war; while other circumstances, originating from the same general causes, occasion similar changes to take place amidst the scenes of peace.

6 The distinction introduced into the military order by the use of cavalry.

None of the new distinctions which are introduced among men, with respect to the discipline and conduct of war, in consequence of the acquisition of property and the invention of arts, is more remarkable than that occasioned by the use of horses in military expeditions, and the training of them to the evolutions of the military art. Fire-arms, it is true, give to those who are acquainted with them a greater superiority over those to whom their use is unknown, than what the horseman possesses over him who fights on foot. But the use of fire-arms is of such importance in war, and the expence attending it so inconsiderable, that wherever these have been introduced, they have seldom been confined to one particular order in an army; and, therefore, they produced indeed a remarkable, though transient, distinction among different nations, but establish no permanent distinctions in the armies in any one nation. But to maintain a horse, to equip him with costly furniture, to manage him with dexterity and vigour, are circumstances which have invariably produced a standing and conspicuous distinction among the military order, wherever bodies of cavalry have been formed. The Roman *equites*, who, though they became at length a body of usurers and farmers-general, were originally the only body of cavalry employed by the state, occupied a respectable rank between the senators and the plebeians; and the elegance and humanity of their manners were suitable to their rank. In ancient Greece, and in the celebrated monarchies of Asia, the same distinction prevailed at a similar period.

7 Military distinctions among the ancient Germans.

Since the circumstances and principles on which this distinction depends are not such as must be confined in their influence to one particular nation, or one region of the globe, we may hope to trace their effects among the savage warriors of Scythia and Germany, as well as among the Greeks or Romans. From the valuable treatise of Tacitus *de Moribus Germanorum*, we learn that, among the German warriors, a distinction somewhat of this nature, *did* actually subsist; not so much indeed a distinction between the warrior who fought on horseback and those who fought on foot, as between those whom vigour of body and energy of mind enabled to brave all the dangers of war, and such as, from the imbecility of youth, the infirmities of age, or the natural inferiority of their mental and bodily powers, were unequal to scenes of hardship and deeds of valour. The youth was not permitted to take arms and join his warlike countrymen in their military expeditions whenever he himself thought proper: there was a certain age before which he could not be invested with armour. When he had attained that period, if not found deficient in strength, activity, or courage, he was formally honoured with the shield and the lance, called to the duties, and admitted to all the privileges of a warrior.

8 Respectability of the women among the Germans.

Another fact worthy of notice, respecting the manners of the barbarians of Germany before they established themselves in the cultivated provinces of the Roman empire, is, that their women, contrary to what we find among many other rude nations, were treated with a high degree of respect. They did not generally vie with the men in deeds of valour, but they animated them by their exhortations to distinguish themselves in the field; and virgins especially were considered with a sacred veneration, as endowed with prophetic powers, capable of foreseeing events hid in the womb of futurity, and even of influencing the will of the deities. Hence, though domestic duties were their peculiar province, yet they were not harshly treated nor confined to a state of slavery. There appears indeed a striking analogy between the condition of the women among

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among the rude ſoldiers of Sparta and the rank which they occupied among the warlike cantons of Germany. Perhaps indeed the German were ſtill more honourable than the Spartan women; as they were taught to wield the magic weapons of ſuperſtition, which in Greece were appropriated to the prieſts.

It appears, therefore, that in the foreſts of Germany at leaſt, if not the more northern regions of Aſia and Europe, the conquerors of the Roman empire, before they penetrated into its provinces, treated their women with a degree of reſpect unknown to moſt of the nations of antiquity; that the character of the warrior was likewiſe highly honourable, being underſtood to unite all thoſe qualities which were in the higheſt eſtimation; and that it was only at a particular age, and with certain forms, that the youth were admitted to bear arms.

9 Changes in the manners of the barbarians after they ſettled in the Roman empire, which gave riſe to chivalry.

When thoſe nations ſallied from their deſerts and foreſts, overran the Roman empire, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in its provinces, the changes which took place in their circumſtances were remarkable; and by a natural influence it could not but produce an equally remarkable change in their habits, cuſtoms, and manners. The great outlines might ſtill remain: but they could not now fail to be filled up in a different manner. Here, however, the records of hiſtory are peculiarly imperfect. We have no Cæſar or Tacitus to ſupply facts or direct our reaſonings; the Gothic nations had not yet learned to read and write; and the Romans were ſo depreſſed under a ſenſe of their own miſeries, as to be negligent of the changes which happened around them. But as ſoon as the light of hiſtory begins again to dawn, we find that the leading features of the barbarian character were not effaced, but only modified in a particular manner, in conſequence of their mixing among a more poliſhed people, becoming acquainted with the luxuries of life, and acquiring extenſive power and property.

Thoſe who fought on horſeback now began to be diſtinguiſhed with peculiar honours. The manners of the warrior too were become more cultivated, and his ſpirit more humane. Leiſure and opulence, with the influence of a poliſhed people, even though in a ſtate of ſlavery, taught thoſe barbarians to aſpire after more refined pleaſures and more ſplendid amuſements than thoſe with which they had been before ſatisfied. The influence of Chriſtianity, too, which, though groſsly corrupted, was ſtill favourable to the ſocial happineſs of mankind, concurred to poliſh their manners and exalt their character. Hence in the end of the tenth and in the beginning of the eleventh century, we ſee knight-errantry, with that romantic gallantry, piety, and humanity, by which it was principally diſtinguiſhed, make its appearance. At the court of every prince, count, or baron, jouſts and tournaments became the favourite amuſements. At thoſe entertainments, ſkill in arms, devotion to the fair, and generous courteſy, were all at once cultivated. About this period began the cruſades; and theſe, to which alone ſome have referred the origin of chivalry, though they could not give riſe to what was already in exiſtence, yet moulded the form and directed the ſpirit of the inſtitution in ſuch a manner, as to raiſe it, by a rapid progreſs from infancy, as it were, to full vigour and maturity. Its character, as it appeared when fully formed, is well deſcribed by an eloquent hiſtorian in the following manner:

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"Between the age of Charlemagne and that of the cruſades, a revolution had taken place among the Spaniards, the Normans, and the French, which was gradually extended to the reſt of Europe. The ſervice of the infantry was degraded to the plebeians; the cavalry formed the ſtrength of the armies, and the honourable name of *miles*, or ſoldier, was confined to the gentlemen who ſerved on horſeback, and were inveſted with the character of knighthood. The dukes and counts, who had uſurped the rights of ſovereignty, divided the provinces among their faithful barons: the barons diſtributed among their vaſſals their fiefs or benefices of their juriſdiction; and theſe military tenants, the peers of each other and of their lord, compoſed the noble or equeſtrian order, which diſdained to conceive the peaſant or burgher as of the ſame ſpecies with themſelves. The dignity of their birth was preſerved by pure and equal alliances; their ſons alone who could produce four quarters or lines of anceſtry, without ſpot or reproach, might legally pretend to the honour of knighthood; but a valiant plebeian was ſometimes enriched and ennobled by the ſword, and became the father of a new race. A ſingle knight could impart, according to his judgment, the character which he received; and the warlike ſovereigns of Europe derived more glory from this perſonal diſtinction than from the luſtre of their diadem. This ceremony was in its own origin ſimple and profane; the candidate, after ſome previous trial, was inveſted with his ſword and ſpurs; and his cheek or ſhoulder was touched with a ſlight blow, as an emblem of the laſt affront which it was lawful for him to endure. But ſuperſtition mingled in every public and private action of life: In the holy wars, it ſanctified the profeſſion of arms; and the order of chivalry was aſſimilated in its rights and privileges to the ſacred orders of prieſthood. The bath and white garment of the novice were an indecent copy of the regeneration of baptiſm: his ſword, which he offered on the altar, was bleſſed by the miniſters of religion; his ſolemn reception was preceded by faſts and vigils; and he was created a knight in the name of God, of St George, and of St Michael the archangel. He ſwore to accompliſh the duties of his profeſſion; and education, example, and the public opinion were the inviolable guardians of his oath. As the champion of God and the ladies, he devoted himſelf to ſpeak the truth; to maintain the right, to protect the diſtreſſed; to practiſe *courteſy*, a virtue leſs familiar to the ancients; to purſue the infidels; to deſpiſe the allurements of eaſe and ſafety; and to vindicate in every perilous adventure the honour of his character. The abuſe of the ſame ſpirit provoked the illiterate knight to diſdain the arts of induſtry and peace; to eſteem himſelf the ſole judge and avenger of his own injuries; and proudly to neglect the laws of civil ſociety and military diſcipline. Yet the benefits of this inſtitution, to refine the temper of barbarians, and to infuſe ſome principles of faith, juſtice, and humanity, were ſtrongly felt, and have been often obſerved. The aſperity of national prejudice was ſoftened; and the community of religion and arms ſpread a ſimilar colour and generous emulation over the face of Chriſtendom. Abroad, in enterpriſe and pilgrimage;

Gibbon, vol. vi. p. 26.

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pilgrimage; at home, in martial exercise, the warriors of every country were perpetually associated; and impartial taste must prefer a Gothic tournament to the Olympic games of classic antiquity. Instead of the naked spectacles which corrupted the manners of the Greeks, and banished from the stadium the virgins and matrons, the pompous decoration of the lists was crowned with the presence of the chaste and high-born beauty, from whose hands the conqueror received the prize of his dexterity and courage. The skill and strength that were exerted in wrestling and boxing bear a distant and doubtful relation to the merit of a soldier; but the tournaments, as they were invented in France, and eagerly adopted both in the east and west, presented a lively image of the business of the field. The single combat, the general skirmish, the defence of a pass or castle, were rehearsed as in actual service; and the contest, both in real and mimic war, was decided by the superior management of the horse and lance. The lance was the proper and peculiar weapon of the knight: his horse was of a large and heavy breed; but this charger, till he was roused by the approaching danger, was usually led by an attendant, and he quietly rod a pad or palfrey of a more easy pace. His helmet and sword, his greaves and buckler, it would be superfluous to describe; but I may remark, that at the period of the crusades, the armour was less ponderous than in later times; and that, instead of a massy cuirass, his breast was defended by a hauberk or coat of mail. When their long lances were fixed in the rest, the warriors furiously spurred their horses against the foe; and the light cavalry of the Turks and Arabs could seldom stand against the direct and impetuous weight of their charge. Each knight was attended to the field by his faithful squire, a youth of equal birth and similar hopes; he was followed by his archers and men at arms; and four, or five, or six soldiers, were computed as the furniture of a complete *lance*. In the expeditions to the neighbouring kingdoms or the Holy Land, the duties of the feudal tenure no longer subsisted; the voluntary service of the knights and their followers was either prompted by zeal or attachment, or purchased with rewards and promises; and the numbers of each squadron were measured by the power, the wealth, and the fame of each independent chieftain. They were distinguished by his banner, his armorial coat, and his cry of war: and the most ancient families of Europe must seek in these atchievements the origin and proof of their nobility."

The respectable author of the Letters on Chivalry and Romance, traces, with great ingenuity and erudition, a strong resemblance between the manners of the age of chivalry and those of the old heroic ages delineated by Homer.

10 The resemblance between heroic and Gothic manners.

There is, says he, a remarkable correspondence between the manners of the old heroic times, as painted by their great romancer Homer, and those which are represented to us in the modern books of knight-errantry. A fact of which no good account can be given, but by another not less certain; that the political state of Greece, in the earliest periods of its story, was similar in many respects to that of Europe, as broken by the feudal system into an infinite number of petty independent governments.

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Some obvious circumstances of agreement between the heroic and Gothic manners may be worth putting down.

1. The military enthusiasm of the barons is but of a piece with the fanaticism of the heroes. Hence the same particularity of description in the accounts of battles, wounds, deaths, in the Greek poet as in the Gothic romancers. Hence the minute curiosity in the display of their dresses, arms, accoutrements. The minds of all men being occupied with warlike images and ideas, were much gratified by those details, which appear cold and unaffecting to modern readers.

We hear much of knights errant encountering giants and quelling savages in books of chivalry. These giants were oppressive feudal lords; and every lord was to be met with, like the giant, in his strong-hold or castle. Their dependents of a lower form, who imitated the violence of their superiors, and had not their castles but lurking places, were the savages of romance. The greater lord was called a giant for his power; the less, a savage for his brutality.

2. Another terror of the Gothic ages was monsters, dragons, and serpents. Their stories were received in those days for several reasons: 1. From the vulgar belief of enchantments: 2. From their being reported on the faith of eastern tradition, by adventurers from the Holy Land: 3. In still later times, from the strange things told and believed on the discovery of the new world.

In all these respects, Greek antiquity resembles the Gothic. For what are Homer's Læstrigons and Cyclops, but bands of lawless savages, with each of them a giant of enormous size at their head? And what are the Grecian Bacchus, Hercules, and Theseus, but knights-errant, the exact counterparts of Sir Launcelot and Amadis de Gaul?

3. The oppressions which it was the glory of the knights to avenge, were frequently carried on, as we are told, by the *charms and enchantments of women*. These charms, we may suppose, are often metaphorical; as expressing only the blandishments of the sex. Sometimes they are taken to be real, the ignorance of those ages acquiescing in such conceits. And are not those stories matched by those of Calypso and Circe, the enchantresses of the Greek poet?

4. Robbery and piracy were honourable in both: so far were they from reflecting any discredit on the ancient or modern *redressers of wrongs*. What account can be given of this, but that, in the feudal times, and in the early days of Greece, when government was weak, and unable to redress the injuries of petty sovereigns, it would be glorious for private adventurers to undertake this work; and, if they could accomplish it in no other way, to pay them in kind by downright plunder and rapine?

5. Bastardy was in credit with both. They were extremely watchful over the chastity of their own women; but such as they could seize upon in the enemy's quarter, were lawful prize. Or if, at any time, they transgressed in this sort at home, the fault was covered by an ingenious fiction. The offspring was reputed divine. Their greater heroes were the fruit of goddesses approached by mortals; just as we hear of the doughtiest knights being born of fairies.

6. With the greatest fierceness and savageness of character, the utmost generosity, hospitality, and courtesy,

tesy, were imputed to the heroic ages. Achilles was at once the most relentless, vindictive, implacable, and the friendliest of men. We have the very same representation in the Gothic romances. As in those lawless times, dangers and distresses of all kinds abounded, there would be the same demand for compassion, gentleness, and generous attachment to the unfortunate, those especially of their own clan, as of resentment, rage, and animosity against their enemies.

7. Again, the martial games celebrated in ancient Greece, on great and solemn occasions, had the same origin and the same purpose as the tournaments of the Gothic warriors.

8. Lastly, the passion for adventures so natural in their situation, would be as naturally attended with the love of praise and glory. Hence the same encouragement, in the old Greek and Gothic times, to panegyrists and poets. In the affairs of religion and gallantry, indeed, the resemblance between the hero and the knight is not so striking. But the religious character of the knight was an accident of the times, and no proper effect of his civil condition. And that his devotion for the fair sex should so far surpass that of the hero, is a confirmation of the system here advanced. For the consideration had of the females in the feudal constitution, will of itself account for this deference. It made them capable of succeeding to fiefs, as well as the men. And does not one instantly perceive what respect and dependence this privilege would draw upon them?

It was of great consequence who should obtain the favour of a rich heiress. And though, in the strict feudal times, she was supposed to be in the power and at the disposal of her superior lord, yet this rigid state of things did not last long. Hence we find some distressed damsel was the spring and mover of every knight's adventure. She was to be rescued by his arms, or won by the fame and admiration of his prowess. The plain meaning of all which was this: That as, in these turbulent times, a protector was necessary to the weakness of the sex, so the courteous and valorous knight was to approve himself fully qualified for that purpose.

It may be observed, that the two poems of Homer were intended to expose the mischiefs and inconveniences arising from the political state of Old Greece: the *Iliad*, the dissensions that naturally sprung up among independent chiefs; and the *Odyssey*, the insolence of their greater subjects, more especially when unrestrained by the presence of their sovereign. And can any thing more exactly resemble the condition of the feudal times, when, on occasion of any great enterprise, as that of the crusades, the designs of the confederate Christian states were perpetually frustrated, or interrupted at least, by the dissensions of their leaders; and their affairs at home, as perpetually distressed and disordered by the rebellious usurpations of their greater vassals? Jerusalem was to the European what Troy had been to the Grecian princes. See the article KNIGHT.

CHIVALRY, in *Law*, is used for a tenure of lands by knight's service, whereby the knight was bound to perform service in war unto the king, or the mesne lord of whom he held by that tenure. And chivalry was either general or special: *general*, when it was only in the feoffment that the tenant held *per servitium militare*, without any specification of sergeantry, escuage, &c.; *special*, when it was declared particularly by what kind of knight service the land was held.

For the better understanding of this tenure it hath been observed, that there is no land but is holden mediately or immediately of the crown by some service; and therefore all freeholds that are to us and our heirs, are called *feuda* or *feoda*, "fees;" as proceeding from the king for some small yearly rent, and the performance of such services as were originally laid upon the land at the donation thereof. For as the king gave to the great nobles, his immediate tenants, large possessions for ever, to hold of him for this or that service or rent; so they in time parcelled out to such others as they liked the same lands for rents and services as they thought good; and these services were by Littleton divided into two kinds, *chivalry* and *socage*; the first whereof was martial and military, the other rustical. Chivalry, therefore, was a tenure of service, whereby the tenant was obliged to perform some noble or military office unto his lord: and it was of two kinds; either *regal*, that is, held only of the king; or *common*, where held of a common person. That which might be held only of the king was called *servitium*, or *sergentia*; and was again divided into *grand* and *petit* serjeantry. The grand serjeantry was where one held lands of the king by service, which he ought to do in his own person: as, to bear the king's banner or spear, to lead his host, to find men at arms to fight, &c. Petit serjeantry was when a man held lands of the king, to yield him annually some small thing towards his wars, as a sword, dagger, bow, &c. Chivalry that might be holden of a common person was termed *scutagium*, "escuage;" that is, service of the shield; which was either uncertain or certain."

Escuage uncertain, was likewise two-fold: first, where the tenant was bound to follow his lord, going in person to the king's wars, either himself, or sending a sufficient man in his place, there to be maintained at his expence, so long as was agreed upon between the lord and his first tenant at the granting of the fee; and the days of such service seem to have been rated by the quantity of land so holden; as, if it extended to a whole knight's fee, then the tenant was to follow his lord 40 days; and if but to half a knight's fee, then 20 days; if a fourth part, then ten days, &c. The other kind of this escuage was called *castle ward*, where the tenant was obliged, by himself, or some other, to defend a castle as often as it should come to his turn. And these were called *escuage uncertain*; because it was uncertain how often a man should be called to follow his lord to the wars, or to defend a castle, and what his charge would be therein.

Escuage certain, was where the tenure was set at a certain sum of money to be paid in lieu of such service; as that a man should pay yearly for every knight's fee 20s. for half a knight's fee 10s. or some like rate; and this service, because it is drawn to a certain rent, groweth to be of a mixed nature, not merely socage, and yet socage in effect, being now neither personal service nor uncertain. The tenure called chivalry had other conditions annexed to it: but there is a great alteration made in these things by the stat. 12 Car. II. c. 24. whereby tenures by knight's service of the king,

or any other perſon *in capite*, &c. and the fruits and conſequences thereof, are taken away and diſcharged; and all tenures are to be conſtrued and adjudged to be free and common ſoccage, &c.

Court of CHIVALRY, a court formerly held before the lord high conſtable and earl marſhal of England jointly, and having both civil and criminal juriſdiction; but ſince the attainder of Stafford duke of Buckingham under Henry VIII. and the conſequent extinguiſhment of the office of lord high conſtable, it hath uſually, with reſpect to civil matters, been heard before the earl marſhal only. This court, by ſtat. 13. Rich. II. c. 2. hath cognizance of contracts and other matters touching deeds of arms and war, as well out of the realm as in it. And from its ſentences lies an immediate appeal to the king in perſon. This court was in great reputation in the times of pure chivalry; and afterwards during the Engliſh connexions with the continent, by the territories which their princes held in France; but it is now grown almoſt entirely out of uſe, on account of the feebleneſs of its juriſdiction, and want of power to enforce its judgments; as it can neither fine nor impriſon, not being a court of record.

1. The *civil* juriſdiction of this court of chivalry is principally in two points; the redreſſing injuries of honour, and correcting encroachments in matters of coat-armour, precedency, and other diſtinctions of families. As a court of honour, it is to give ſatisfaction to all ſuch as are aggrieved in that point; a point of a nature ſo nice and delicate, that its wrongs and injuries eſcape the notice of the common law, and yet are fit to be redreſſed ſomewhere. Such, for inſtance, as calling a man *coward*, or giving him the lie; for which, as they are productive of no immediate damage to his perſon or property, no action will lie in the courts at Weſtminſter; and yet they are ſuch injuries as will prompt every man of ſpirit to demand ſome honourable amends; which, by the ancient law of the land, was given in the court of chivalry. But modern reſolutions have determined, that how much ſoever a juriſdiction may be expedient, yet no action for words will at preſent lie therein. And it hath always been moſt clearly holden, that as this court cannot meddle with any thing determinable by common law, it therefore can give no pecuniary ſatisfaction or damages; inaſmuch as the quantity and determination thereof is ever of common law cognizance. And therefore this court of chivalry can at moſt order reparation in point of honour; as to compel the defendant *mendacium ſibi ipſi imponere*, or to take the lie that he has given upon himſelf, or to make ſuch other ſubmiſſion as the laws of honour may require. As to the other point of its civil juriſdiction, the redreſſing of uſurpations and encroachments in matters of heraldry and coat-armour; it is the buſineſs of this court, according to Sir Matthew Hale, to adjuſt the right and armorial enſigns, bearings, creſts, ſupporters, pennons, &c.; and alſo rights of places or precedence, where the king's patent or act of parliament, which cannot be overruled by this court, have not already determined it. The proceedings of this court are by petition in a ſummary way; and the trial not by a jury of 12 men, but by witneſſes, or by combat. But as it cannot impriſon, not being a court of record; and as, by the reſolutions of the ſuperior courts, it is now confined to ſo narrow and reſtrained a juriſdiction, it has fallen into contempt. The marſhalling of coat-armour, which was formerly the pride and ſtudy of all the beſt families in the kingdom, is now greatly diſregarded; and has fallen into the hands of certain officers and attendants upon this court, called *heralds*, who conſider it only as a matter of lucre, and not of juſtice; whereby ſuch falſity and confuſion have crept into their records (which ought to be the ſtanding evidence of families, deſcents, and coat-armour), that though formerly ſome credit has been paid to their teſtimony, now even their common ſeal will not be received as evidence in any court of juſtice in the kingdom. But their original viſitation books, compiled when progreſſes were ſolemnly and regularly made in every part of the kingdom, to inquire into the ſtate of families, and to regiſter ſuch marriages and deſcents as were verified to them upon oath, are allowed to be good evidence of pedigrees.

2. As a *criminal* court, when held before the lord high conſtable of England jointly with the earl marſhal, it had juriſdiction over pleas of life and member, ariſing in matters of arms and deeds of war, as well out of the realm as within it. But the criminal as well as civil part of its authority is fallen into entire diſuſe, there having been no permanent high conſtable of England (but only *pro hac vice*, at coronations and the like), ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the 13th year of Henry VIII.; the authority and charge, both in war and peace, being deemed too ample for a ſubject; ſo ample, that when the chief juſtice Fineux was aſked by King Henry VIII. how far they extended? he declined anſwering, and ſaid, the deciſion of that queſtion belonged to the law of arms, and not to the law of England.

CHIVES, or STAMINA, in *Botany*, are ſlender thread-like ſubſtances, generally placed within the bloſſom, and ſurrounding the POINTAL, or PISTILLUM. They are formed of the woody ſubſtance of the plant.

CHIUM MARMOR, in the natural hiſtory of the ancients, the name of a black marble, called alſo the *lapis obſidianus*. It is very hard, and of a fine black; and, beſide the many uſes which the ancients put it to, is well known among our goldſmiths by the name of the *touchſtone*; moſt of them being furniſhed with nothing better for this purpoſe than a piece of this: though the baſaltes, which may be had plentifully enough, is greatly preferable for thoſe uſes; any black marble, however, that is tolerably hard, will do. There is a very fine and elegantly ſmooth marble, of a compact texture, and fine gloſſy black, but ſhowing no glittering particles when freſh broken, as moſt of the black marbles do. It is extremely hard, and cuts with difficulty, but is capable of the higheſt poliſh of any marble. The ancients had it from Ethiopia and the iſland of Chios; we have it from Italy.

CHIUM Vinum, *Chian Wine*, or wine of the growth of the iſland of Chios, now Scio, is commended by Dioſcorides as affording good nouriſhment, fit to drink, leſs diſpoſed to intoxicate, endued with the virtue of reſtraining defluxions, and a proper ingredient in ophthalmic

thalmic medicines. Hence Scribonius Largus directs the dry ingredients in collyria for the eyes to be made up with Chian wine.

CHIUN, or CHEVAN, in Hebrew antiquity. We meet with this word in the prophet Amos, cited in the Acts of the Apostles. St Luke reads the passage thus: "Ye took up the tabernacle of Moloch, and the star of your god Remphan, figures which ye made to worship them." The import of the Hebrew is as follows: "Ye have borne the tabernacle of your kings, and the pedestal (the *chiun*) of your images, the star of your gods, which ye made to yourselves." The Septuagint in all probability read *Repham* or *Revan*, instead of *Chiun* or *Chevan*, and took the pedestal for a god.

Some say that the Septuagint, who made their translation in Egypt, changed the word *Chiun* into that of *Remphan*, because they had the same signification. M. Basnage, in his book entitled *Jewish Antiquities*, after having discoursed a good deal upon *Chion*, or *Remphan*, concludes that Moloch was the sun, and *Chion*, *Chiun*, or *Remphan*, the moon.

CHLAMYS, in antiquity, a military habit worn by the ancients over the tunica. It belonged to the patricians, and was the same in the time of war that the toga was in the time of peace. This sort of gown was called *picta*, from the rich embroidery with figures in Phrygian work; and *purpurea*, because the groundwork was purple. The chlamydes of the emperors were all purple, adorned with a golden and embroidered border.

CHLOEIA, in antiquity, a festival celebrated at Athens in honour of Ceres, to whom, under the name χλοη, *i. e. grass*, they sacrificed a ram.

CHLORA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHLOROSIS, in *Medicine*, a disease, commonly called the *green sickness*, incident to young girls. See *MEDICINE Index*.

CHOCOLATE, in commerce, a kind of paste or cake prepared of certain ingredients, the basis of which is cacao. See CACAO.

The Indians, in their first making of chocolate, used to roast the cacao in earthen pots; and having afterwards cleared it of the husks, and bruised it between two stones, they made it into cakes with their hands. The Spaniards improved this method. When the cacao is properly roasted and well cleaned, they pound it in a mortar, to reduce it into a coarse mass, which they afterwards grind on a stone till it be of the utmost fineness: the paste being sufficiently ground, is put quite hot into tin moulds, in which it congeals in a very little time. The form of these moulds is arbitrary; the cylindrical ones, holding two or three pounds, are the most proper, because the bigger the cakes are, the longer they will keep. Observe, that these cakes are very liable to take any good or bad scent, and therefore they must be carefully wrapt up in paper, and kept in a dry place. Complaints are made, that the Spaniards mix with the cacao nuts too great a quantity of cloves and cinnamon, besides other drugs without number, as musk, ambergris, &c. The grocers of Paris use few or none of these ingredients; they only choose the best nuts, which are called *caracca*, from the place from whence they are brought; and with these they mix a very small quantity of cinnamon, the freshest vanilla, and the finest sugar, but very seldom any cloves. In England the chocolate is made of the simple cacao, excepting that sometimes sugar and sometimes vanilla is added.

Chocolate ready made, and cacao paste, are prohibited to be imported from any part beyond the seas. If made and sold in Great Britain, it pays inland duty 1s. 6d. per lb. avoirdupoise: it must be inclosed in papers containing one pound each, and produced at the excise office to be stamped. Upon three days notice given to the officer of excise, private families may make chocolate for their own use, provided no less than half an hundred weight of nuts be made at one time.

The chocolate made in Portugal and Spain is not near so well prepared as the English, depending perhaps on the machine employed there, viz. the double cylinder, which seems very well calculated for exact triture. If perfectly prepared, no oil appears on the solution. London chocolate gives up no oil like the foreign; and it also may in some measure depend on the thickness of the preparation. The solution requires more care than is commonly imagined. It is proper to break it down, and dissolve it thoroughly in cold water by milling it with the chocolate stick. If heat is applied, it should be done slowly; for, if suddenly the heat will not only coagulate it, but separate the oil; and therefore much boiling after it is dissolved is hurtful. Chocolate is commonly required by people of weak stomachs; but often rejected for want of proper preparation. When properly prepared, it is easily dissolved; and an excellent food where a liquid nutrient vegetable one is required, and is less flatulent than any of the farinacea.

Mr Henley, an ingenious electrician, has lately discovered that chocolate, fresh from the mill, as it cools in the tin pans into which it is received, becomes strongly electrical; and that it retains this property for some time after it has been turned out of the pans, but soon loses it by handling. The power may be once or twice renewed by melting it again in an iron ladle, and pouring it into the tin pans as at first; but when it becomes dry and powdery, the power is not capable of being revived by simple melting: but if a small quantity of olive-oil be added, and well mixed with the chocolate in the ladle, its electricity will be completely restored by cooling it in the tin-pan as before. From this experiment he conjectures, that there is a great affinity between carbonic acid and the electric fluid, if indeed they be not the same thing.

CHOCOLATE Nut-Tree. See CACAO.

CHOENIX, χοινιξ, an ancient dry measure, containing the 48th part of a *medimnus*, or six bushels.

CHOERILUS, a tragic poet of Athens about the 64th Olympiad. He wrote 150 tragedies, of which 13 had obtained the prize.—An historian of Samos.—Two other poets, one of whom was very intimate with Herodotus. He wrote a poem on the victory which the Athenians had obtained over Xerxes; and on account of the excellence of the composition he received a piece of gold for each verse from the Athenians. The other was one of Alexander's flatterers and friends.

CHOERINÆ,

CHOERINÆ, in antiquity, a kind of ſea-ſhells, with which the ancient Greeks uſed to give their ſuffrage, or vote.

CHOIR, that part of the church or cathedral where choriſters ſing divine ſervice; it is ſeparated from the chancel where the communion is celebrated, and alſo from the nave of the church where the people are placed: the patron is ſaid to be obliged to repair the choir of the church. It was in the time of Conſtantine that the choir was ſeparated from the nave. In the 12th century they began to encloſe it with walls; but the ancient balluſtrades have been ſince reſtored, out of a view to the beauty of architecture.

CHOIR, in nunneries, is a large hall adjoining to the body of the church, ſeparated by a grate, where the nuns ſing the office.

CHOISI, FRANCIS TIMOLEON DE, dean of the cathedral of Bayeux, and one of the forty of the French academy, was born at Paris in 1644. In the early part of his life he was much diſtinguiſhed by his frivolous manners, and particularly by appearing even at court in a female dreſs. In 1685 he was ſent with the chevalier de Chaumont to the king of Siam, and was ordained prieſt in the Indies by the apoſtolical vicar. He wrote a great number of works, in a polite, florid, and eaſy ſtyle; the principal of which are, 1. Four Dialogues on the Immortality of the Soul, &c. 2. Account of a voyage to Siam. 3. An Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, in 11 vols. 4to. 4. Life of David, with an Interpretation of the Pſalms. 5. Life of Solomon, &c. He died at Paris in 1724.

CHOLEDOCHUS, in *Anatomy*, a term applied to a canal, or duct, called alſo *ductus communis;* formed of the union of the porus biliarus and ductus cyſticus. The word comes from χολη, *choler:* and δεχομαι, *I receive*, or *contain*.

The choledochus ductus, paſſing obliquely to the lower end of the duodenum, ſerves to convey the bile from the liver to the inteſtines. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CHOLER. See BILE.

CHOLERA MORBUS, a ſudden eruption or overflowing of the bile or bilious matters both upwards and downwards. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CHOMER, or OMER. See CORUS.

CHONDRILLA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHONDROPTERYGII, in *Ichthyology*, a term formerly applied to the order of fiſhes now called *amphibia nantes* by Linnæus. See AMPHIBIA.

CHOP-CHURCH, or CHURCH-CHOPPER, a name, or rather a nick-name, give to parſons who make a practice of exchanging benefices. See PERMUTATION.

Chop-church occurs in an ancient ſtatute as a lawful trade or occupation; and ſome of the judges ſay it was a good addition. Brook holds, that it was no occupation, but a thing permiſſible by law.

CHOPIN, or CHOPINE, a liquid meaſure uſed both in Scotland and France, and equal to half their pint. See PINT and MEASURE.

CHOPINE, *Rene*, a famous civilian born at Bailleul in Anjou in 1537. He was advocate in the parliament of Paris, where he pleaded for a long time with great reputation. He at laſt ſhut himſelf up in his cloſet, and compoſed many works, which have been collected together, and printed in 6 vols. folio. He died at Paris in 1606.

CHORAL, ſignifies any perſon that, by virtue of any of the orders of the clergy, was in ancient times admitted to ſit and ſerve God in the choir.

Dugdale, in his hiſtory of St Paul's church, ſays, that there were with the chorus formerly ſix vicars choral belonging to that church.

CHORASSAN, or KHORASSAN, a province of Perſia, adjoining to Uſbec Tartary. This was the ancient Bactria, and the birth-place of Kouli-Khan.

CHORAX, or CHARAX. See CHARACENE.

CHORAZIM, or CHORAZIN, (Luke, Matthew), a town of Galilee, whoſe wretched incredulity Chriſt deplores; now deſolate, at two miles diſtance from Capernaum.

CHORD, or CORD, primarily denotes a ſlender rope or cordage*. The word is formed of the Latin, *chorda*, and that from the Greek, χορδη, *a gut*, whereof ſtrings may be made.

* See *Cordage*.

CHORD, in *Geometry*, a right line drawn from one part of an arch of a circle to another. Hence,

CHORD of an Arch, is a right line joining the extremes of that arch.

CHORD, in *Muſic*, the union of two or more ſounds uttered at the ſame time, and forming together an entire harmony.

The natural harmony produced by the reſonance of a ſounding body, is compoſed of three different ſounds, without reckoning their octaves; which form among themſelves the moſt agreeable and perfect chord that can poſſibly be heard: for which reaſon they are called, on account of their excellence, *perfect chords*. Hence, in order to render that harmony complete, it is neceſſary that each chord ſhould at leaſt conſiſt of three ſounds. The trio is likewiſe found by muſicians to include the perfection of harmony; whether becauſe in this all the chords, and each in its full perfection, are uſed; or, becauſe upon ſuch occaſions as render it improper to uſe them all, and each in its integrity, arts have been ſucceſsfully practiſed to deceive the ear, and to give it contrary perſuaſion, by deluding it with the principal ſounds of each *chord*, in ſuch a manner as to render it forgetful of the other ſounds neceſſary to their completion. Yet the octave of the principal ſound produces new relations, and new conſonances, by the completion of the intervals: they commonly add this octave, to have the aſſemblage of all the conſonances in one and the ſame *chord;* (See CONSONANCE). Moreover, the addition of the diſſonance (See DISCORD), producing a fourth ſound ſuperadded to the perfect chord, it becomes indiſpenſably neceſſary, if we would render the chord full, that we ſhould include a fourth part to expreſs this diſſonance. Thus, the ſeries of chords can neither be complete nor connected but by means of four parts.

Chords are divided into perfect and imperfect. The *perfect chord* is that which we have lately deſcribed; which is compoſed of the fundamental ſound below, of its third, its fifth, and its octave: they are likewiſe ſubdivided into major and minor, according as the thirds which enter into their compoſition are flat or ſharp: (See INTERVAL). Some authors likewiſe give the

Chords. the name of *perfect* to all chords, even to diſſonances, whoſe fundamental ſounds are below. Imperfect *chords* are thoſe in which the ſixth, inſtead of the fifth, prevails, and in general all thoſe whoſe loweſt are not their fundamental ſounds. Theſe denominations, which had been given before the fundamental baſs was known, are now moſt unhappily applied: thoſe of chords *direct* and *reverſed* are much more ſuitable in the ſame ſenſe.

Chords are once more divided into conſonances and diſſonances. The chords denominated *conſonances*, are the perfect chord, and its derivatives; every other chord is a *diſſonance*.

A table of both, according to the ſyſtem of M. Rameau, may be ſeen in Rouſſeau's Muſical Dictionary, vol. i. p. 27.

After the table to which our readers have been remitted, Rouſſeau adds the following obſervations, which are at the ſame time ſo juſt and ſo important, that we ſhould be very ſorry if they eſcape the reader's attention.

At the words *harmony*, *fundamental baſs*, *compoſition*, &c. he promiſes to treat concerning the manner of uſing all the chords to form regular harmony; and only adds, in this place, the ſubſequent reflections.

1. It is a capital error to imagine, that the methods of inverting the ſame chord are in all caſes equally eligible for the harmony and for the expreſſion. There is not one of theſe different arrangements but had its proper character. Every one feels the contraſt between the ſoftneſs of the falſe fifth, and the grating ſound of the tritone, though the one of theſe intervals is produced by a method of inverting the other. With the ſeventh diminiſhed, and the ſecond redundant, the caſe is the ſame with the interval of the ſecond in general uſe, and the ſeventh. Who does not feel how much more vocal and ſonorous the fifth appears when compared with the fourth? The *chord* of the great ſixth, and that of the leſſer ſixth minor, are two forms of the ſame fundamental *chord*: but how much leſs is the one harmonious than the other? On the contrary, the *chord* of the leſſer ſixth major is much more pleaſing and cheerful than that of the falſe fifth. And only to mention the moſt ſimple of all *chords*, reflect on the majeſty of the perfect chord, the ſweetneſs of that which is called the chord of the ſixth, and the inſipidity of that which is compoſed of a ſixth and a fourth: all of them, however, compoſed of the ſame ſounds. In general, the redundant intervals, the ſharps on the higher part, are proper by their ſeverity to expreſs violent emotions of mind, ſuch as anger and the rougher paſſions. On the contrary, flats in the higher parts, and diminiſhed intervals, form a plaintive harmony, which melts the heart. There are a multitude of ſimilar obſervations, of which, when a muſician knows how to avail himſelf, he may command at will the affections of thoſe who hear him.

2. The choice of ſimple intervals is ſcarcely of leſs importance than that of the *chords*, with regard to the ſtations in which they ought to be placed. It is, for inſtance, in the lower parts that the fifth and octave ſhould be uſed in preference; in the upper parts, the third and ſixth are more proper. If you tranſpoſe this order, the harmony will be ruined, even though the ſame *chords* are preſerved.

3. In a word, the *chords* are rendered ſtill more harmonious by being approximated and only divided by the ſmalleſt practicable intervals, which are more ſuitable to the capacity of the ear than ſuch as are remote. This is what we call *contracting* the harmony; an art which few compoſers have ſkill and abilities enough to put in practice. The limits in the natural compaſs of voices, afford an additional reaſon for leſſening the diſtance of the intervals, which compoſe the harmony of the chorus, as much as poſſible. We may affirm, that a chorus is improperly compoſed, when the diſtance between the *chords* increaſes; when thoſe who perform the different parts are obliged to ſcream when the voices riſe above their natural extent, and are ſo remotely diſtant one from the other that the perception of harmonical relations between them is loſt.

Chords || Choriambus.

We ſay likewiſe, that an inſtrument is in *concord* when the intervals between its fixed ſounds are what they ought to be; we ſay in this ſenſe, that the *chords* of an inſtrument are true or falſe, that it preſerves or does not preſerve its *chords*. The ſame form of ſpeaking is uſed for two voices which ſing together, or for two ſounds which are heard at the ſame time, whether in uniſon or in parts.

CHORDS, or *CORDS of Muſical Inſtruments*, are ſtrings, by the vibration of which the ſenſation of ſound is excited, and by the diviſions of which the ſeveral degrees of tone are determined.

CHORDEE, in *Medicine* and *Surgery*, a ſymptom attending a gonorrhœa, conſiſting in a violent pain under the frenum, and along the duct of the urethra, during the erection of the penis, which is incurvated downwards. Theſe erections are frequent and involuntary.

CHOREA SANCTI VITI. See *VITUS'S Dance*. MEDICINE *Index*.

CHOREPISCOPUS, an officer in the ancient church, about whoſe function the learned are much divided. The word comes from χωρος, a *region*, or *little country*, and επισκοπος, a *biſhop* or *overſeer*.

The Chorepiſcopi were ſuffragan or local biſhops, holding a middle rank between biſhops and preſbyters, and delegated to exerciſe epiſcopal juriſdiction within certain diſtricts, when the boundaries of particular churches, over which ſeparate biſhops preſided, were conſiderably enlarged. It is not certain when this office was firſt introduced; ſome trace it to the cloſe of the firſt century: others tell us, that chorepiſcopi were not known in the caſt till the beginning of the fourth century; and in the weſt about the year 439. They ceaſed both in the caſt and weſt in the tenth century.

CHOREPISCOPUS is alſo the name of a dignity ſtill ſubſiſting in ſome cathedrals, particularly in Germany; ſignifying the ſame with *chori epiſcopus*, or "biſhop of the choir." The word, in this ſenſe, does not come from χωρος, *place*, but χορος, *choir*, &c. In the church of Cologne, &c. the firſt chanter is called *chorepiſcopus*.

CHOREUS, Χορειος, a foot in the ancient poetry, more commonly called *trochæus*. See TROCHEE.

CHORIAMBUS, in ancient poetry, a foot conſiſting

Choriambus || Chorus.

fisting of four syllables, whereof the first and last are long, and the two middle ones are short; or, which is the same thing, it is made up of a trochæus and iambus; such is the word *nobilitas*.

CHORION, in *Anatomy*, the exterior membrane which invests the fœtus in the uterus. See FOETUS.

CHOROBATA, or CHOROBATES, a kind of water-level among the ancients, of the figure of the letter T, according to Vitruvius's description.

CHOROGRAPHY, the art of making a map of any country or province.

Chorography differs from geography, as the description of a particular country differs from that of the whole earth; and from topography, as the description of a country is different from that of a town or district. See the articles GEOGRAPHY, TOPOGRAPHY, and MAP.

CHOROIDES, or CHOROEIDES, in *Anatomy*, a term applied to several parts of the body, bearing some resemblance to the chorion. The word is formed from χοριον, *chorion*, and ειδος, *likeness*.

CHOROIDES is particularly used for the inner membrane which immediately invests the brain; so called as being intermingled with a great number of blood-vessels, like the *chorion*: but more usually denominated the *pia mater* or *mininx tenuis*.

Plexus or *Lacis CHOROIDES*, is a knot of veins and arteries in the anterior ventricle of the brain, woven out of the branches of the carotid.

CHOROIDES is also applied to the inner and posterior tunic of the eye, immediately under the sclerotica. It is soft, thin, and black: and its inner or concave surface is very smooth and polished. It has its name from its being interspersed with vessels.

CHORUS, in dramatic poetry, one or more persons present on the stage during the representation, and supposed to be by-standers without any share in the action.

Tragedy in its origin was no more than a single chorus, who trode the stage alone, and without any actors, singing dithyrambics or hymns in honour of Bacchus. Thespis, to relieve the chorus, added an actor, who rehearsed the adventures of some of their heroes; and Æschylus, finding a single person too dry an entertainment, added a second, at the same time reducing the singing of the chorus, to make more room for the recitation. But when once tragedy began to be formed, the recitative, which at first was intended only as an accessary part to give the chorus a breathing time, became a principal part of the tragedy. At length, however, the chorus became inserted and incorporated into the action: sometimes it was to speak; and then their chief, whom they called *coryphæus*, spoke in behalf of the rest: the singing was performed by the whole company; so that when the coryphæus struck into a song, the chorus immediately joined him.

The chorus sometimes also joined the actors, in the course of the representation, with their plaints and lamentations on account of any unhappy accidents that befel them; but the proper function, and that for which it seemed chiefly retained, was to show the intervals of the acts: while the actors were behind the scenes, the chorus engaged the spectators; their songs usually turned on what was exhibited, and were not to contain any thing but what was suited to the subject, and had a natural connection with it; so that the chorus concurred with the actors for advancing the action. In the modern tragedies the chorus is laid aside, and the fiddles supply its place. M. Dacier looks on this retrenchment as of ill consequence, and thinks it robs tragedy of a great deal of its lustre; he therefore judges it necessary to re-establish it, not only on account of the regularity of the piece, but also to correct, by prudent and virtuous reflections, any extravagancies that might fall from the mouths of the actors when under any violent passion.

Chorus || Chous

M. Dacier observed also, that there was a chorus, or grex, in the ancient comedy: but this is suppressed in the new comedy, because it was used to reprove vices by attacking particular persons; as the chorus of the tragedy was laid aside to give the greater probability to those kinds of intrigue which require secrecy.

CHORUS, in *Music*, is when, at certain periods of a song, the whole company are to join the singer in repeating certain couplets or verses.

CHOSE *(Fr.)*, "a thing;" used in the common law with divers epithets; as *chose local*, *chose transitory*, and *chose in action*. Chose local is such a thing as is annexed to a place, as a mill and the like; chose transitory is that thing which is moveable, and may be taken away, or carried from place to place; and chose in action is a thing incorporeal, and only a *right*, as an obligation for debt, annuity, &c. And generally all causes of suit for any debt, duty, or wrong, are to be accounted choses in action: and it seems, chose in action may be also called *chose in suspense*; because it hath no real existence or being, nor can properly be said to be in our possession.

CHOSROES I. the Great, king of Persia after his father Cabades, A. D. 532. He made peace with the Romans; but broke it the third year, and forced Justinian to a disadvantageous peace. Afterwards, he was so swelled with his victories, as to bid the emperor's ambassador follow him for audience to Cæsarea; but Tiberius sent an army under Justinian, who made himself master of the country, and put Chosroes to death in 586.

CHOSROES II. His subjects put his father Hormisdas in prison, and the son upon the throne of Persia. He used his father tenderly at first; but afterwards caused him to be put to death. This, together with his killing some of the nobility, obliged him to fly: he gave his horse the bridle, which carried him into a town of the Romans, where Mauricius the emperor received him kindly, and sent an army under Narses which set him again upon the throne. He took Jerusalem; after this he made himself master of Libya and Egypt, and carried Carthage. Heraclius sued for peace; which was offered him on condition, *That he and his subjects should deny Jesus Christ*: Hereupon Heraclius attacked him with success, and put him to flight. His own son pursued him, and he was starved in prison in 627.

CHOUGH, in *Ornithology*, the trivial name of a species of CORVUS. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CHOUS, in the eastern military orders, the title of the messengers of the divan Janisaries. There are several degrees of honour in this post. When a person

perſon is firſt advanced to it, he is called a *kuchuk*, or little *chous*; after this he is advanced to be the *alloy chous*, that is, the meſſenger of ceremonies; and from this, having paſſed through the office of *petelma*, or procurator of the effects of the body, he is advanced to be the *bas chous*.

CHOWDER-BEER, a provincial phraſe of Devonſhire, denoting a cheap and eaſily prepared drink, highly commended for preventing the ſcurvy in long voyages, or for the cure of it where it may have been contracted. It is prepared in the following manner: Take twelve gallons of water, in which put three pounds and a half of black ſpruce: boil it for three hours, and having taken out the fir or ſpruce, mix with the liquor ſeven pounds of melaſſes, and juſt boil it up; ſtrain it through a ſieve, and when milk-warm put to it about four ſpoonfuls of yeaſt to work it. In two or three days ſtop the bung of the caſk: and in five or ſix days, when fine, bottle it for drinking. Two gallons of melaſſes are ſufficient for a hogſhead of liquor; but if melaſſes cannot be procured, treacle or coarſe ſugar will anſwer the purpoſe.

CHREMNITZ, the principal of the mine towns in Upper Hungary, ſituated about 68 miles north-eaſt of Preſburg, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. E. Long. 19. N. Lat. 48. 45.

CHRENECRUDA, a term occurring in writers of the middle ages, and expreſſing a cuſtom of thoſe times; but its ſignification is doubtful. It is mentioned in *Lege Salica*, tit. 61. which ſays, he who kills a man, and hath not wherewithal to ſatisfy the law or pay the fine, makes oath that he hath delivered up every thing he was poſſeſſed of; the truth of which muſt be confirmed by the oaths of 12 other perſons. Then he invites his next relations by the father's ſide to pay off the remainder of the fine, having firſt made over to them all his effects by the following ceremony. He goes into his houſe, and taking in his hand a ſmall quantity of duſt from each of the four corners, he returns to the door, and with his face inwards throws the duſt with his left hand over his ſhoulders upon his neareſt of kin. Which done, he ſtrips to his ſhirt; and coming out with a pole in his hand, jumps over the hedge. His relations, whether one or ſeveral, are upon this obliged to pay off the compoſition for the murder. And if theſe (or any one of them) are not able to pay *iterum ſuper illum chrenecruda, qui pauperior eſt, jactat, et ille totam legem componat.* Whence it appears, that *chrenecruda jactare*, is the ſame with throwing the duſt gathered from the four corners of the houſe. Goldaſtus and Spelman tranſlate it *viridem herbam*, "green graſs," from the German *gruen kraut*, or from the Dutch *groen*, "green," and *gruid*, "graſs." Wendelinus is of a contrary opinion, who thinks that by this word *denotari purificationis approbationem*, from *chrein*, "pure, chaſte, clean;" and *keuren*, "to prove;" ſo that it muſt refer to the oaths of the twelve jurors. Be this as it will, King Childebert reformed this law by a decree, chap. 15. both becauſe it favoured of Pagan ceremonies, and becauſe ſeveral perſons were thereby obliged to make over all their effects: *De chrenecruda lex quam paganorum tempore obſervabant, deinceps nunquam valeat, quia per ipſam cecidet multorum poteſtas.*

CHRISM (from χριω, *I anoint*), oil conſecrated by the biſhop, and uſed in the Romiſh and Greek churches, in the adminiſtration of baptiſm, confirmation, ordination, and extreme unction, which is prepared on holy Thurſday with much ceremony. In Spain it was anciently the cuſtom for the biſhop to take one-third of a ſol for the chriſm diſtributed to each church, on account of the balſam that entered its compoſition.

Du Cange obſerves, that there are two kinds of chriſm; the one prepared of oil and balſam, uſed in baptiſm, confirmation, and ordination; the other of oil alone, conſecrated by the biſhop, uſed anciently for the catechumens, and ſtill in extreme unction. The Maronites, before their reconciliation with Rome, beſides oil and balſam, uſed muſk, ſaffron, cinnamon, roſes, white frankincenſe, and ſeveral other drugs mentioned by Rynaldus, in 1541, with the doſes of each. The Jeſuit Dandini, who went to Mount Libanus in quality of the pope's nuncio, ordained, in a ſynod held there in 1596, that chriſm for the future ſhould be made only of two ingredients, oil and balſam; the one repreſenting the human nature of Jeſus Chriſt, the other his divine nature. The action of impoſing the chriſm is called *chriſmation*: this the generality of the Romiſh divines hold to be the next matter of the ſacrament of confirmation.

The chriſmation in baptiſm is performed by the prieſt; that in confirmation by the biſhop; that in ordination, &c. is more uſually ſtyled *unction*.

CHRISM Pence, *CHRISMATIS Denarii*, or *CHRISMALES Denarii*, a tribute anciently paid to the biſhop by the pariſh clergy, for their chriſm, conſecrated at Eaſter for the enſuing year: this was afterwards condemned as ſimoniacal.

CHRISOM, a white garment put upon a child by the prieſt immediately after baptiſm, accompanied with this devout prayer; "Take this white veſture as a token of the innocency which, by God's grace in this holy ſacrament of baptiſm is given unto thee, and for a ſign whereby thou art admoniſhed, ſo long as thou liveſt, to give thyſelf to innocence of living, that after this tranſitory life thou mayeſt be partaker of life everlaſting. Amen."

From this circumſtance the white garment got the name of *chriſom*, which, after being worn a few days, was delivered to the prieſt as a ſacred depoſit, to be produced in future as an evidence againſt the perſon, ſhould he be ſo impious as to renounce his baptiſmal engagements. This ceremony continued in uſe for a conſiderable time after the reformation in the church of England, which required the mother of the child, when churched, to offer the chriſom and other cuſtomary oblations. On pronouncing the above mentioned prayer, the prieſt anointed the head of the infant, ſaying, "Almighty God, the father of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, who hath regenerated thee by water and the Holy Ghoſt, and hath given unto thee the remiſſion of all thy ſins, vouchſafe to anoint thee with the unction of his Holy Spirit, and bring thee to the inheritance of everlaſting life. Amen."

CHRIST, an appellation ſynonymous with *Meſſiah*, uſually added to Jeſus: and, together therewith, denominating the Saviour of the world. See CHRISTIANITY and MESSIAH.

The word χριστος ſignifies *anointed*, from χριω, *inungo*, "I anoint." Sometimes the word *Chriſt* is uſed ſingly,

Christ || Christianity.

gly, by way of *antonomasis*, to denote a person sent from God, as an anointed prophet, king, or priest.

Order of CHRIST, a military order, founded by Dionysius I. king of Portugal, to animate his nobles against the Moors. The arms of this order are gules, patriarchal cross charged with another cross argent: they had their residence at first at Castromarin: afterwards they removed to the city of Thomar, as being nearer to the Moors of Andalusia and Estremadura.

CHRIST is also the name of a military order in Livonia, instituted in 1205 by Albert bishop of Riga. The end of this institution was to defend the new Christians who were converted every day in Livonia, but were persecuted by the heathens. They wore on their cloaks a sword with a cross over it, whence they were also denominated *brothers of the sword.*

CHRIST-Burgh, a town of Poland, near the lake Drausen, and about three Polish miles from Marienburgh.

CHRIST-Church, a borough town of Hampshire, 30 miles south-west of Winchester, near the sea-coast. W. Long. 2. N. Lat. 50. 40. It sends two members to parliament.

CHRIST-Thorn. See RHAMNUS, BOTANY *Index*.

CHRISTIAN. See CHRISTIANITY and CHRISTIANS.

Most CHRISTIAN King, one of the titles of the former kings of France.

The French antiquarians trace the origin of this appellation up to Gregory the Great, who, writing a letter to Charles Martel, occasionally gave him that title, which his successors retained.

CHRISTIAN Religion, that instituted by Jesus Christ. See CHRISTIANITY.

1 Origin of the word.

CHRISTIANITY, the religion of Christians. The word is analogically derived, as other abstracts from their concretes, from the adjective *Christian*. This again is derived from the name Χριστος, *Christus*, from the word χριω, *I anoint*. Christ is called *the anointed*, from a custom which extensively prevailed in antiquity, and was originally said to be of divine institution, of anointing persons in the sacerdotal or regal character, as a public signal of their consecration to their important offices, and as a testimony that heaven itself was the guarantee of that relation which then commenced between the persons thus consecrated and their subordinates.

2 By what name the apostles were first distinguished.

The disciples of Jesus, after the death of their teacher, had for some time been called *Nazarenes*, from Nazareth in Galilee, where he dwelt; which afterwards became the designation of a particular sect. They, who adopted the principles and professed the religion which he taught, were first distinguished by the name of *Christians* at Antioch. That profession, and those doctrines, we now proceed to delineate with as much perspicuity as the limits of our plan will admit, yet with the conciseness which a work so multiform and extensive requires.

3 Delineation of Christianity.

When a Christian is interrogated concerning the nature and foundation of his faith and practice, his ultimate reference, his last appeal, is to the facts, the doctrines, and the injunctions, contained in the books of the Old and New Testament. From these, therefore, and from these alone, must every fair account, or the materials of which it is composed, be extracted or reduced. Other formularies, or confessions of faith, may, according to the Christian, deserve more or less attention, as they are more or less immediately contained or implied in the scriptures. But whatever is not actually expressed in, or reduced by fair and necessary consequence from, these writings, must be regarded as merely human; and can have no other title to our assent and observation than what they derive from their conformity with the scriptures, with the dictates and feelings of a reformed and cultivated mind, or with those measures which are found expedient and useful in human life. But as those books, from whence the Christian investigates his principles of belief and rules of conduct, have been variously interpreted by different professors and commentators, these diversities have given birth to a multiplicity of different sects. It cannot, therefore, be expected, that any one who undertakes to give an account of Christianity, should comprehend all the writings and opinions which have been propagated and exhibited by historical, systematical, or polemical authors. These, if at all contained in such a work as this, should be ranged under their proper articles, whether scientifical, controversial, or biographical. It is our present business, if possible, to confine ourselves to a detail of such facts and doctrines as, in the strict and primitive sense of the word, are *catholic*, or, in other expressions, to such as uniformly have been, and still are, recognized and admitted by the whole body of Christians.

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4 Account of Christianity whence deducible.

We have already said that these, or at least the greatest number of them, appeal to the scriptures of the Old and New Testament as the ultimate standard, the only infallible rule of faith and manners. If you ask them, by what authority these books claim an absolute right to determine the consciences and understandings of men with regard to what they should believe and what they should do? They will answer you, that all scripture, whether for doctrine, correction, or reproof, was given by immediate inspiration from God.

5 The nature of its evidences.

If again you interrogate them how those books, which they call *Scripture*, are authenticated? they reply, that the evidences by which the Old and New Testament are proved to be the Word of God, are either external or internal. The *external* may again be divided into direct or collateral. The direct evidences are such as arise from the nature, consistency, and probability, of the facts; and from the simplicity, uniformity, competency, and fidelity, of the testimonies by which they are supported. The collateral events are either the same occurrences supported by Heathen testimonies, or others which concur with and corroborate the history of Christianity. Its *internal* evidence arises either from its exact conformity with the character of God, from its aptitude to the frame and circumstances of man, or from those supernatural convictions and assistances which are impressed on the mind by the immediate operation of the divine Spirit. These can only be mentioned in a cursory manner in a detail so concise as the present.

6 How Christianity is supported by facts.

Such facts as are related in the history of his religion, the Christian asserts to be not only consistent each with itself, but likewise one with another. Hence it is, that, by a series of antecedents and consequences, they corroborate each other, and form a chain

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which cannot be broken but by an absolute subversion of all historical authenticity. Nor is this all: for, according to him, the facts on which Christianity is founded, not only constitute a series of themselves, but are likewise in several periods the best resources for supplying the chasms in the history of our nature, and preserving the tenor of its annals entire. The facts themselves are either natural or supernatural. By natural facts we mean such occurrences as happen or may happen from the various operations of mechanical powers, or from the interposition of natural agents without higher assistants. Such are all the common occurrences of history, whether natural, biographical, or civil. By supernatural facts, we mean such as could not have been produced without the interposition of Deity, or at least of powers superior to the laws of mechanism or the agency of embodied spirits. Among these may be reckoned the immediate change of water into wine, the instantaneous cure of diseases without the intervention of medicine, the resuscitation of the dead, and others of the same kind. In this order of occurrences may likewise be numbered the exertions and exhibitions of prophetic power, where the persons by whom these extraordinary talents were displayed could neither by penetration nor conjecture unravel the mazes of futurity, and trace the events of which they spoke from their primary causes to their remote completions. So that they must have been the passive organs of some superior Being, to whom the whole concatenation of causes and effects which operate from the origin to the consummation of nature, was obvious at a glance of thought.

7 Natural facts, what, and how conducive to the elucidation of history.

It has already been hinted, that the facts which we have called *natural*, not only agree with the analogy of human events, and corroborate each other, but in a great many emergencies nobly illustrate the history of nature in general. For this a Christian might offer one instance, of which philosophy will not perhaps be able to produce any tolerable solution, without having recourse to the facts upon which Christianity is founded. For if mankind were originally descended from one pair alone, how should it have happened that long before the date of authentic history every nation had its own distinct language? Or, if it be supposed, as some late philosophers have maintained, that man is an indigenous animal in every country; or, that he was originally produced in, and created for, each particular soil and climate which he inhabits; still it may be demanded, whence the prodigious multiplicity, the immense diversity of languages? Is the language of every nation intuitive, or were they dictated by exigences, and established by convention? If the last of these suppositions be true, what an immense period of time must have passed! How many revolutions of material and intellectual nature must have happened! What accessions of knowledge, refinement, civilization, must human intercourse have gained before the formation and establishment even of the most simple, imperfect, and barbarous language! Why is a period so vast obliterated so entirely as to escape the retrospect of history, or tradition, and even of fable itself? Why was the acquisition and improvement of other arts so infinitely distant from that of language, that the era of the latter is entirely lost, whilst we can trace the former from their origin through the various gradations of their progress.

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8 This obscurity inexplicable but by the Mosaic account.

These difficulties, inextricable by all the lights of history or philosophy, this more than Cimmerian darkness, is immediately dissipated by the Mosaic account of the confusion of tongues; wisely intended to separate the tribes of men one from another, to replenish the surface of the globe, and to give its multiplied inhabitants those opportunities of improvement which might be derived from experiment and industry, variously exerted, according to the different situations in which they were placed, and the different employments which these situations dictated. Thus the time of nature's existence is limited to a period within the ken of human intellect. Thus whatever has happened might have happened during the present mode of things; whereas, if we deduce the origin and diversity of language from a period so remotely distant as to be absolutely lost, and entirely detached from all the known occurrences and vicissitudes of time, we must admit the present forms and arrangements of things to have subsisted perhaps for a much longer duration than any mechanical philosopher will allow to be possible. Other instances equally pregnant with conviction might be multiplied; but precluded by the limits of our plan, we proceed to a single observation upon the facts which have been termed *supernatural*.

9 Miracles, how conducive to prove the truth of Christianity.

Of those changes which happen in sensible objects, sensation alone can be judge. Reason has nothing to do in the matter. She may draw conclusions from the testimonies of sense, but can never refute them. If, therefore, our senses inform us that snow is white, in vain would the most learned and subtile philosopher endeavour to convince us, that it was of a contrary colour. He might confound, but never could persuade us. Such changes, therefore, as appear to happen in sensible objects, must either be real or fallacious. If real, the miracle is admitted; if fallacious, there must be a cause of deception equally unaccountable from the powers of nature, and therefore equally miraculous. If the veracity or competency of the witnesses be questioned, the Christian answers, that they must be competent, because the facts which they relate are not beyond their capacity to determine. They must likewise be faithful, because they had no secular motives for maintaining, but many for suppressing or disguising, what they testified. Now the Christian appeals to the whole series of history and experience, whether such a man is or can be found, as will offer a voluntary, solemn, and deliberate sacrifice of truth at the shrine of caprice. But such facts as after a long continuance of time have been found exactly agreeable to predictions formerly emitted, must supersede the fidelity of testimony, and infallibly prove that the event was known to the Being by whom it was foretold. In vain it has been urged, that prophecies are ambiguous and equivocal. For though they may prefigure subordinate events, yet if the grand occurrences to which they ultimately relate, can alone fulfil them in their various circumstances, and in their utmost extent, it is plain, that the Being by whom they were revealed must have been actually prescient of those events, and must have had them in view when the predictions were uttered. For this see a learned and

10 Prophecy evident by its own nature independent of its vehicles.

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and ingenious Dissertation on the Credibility of Gospel-history, by Dr M'Knight; where the evidences urged by the Christian in defence of his tenets, which appear detached and scattered through innumerable volumes, are assembled and arranged in such a manner as to derive strength and lustre from the method in which they are disposed, without diminishing the force of each in particular. See also the works of Dr Hurd: consult likewise those of Newton, Sherlock, Chandler, &c. For the evidences of those preternatural facts which have been termed *miracles*, the reader may peruse a short but elegant and conclusive defence of these astonishing phenomena, in answer to Mr Hume, by the Rev. George Campbell, D. D.

11 Properties common to all religions.

It must be obvious to every reflecting mind, that whether we attempt to form the idea of any religion *à priori*, or contemplate those which have been already exhibited, certain facts, principles, or *data*, must be preestablished, from whence will result a particular frame of mind and course of action suitable to the character and dignity of that being by whom the religion is enjoined, and adapted to the nature and situation of those agents who are commanded to observe it. Hence *Christianity* may be divided into *credenda* or doctrines, and *agenda* or precepts.

12 Christian theology.

As the great foundation of his religion, therefore, the Christian believes the existence and government of one eternal and infinite Essence, which for ever retains in itself the cause of its own existence, and inherently possesses all those perfections which are compatible with its nature; such are, its almighty power, omniscient wisdom, infinite justice, boundless goodness, and universal presence. In this indivisible essence the Christian recognises three distinct subsistences, yet distinguished in such a manner as not to be incompatible with essential unity or simplicity of being. Nor is their essential union compatible with their personal distinction. Each of them possesses the same nature and properties to the same extent. As, therefore, they are constituents of one God, if we may use the expression, there is none of them subordinate, none supreme. The only way by which the Christian can discriminate them is, by their various relations, properties, and offices. Thus the Father is said eternally to beget the Son, the Son to be eternally begotten of the Father, and the Holy Ghost eternally to proceed from both.

This infinite Being, though absolutely independent and for ever sufficient for his own beatitude, was graciously pleased to create an universe replete with inferior intelligences, who might for ever contemplate and enjoy his glory, participate his happiness, and imitate his perfections. But as freedom of will is essential to the nature of moral agents, that they may cooperate with God in their own improvement and happiness, so their natures and powers are necessarily limited, and by that constitution rendered peccable. This degeneracy first took place in a rank of intelligence superior to man. But guilt is never stationary. Impatient in itself, and cursed with its own feelings, it proceeds from bad to worse, whilst the poignancy of its torments increases with the number of its perpetrations. Such was the situation of Satan and his apostate angels. They attempted to transfer their turpitude and misery to man; and were, alas! but too successful. Hence the heterogeneous and irreconcileable principles which operate in his nature. Hence that inexplicable medley of wisdom and folly, of rectitude and error, of benevolence and malignity, of sincerity and fraud, exhibited through his whole conduct. Hence the darkness of his understanding, the depravity of his will, the pollution of his heart, the irregularity of his affections, and the absolute subversion of his whole internal economy. These seeds of perdition soon ripened into overt acts of guilt and horror. All the hostilities of nature were confronted, and the whole sublunary creation became a theatre of disorder and mischief.

Here the Christian once more appeals to fact and experience. If these things are so; if *man* is the vessel of guilt and the victim of misery; he demands how this constitution of things can be accounted for? how can it be supposed, that a being so wicked and unhappy should be the production of an infinitely perfect Creator? He therefore insists, that human nature must have been disarranged and contaminated by some violent shock; and that, of consequence, without the light diffused over the face of things by Christianity, all nature must remain an inscrutable and inexplicable mystery.

To redress these evils, to re-establish the empire of virtue and happiness, to restore the nature of man to its primitive rectitude, to satisfy the remonstrances of infinite justice, to purify every original or contracted stain, to expiate the guilt and destroy the power of vice, the eternal Son of God, the second Person of the sacred Trinity, the Logos or Divine Word, the Redeemer or Saviour of the world, the Immanuel or God with us, from whom Christianity takes its name, and to whom it owes its origin, descended from the bosom of his Father; assumed the human nature; became the representative of man; endured a severe probation in that character; exhibited a pattern of perfect righteousness; and at last ratified his doctrine, and fully accomplished all the ends of his mission, by a cruel, unmerited, and ignominious death. Before he left this world, he delivered the doctrine of human salvation, and the rules of human conduct, to his apostles, whom he empowered to instruct the world in all that concerns their eternal felicity, and whom he invested with miraculous gifts to ascertain the reality of what they taught. To them he likewise promised another comforter, even the Divine Spirit, who should relume the darkness, console the woes, and purify the stains, of human nature. Having remained for a part of three days under the power of death, he rose again from the grave, discovered himself to his disciples, conversed with them for some time, then ascended to heaven; from whence the Christian expects him, according to his promise, to appear as the Sovereign Judge of the living and the dead, from whose awards there is no appeal, and by whose sentence the destiny of the pious and the wicked shall be eternally fixed.

Soon after his departure to the right hand of his Father, where, in his human nature, he sits supreme of all created beings, and invested with the absolute administration of heaven and earth, the Spirit of grace and consolation descended on his apostles with visible signatures of divine power and presence. Nor were his

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his ſalutary operations confined to them, but extended to all the rational world, who did not by obſtinate guilt repel his influence, and provoke him to withdraw them. Theſe, indeed, were leſs conſpicuous than at the glorious era when they were viſibly exhibited in the perſons of the apoſtles; but though his energy is leſs obſervable, it is by no means leſs effectual to all the porpoſes of grace and mercy.

The Chriſtian is convinced, that there is and ſhall continue to be a ſociety upon earth, who worſhip God as revealed in Jeſus Chriſt; who believe his doctrines; who obſerve his precepts; and who ſhall be ſaved by his death, and by the uſe of theſe external means of ſalvation which he hath appointed.

13 The external means of Chriſtianity, what, and how promotive of their end.

Theſe are few and ſimple. The ſacraments of baptiſm and the euchariſt, the interpretation and application of ſcripture, the habitoal exerciſe of public and private devotion, are obviouſly calculated to diffuſe and promote the intereſts of truth and virtue, by ſuperinducing the ſalutary habits of faith, love, and repentance.

The Chriſtian is firmly perſuaded, that at the conſummation of things, when the purpoſes of providence in the various revolutions of progreſſive nature are accompliſhed, the whole human race ſhall once more iſſue from their graves; ſome to immortal felicity, from the actual perception and enjoyment of their Creator's preſence; others to everlaſting ſhame and miſery.

It is worthy of obſervation, that all who profeſs to believe the Chriſtian ſyſtem, do not ſubſcribe to the truth of everlaſting miſery. They conceive it impoſſible that a good and merciful being could create innumerable intelligences with a view to make them eternally wretched, elſe they apprehend that exiſtence would be a curſe and not a bleſſing; and that although man, by being created free, becomes amenable to God for his conduct, yet they contend that this God muſt have ſeen from eternity what uſe man would make of his free agency, and have deviſed the moſt effectual means for counteracting the evils reſolting from moral depravity, and reſolved to bring final and eternal good out of all the evil which now does, or which in future may exiſt. Finally, they deny that any epithet applied to the miſeries of a future ſtate denotes duration without end, and they aſſert that all the judgements inflicted on nations and individuals here upon earth, are manifeſtly the chaſtiſements of a father for the recovery of delinquents, in which light they alſo conſider the puniſhments to be inflicted in the world to come. It is our province to give a candid ſtatement of both ſides of a queſtion, leaving it to our readers to form a judgment for themſelves.

14 Chriſtian morality.

The two grand principles of action, according to the Chriſtian, are, The love of God, which is the ſovereign paſſion in every perfect mind; and the love of man, which regulates our actions according to the various relations in which we ſtand, whether to communities or individuals. This ſacred connection can never be totally extinguiſhed by any temporary injury. It ought to ſubſiſt in ſome degree even amongſt enemies. It requires that we ſhould pardon the offences of others, as we expect pardon for our own; and that we ſhould no farther reſiſt evil than is neceſſary for the preſervation of perſonal rights and ſocial happineſs. It dictates every relative and reciprocal duty between parents and children, maſters and ſervants, governors and ſubjects, friends and friends, men and men. Nor does it merely enjoin the obſervation of eqoity, but likewiſe inſpires the moſt ſublime and extenſive charity, a boundleſs and diſintereſted effuſion of tenderneſs for the whole ſpecies, which feels their diſtreſs and operates for their relief and improvement. Theſe celeſtial diſpoſitions, and the different duties which are their natural exertions, are the various gradations by which the Chriſtian hopes to attain the perfection of his nature and the moſt exquiſite happineſs of which it is ſuſceptible.

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Soch are the ſpeculative, and ſoch the practical principles of Chriſtianity. From the former, its votaries contend, that the origin, economy, and revolutions of intelligent nature alone can be rationally explained. From the latter they aſſert, that the nature of man, whether conſidered in its individual or ſocial capacity, can alone be conducted to its higheſt perfection and happineſs. With the determined Atheiſts they ſcarcely deign to expoſtulate. For, according to them, philoſophers who can deduce the origin and conſtitution of things from caſual rencounters or mechanical neceſſity, are capable of deducing any concluſion from any premiſes. Nor can a more glaring inſtance of abſurdity be produced, than the idea of a contingent or ſelf-originated univerſe. When Deiſts and other ſectarians upbraid them with myſterious or incompatible principles, they without heſitation remit ſuch cavillers to the creed of natural religion. They demand why any reaſoner ſhould refuſe to believe three diſtinct ſubſtances in one indiviſible eſſence, who admits that a being may be omnipreſent without extenſion; or that he can impreſs motion upon other things, whilſt he himſelf is neceſſarily immoveable. They aſk the ſage, why it ſhould be thought more extraordinary, that the Son of God ſhould be ſent to this world, that he ſhould unite the human nature to his own, that he ſhould ſuffer and die for the relief of his degenerate creatures, than that an exiſtence whoſe felicity is eternal, inherent, and infinite, ſhould have any motive for creating beings exterior to himſelf? Is it not, ſays the Chriſtian, equally worthy of the divine interpoſition to reſtore order and happineſs where they are loſt, as to communicate them where they never have been? Is not infinite goodneſs equally conſpicuous in relieving miſery as in diffuſing happineſs? Is not the exiſtence of what we call evil in the world, under the tuition of an infinitely perfect Being, as inſcrutable as the means exhibited by Chriſtianity for its abolition? Vicarious puniſhment, imputed guilt and righteouſneſs, merit or demerit transferred, are certainly not leſs reconcileable to human reaſon, *à priori*, than the exiſtence of vice and puniſhment in the productions of infinite wiſdom, power, and goodneſs: particularly when it is conſidered, that the virtues exerted and diſplayed by a perfect Being in a ſtate of humiliation and ſuffering, muſt be meritorious, and may therefore be rewarded by the reſtored felicity of inferior creatures in proportion to their glory and excellence; and that ſuch merit may apply the bleſſings which it has deſerved, in whatever manner, in whatever degree, and to whomſoever it pleaſes, without being under any neceſſity to violate

15 This ſyſtem aſſerted by the Chriſtian, ſuperior in the excellence of its nature, and the evidence of its reality, to all others.

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violate the freedom of moral agents, in recalling them to the paths of virtue and happineſs by a mechanical and irreſiſtible force.

16 Miraculous as poſſible, and perhaps as neceſſary, as natural events.

It will be granted to philoſophy by the Chriſtian, that as no theory of mechanical nature can be formed without preſuppoſing ſacred and eſtabliſhed laws from which ſhe ought rarely if ever to deviate, ſo in fact ſhe tenaciouſly purſues theſe general inſtitutions, and from their conſtant obſervance reſult the order and regularity of things. But he cannot admit, that the important ends of moral and intellectual improvement may be uniformly obtained by the ſame means. He affirms, that if the hand of God ſhould either remain always entirely inviſible, or at leaſt only perceptible in the operation of ſecond cauſes, intelligent beings would be apt in the courſe of time to reſolve the interpoſitions of Deity into the general laws of mechaniſm; to forget his connexion with nature, and conſequently their dependence upon him. Hence, according to the dictates of common ſenſe, and to the unanimous voice of every religion in every age or clime, for the purpoſes of wiſdom and benevolence, God may not only controul, but has actually controuled, the common courſe and general operations of nature. So that, as in the material world the law of *cauſe* and *effect* is generally and ſcrupulouſly obſerved for the purpoſes of natural ſubſiſtence and accommodation: thus ſuſpenſes and changes of that univerſal law are equally neceſſary for the advancement of moral and intellectual perfection.

17 Chriſtianity not only explains the phenomena, but conſoles the miſeries of human nature.

But the diſciple of Jeſus not only contends, that no ſyſtem of religion has ever yet been exhibited ſo conſiſtent with itſelf, ſo congruous to philoſophy and the common ſenſe of mankind, as Chriſtianity; he likewiſe avers that it is infinitely more productive of real and ſenſible conſolation than any other religious or philoſophical tenets, which have ever entered into the ſoul, or been applied to the heart of man. For what is death to that mind which conſiders eternity as the career of its exiſtence? What are the frowns of fortune to him who claims an eternal world as his inheritance? What is the loſs of friends to that heart which feels, with more than natural conviction, that it ſhall quickly rejoin them in a more tender, intimate, and permanent intercourſe than any of which the preſent life is ſuſceptible? What are the fluctuations and viciſſitudes of external things to a mind which ſtrongly and uniformly anticipates a ſtate of endleſs and immutable felicity? What are mortifications, diſappointments, and inſults, to a ſpirit which is conſcious of being the original offſpring and adopted child of God; which knows that its omnipotent Father will, in proper time, effectually aſſert the dignity and privileges of its nature? In a word, as earth is but a ſpeck of creation, as time is not an inſtant in proportion to eternity, ſuch are the hopes and proſpects of the Chriſtian in compariſon of every ſublunary misfortune or difficulty. It is therefore, in his judgment, the eternal wonder of angels, and indelible opprobrium of man, that a religion ſo worthy of God, ſo ſuitable to the frame and circumſtances of our nature, ſo conſonant to all the dictates of reaſon, ſo friendly to the dignity and improvement of intelligent beings, pregnant with genuine comfort and delight, ſhould be rejected and deſpiſed. Were there a poſſibility of ſuſpenſe or heſitation between this and any other religion extant, he could freely truſt the determination of a queſtion ſo important to the candid deciſion of real virtue and impartial philoſophy.

It muſt be allowed that the utmoſt extent of human inveſtigation and reſearch into the doctrine of a future life, reached no farther than ſplendid conjecture before the promulgation of Chriſtianity, at which period life and immortality were clearly brought to light. It is therefore a ſingular circumſtance that the deiſt ſhould not perceive the wonderful ſuperiority of the Chriſtian over every other ſyſtem, if it had nothing elſe to boaſt of but this ſingle doctrine, ſo pregnant with unalloyed felicity. If Chriſtianity be falſe, the believer of it has nothing to loſe, ſince it inculcates a mode of conduct which muſt ever be amiable in the eye of infinite goodneſs; but if it be true, he has every thing to gain: while upon this hypotheſis the deiſt has every thing to loſe and nothing to gain. This is a momentous conſideration, and that man muſt be truly infatuated who can treat ſuch an idea with contempt.

18 Mr Gibbon attempts to prove, that the propagation of Chriſtianity was owing to cauſes from the operation of which no arguments can be deduced in proof of its authenticity.

Mr Gibbon, in his Hiſtory of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, mentions five ſecondary cauſes to which he thinks the propagation of Chriſtianity, and all the remarkable circumſtances which attended it, may with good reaſon be aſcribed. He ſeems to inſinuate, that Divine Providence did not act in a ſingular or extraordinary manner in diſſeminating the religion of Jeſus through the world; and that, if every other argument which has been adduced to prove the ſacred authority of this religion can be parried or refuted, nothing can be deduced from this ſource to prevent it from ſharing the ſame fate with other ſyſtems of ſuperſtition. The cauſes of its propagation were in his opinion founded on the principles of human nature and the circumſtances of ſociety. If we aſcribe not the propagation of Mahometiſm, or of the doctrines of Zerduſt, to an extraordinary interpoſition of Divine Providence, operating by an unperceived influence on the diſpoſitions of the human heart, and controuling and confounding the ordinary laws of nature; neither can we, upon any reaſonable grounds, refer the promulgation of Chriſtianity to ſuch an interpoſition.

19 The cauſes.

The ſecondary cauſes to which he aſcribes theſe effects are, 1. The inflexible and intolerant zeal of the Chriſtians; derived from the Jewiſh religion, but purified from the narrow and unſocial ſpirit which, inſtead of inviting, deterred the Gentiles from embracing the law of Moſes. 2. The doctrine of a future life, improved by every additional circumſtance which could give weight and efficacy to that important truth. 3. The miraculous powers aſcribed to the primitive church. 4. The pure and auſtere morals of the Chriſtians. 5. The union and diſcipline of the Chriſtian republic, which gradually formed an independent and increaſing ſtate in the heart of the Roman empire.

Before we enter on the examination of Mr Gibbon's cauſes in the order in which they are here enumerated, we beg leave to remark, that we cannot perceive the propriety of denominating ſome of theſe *ſecondary* cauſes, ſince the miraculous powers aſcribed to the primitive church, if they were real, muſt have conſtituted a primary cauſe, and if fallacious, could have been no cauſe at all, if not of its complete ſubverſion. As little can we conceive how ſuch an elegant and learned author

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rather could imagine a zeal strictly and properly inflexible and intolerant, as qualified to produce any other effect than the destruction of the system which they are allowed to have been anxious to promote. But our sentiment of these causes assigned by Mr Gibbon will be more fully developed as we proceed in our candid and impartial examination of them.

Cause I.

In pointing out the connexion between the *first* of these causes and the effects which he represents as arising from it, this learned and ingenious writer observes, that the religion of the Jews does not seem to have been intended to be propagated among the Heathens, and that the conversion of proselytes was rather accidental than consistent with the purport of the general spirit of the institutions of Judaism. The Jews were, of consequence, studious to preserve themselves a peculiar people. Their zeal for their own religion was intolerant, narrow, and unsocial.

In Christianity, when it made its appearance in the world, all the better part of the predominant spirit of Judaism was retained; but whatever might have a tendency to confine its influence within narrow limits was laid aside. Christians were to maintain the doctrines and adhere to the constitutions of their religion with sacred fidelity. They were not to violate their allegiance to Jesus by entertaining or professing any reverence for Jupiter or any other of the Heathen deities: it was not even necessary for them to comply with the positive and ceremonial institutions of the law of Moses,—although these were acknowledged to have been of divine origin. The zeal, therefore, which their religion inculcated, was indefensible. It was even intolerant: for they were not to content themselves with professing Christianity and conforming to its laws; they were to labour with unremitting assiduity, and to expose themselves to every difficulty and every danger, in converting others to the same faith.

But the same circumstances which rendered it thus intolerant, communicated to it a more liberal and a less unsocial spirit than that of Judaism. The religion of the Jews was intended only for the few tribes; Christianity was to become a catholic religion; its advantages were to be offered to all mankind.

All the different sects which arose among the primitive Christians uniformly maintained the same zeal for the propagation of their own religion, and the same abhorrence for every other. The orthodox, the Ebionites, the Gnostics, were all equally animated with the same exclusive zeal, and the same abhorrence of idolatry, which had distinguished the Jews from other nations.

Observations on the first.

Such is the general purport of what Mr Gibbon advances concerning the influence of the first of these secondary causes in the propagation of Christianity. It would be uncandid to deny, that his statement of facts appears to be, in this instance, almost fair, and his deductions tolerably logical. The first Christians were remarkable for their detestation of idolatry, and for the generous disinterested zeal with which they laboured to convert others to the same faith. The first of these principles, no doubt, contributed to maintain the dignity and purity of Christianity; and the second to disseminate it through the world. But the facts which he relates are scarce consistent throughout. He seems to represent the zeal of the first Christians as so hot and intolerant, that they could have no social intercourse with those who still adhered to the worship of Heathen deities. In this case, how could they propagate their religion? Nay, we may even ask, How could they live? If they could not mingle with the Heathens in the transactions either of peace or war; nor witness the marriage or the funeral of the dearest friend, if a heathen; nor practise the elegant arts of music, painting, eloquence, or poetry; nor venture to use freely in conversation the language of Greece or of Rome:—it is not easy to see what opportunities they could have of disseminating their religious sentiments. If, in such circumstances, and observing rigidly such a tenor of conduct, they were yet able to propagate their religion with such amazing success as they are said to have done; they must surely either have practised some wondrous arts unknown to us, or have been assisted by the supernatural operation of divine power.

But all the historical records of that period, whether sacred or profane, concur to prove, that the primitive Christians in general did not retire with such religious horror from all intercourse with the Heathens. They refused not to serve in the armies of the Roman empire: they appealed to Heathen magistrates, and submitted respectfully to their decision; the husband was often a Heathen, and the wife a Christian: or, again, the husband a Christian, and the wife a Heathen. These are facts so universally known and believed, that we need not quote authorities in proof of them.

This respectable writer appears therefore not to have stated the facts which he produces under this head with sufficient ingenuousness; and he has taken care to exaggerate and improve those which he thinks useful to his purpose with all the dazzling and delusive colours of eloquence. But had the zeal of the first Christians been so intolerant as he represents it, it must have been highly unfavourable to the propagation of their religion: all their wishes to make converts would, in that case, have been counteracted by their unwillingness to mix in the ordinary intercourse of life, with those who were to be converted. Their zeal and the liberal spirit of their religion, were indeed secondary causes which contributed to its propagation: but their zeal was by no means so ridiculously intolerant as this writer would have us believe; if it had, it must have produced effects directly opposite to those which he ascribes to it.

Cause II.

In illustrating the influence of the *second* of these secondary causes to which he ascribes the propagation of Christianity, Mr Gibbon displays no less ingenuity than in tracing the nature and the effects of the first. The doctrine of a future life, improved by every additional circumstance which can give weight and efficacy to that important truth, makes a conspicuous figure in the Christian system; and it is a doctrine highly flattering to the natural hopes and wishes of the human heart.

Though the Heathen philosophers were not unacquainted with this doctrine: yet to them the spirituality of the human soul, its capacity of existence in a separate state from the body, its immortality, and its prospect of lasting happiness in a future life, rather appeared things possible and desirable, than truths fully established upon solid grounds. These doctrines, Mr Gibbon would persuade us, had no influence on the

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the moral ſentiments and general conduct of the Heathens. Even the philoſophers, who amuſed themſelves with diſplaying their eloquence and ingenuity on thoſe ſplendid themes, did not allow them to influence the tenor of their lives. The great body of the people, who were occupied in purſuits very different from the ſpeculations of philoſophy, and were unacquainted with the queſtions diſcuſſed in the ſchools, were ſcarce ever at pains to reflect whether they conſiſted of a material and a ſpiritual part, or whether their exiſtence was to be prolonged beyond the term of the preſent life; and they could not regulate their lives by principles which they did not know.

In the popular ſuperſtition of the Greeks and Romans, the doctrine of a future ſtate was not omitted. Mankind were not only flattered with the hopes of continuing to exiſt beyond the term of the preſent life; but different conditions of exiſtence were promiſed or threatened, in which retributions for their conduct in human life were to be enjoyed or ſuffered. Some were exalted to heaven, and aſſociated with the gods; others were rewarded with leſs illuſtrious honours, and a more moderate ſtate of happineſs, in Elyſium; and thoſe, again, who by their conduct in life had not merited rewards, but puniſhments, were conſigned to Tartarus. Such were the ideas of a future ſtate which made a part of the popular ſuperſtition of the Greeks and Romans. But they produced only a very faint impreſſion on the minds of thoſe among whom they prevailed. They were not truths ſupported by evidence; they were not even plauſible; they were a tiſſue of abſurdities. They had not therefore a more powerful influence on the morals, than the more refined ſpeculations of the philoſophers.

Even the Jews, whoſe religion and legiſlature were communicated from heaven, were in general, till within a very ſhort time before the propagation of the goſpel, as imperfectly acquainted with the doctrine of a future ſtate as the Greeks and Romans. This doctrine made no part of the law of Moſes. It is but darkly and doubtfully inſinuated through the other parts of the Old Teſtament. Thoſe among the Jews who treated the ſacred Scriptures with the higheſt reverence, always denied that ſuch a doctrine could be deduced from any thing which theſe taught; and maintained that death is the final diſſolution of man.

The rude tribes who inhabited ancient Gaul, and ſome other nations not more civilized than they, entertained ideas of a future life, much clearer than thoſe of the Greeks, the Romans, or the Jews.

Chriſtianity, however, explained and inculcated the truth of this doctrine in all its ſplendour and all its dignity. It exhibited an alluring, yet not abſurd, view of the happineſs of a future life. It conferred new horrors on the place of puniſhment, and added new ſeverity to the tortures to be inflicted, in another world. The authority on which it taught thoſe doctrines, and diſplayed theſe views, was ſuch as to ſilence inquiry and doubt, and to command implicit belief. What added to the influence of the doctrine of a future ſtate of exiſtence, thus explained and inculcated, was, that the firſt Chriſtians confidently prophesied and ſincerely believed that the end of the world, the conſummation of all things, was faſt approaching, and that the generation then preſent ſhould live to witneſs that awful event. Another circumſtance which contributed to render the ſame doctrine ſo favourable to the propagation of Chriſtianity was that the firſt Chriſtians dealt damnation without remorſe, and almoſt without making any exceptions, on all who died in the belief of the abſurdities of Heathen ſuperſtition. Thus taught, and improved with theſe additional and heightened circumſtances, this doctrine, partly by preſenting alluring proſpects and exciting pleaſing hopes, partly by working upon the fears of the human heart with repreſentations of terror, operated in the moſt powerful manner in extending the influence of the Chriſtian faith.

Here, too, facts are rather exaggerated, and the inferences ſcarce fairly deduced. It muſt be confeſſed that the ſpeculations of the Heathen philoſophers did not fully and undeniably eſtabliſh the doctrine of the immortality of the human ſoul; nor can we preſume to aſſert, in contradiction to Mr Gibbon, that their arguments could impreſs ſuch a conviction of this truth as might influence in a very ſtrong degree the moral ſentiments and conduct. They muſt, however, have produced ſome influence on theſe. Some of the moſt illuſtrious among the Heathen philoſophers appear to have been ſo ſtrongly impreſſed with the belief of the ſoul's immortality, and of a future ſtate of retribution, that their general conduct was conſtantly and in a high degree influenced by that belief. Plato and Socrates are eminent and well known inſtances. And if, in ſuch inſtances as theſe, the belief of theſe truths produced ſuch conſpicuous effects, it might be fairly inferred, though we had no further evidence, that thoſe characters were far from being ſingular in this reſpect. It is a truth acknowledged as unqueſtionable in the hiſtory of arts and ſciences, that wherever any one perſon has cultivated theſe with extraordinary ſucceſs, ſome among his contemporaries will always be found to have rivalled his excellence, and a number of them to have been engaged in the ſame purſuits. On this occaſion we may venture, without heſitation, to reaſon upon the ſame principles. When the belief of the immortality of the human ſoul produced ſuch illuſtrious patterns of virtue as a Plato and a Socrates, it muſt certainly have influenced the moral ſentiments and conduct of many others, although in an inferior degree. We ſpeculate, we doubt, concerning the truth of many doctrines of Chriſtianity; many who profeſs that they believe them, make this profeſſion only becauſe they have never conſidered ſeriouſly whether they be true or falſe. But, notwithſtanding this, theſe truths ſtill exert a powerful influence on the ſentiments and manners of ſociety in general. Thus, alſo, it appears that the doctrines of ancient philoſophy concerning a future life, and even the notions concerning Olympus, Elyſium, and Tartarus, which made a part of the popular ſuperſtition, *did* produce a certain influence on the ſentiments and manners of the Heathens in general. That influence was often indeed inconſiderable, and not always happy; but ſtill it was ſomewhat greater than Mr Gibbon ſeems willing to allow. Chriſtians have been ſometimes at pains to exaggerate the abſurdities of Pagan ſuperſtition, in order that the advantages of Chriſtianity might acquire new value from being contraſted with it. Here we find one who is rather diſpoſed to be the enemy of Chriſtianity, di play-

23 Obſervations in anſwer.

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ing, and even exaggerating, those absurdities for a very different purpose. But the truth may be safely admitted; it is only when exaggerated that it can serve any purpose inimical to the sacred authority of our holy religion. Mr Gibbon certainly represents the religious doctrine of the ancient Gauls, in respect to the immortality of the human soul and a future state, in too favourable a light. It is only because the whole system of superstition which prevailed among the barbarians is so imperfectly known, that it has been imagined to consist of more sublime doctrines than those of the popular superstition of the Greeks and Romans. The evidence which Mr Gibbon adduces in proof of what he asserts concerning these opinions of the ancient Gauls, is partial, and far from satisfactory. They *did* indeed assert and believe the soul to be immortal; but this doctrine was blended among a number of absurdities much grosser than those which characterize the popular religion of the Greeks and Romans. The latter was the superstition of a civilized people, among whom reason was unfolded and improved by cultivation, and whose manners were polished and liberal; the former was that of barbarians, among whom reason was, as it were, in its infancy, and who were strangers to the improvements of civilization. When hasty observers found that those barbarians were not absolutely strangers to the idea of immorality, they were moved to undue admiration; their surprise at finding what they had not expected, confounded their understanding, and led them to misconceive and misrepresent. What we ought to ascribe to the savage ferocity of the character of those rude tribes, has been attributed by mistake to the influence of their belief of a future state.

In the law of Moses, it must be allowed, that this doctrine is not particularly explained nor earnestly inculcated. The author of the Divine Legation of Moses, &c. has founded upon this fact an ingenious theory, which we shall elsewhere have occasion to examine. The reasons why this doctrine was not more fully explained to the Jews, we cannot pretend to assign, at least in this place; yet we cannot help thinking, that it was more generally known among the Jews than Mr Gibbon and the author of the Divine Legation are willing to allow. Though it be not strongly inculcated in their *code of laws*, yet there is some reason to think that it was known and generally prevalent among them long before the Babylonish captivity; even in different passages in the writings of Moses, it is mentioned or alluded to in an unequivocal manner. In the history of the patriarchs, it appears that this doctrine was known to *them;* it appears to have had a strong influence on the mind of Moses himself. Was David, was Solomon, a stranger to this doctrine? We cannot here descend to very minute particulars; but surely all the efforts of ingenuity must be insufficient to torture the sacred Scriptures of the Old Testament, so as to prove that they contain nothing concerning the doctrine of a future state anywhere but in the writings of the later prophets, and that even in these it is only darkly insinuated. Were the Jews, in the earlier part of their history, so totally secluded from all intercourse with other nations, that a doctrine of so much importance, more or less known to all around, could not be communicated to them? The Pharisees *did* admit traditions, and set upon them an undue value; yet they appear to have been considered as the most orthodox of the different sects which prevailed among the Jews: the Sadducees were rather regarded as innovators.

But though we are of opinion, that this ingenious writer allows to the doctrine of the Greek and Roman philosophers, concerning the immortality of the human soul, as well as the notices concerning a future state, which made a part of the popular superstitions of those nations, less influence on the moral sentiments and conduct of mankind than what they really exerted; though we cannot agree with him in allowing the ideas of the immortality of the soul and of a future state, which were entertained by the Gauls and some other rude nations, to have been much superior in their nature, or much happier in their influence, than those of the Greeks and Romans; and though, in consequence of reading the Old Testament, we are disposed to think that the Jews knew somewhat more concerning the immortality of the human soul, and concerning the future state in which human beings are destined to exist, than Mr Gibbon represents them to have known: yet still we are very sensible, and very well pleased to admit, that "life and immortality were brought to light through the gospel."

The doctrine of a future life, as it was preached by the first Christians, was established on a more solid basis than that on which it had been before maintained; was freed from every absurdity; and was, in short, so much improved, that its influence, which, as it was explained by Heathen poets and philosophers, must be confessed to have been in many instances doubtful, now became favourable only to the interests of piety and virtue, and to them in a very high degree. It undoubtedly contributed to the successful propagation of Christianity; for it was calculated to attract and please both the speculating philosopher and the simple unenlightened votary of the vulgar superstition. The views which it exhibited were distinct; and all was plausible and rational, and demonstrated by the fullest evidence. But the happiness which it promised was of a less sensual nature than the enjoyments which the Heathens expected on Olympus or in Elysium; and would therefore appear less alluring to those who were not very capable of refined ideas, or preferred the gratifications of the senses in the present life to every other species of good. If the first Christians rejoiced in the hope of beholding all the votaries of Pagan idolatry afflicted with the torments of hell in a future state, and boasted of these hopes with inhuman exultation, they would in all probability rather irritate than alarm those whom they sought to convert from that superstition: the Heathens would be moved to regard with indignant scorn the preacher who pretended that those whom they venerated as gods, heroes, and wise men, were condemned to a state of unspeakable and lasting torment. Would not every feeling of the heart revolt against the idea, that a parent, a child, a husband, a wife, a friend, a lover, or a mistress, but lately lost, and still lamented, was consigned to eternal torments for actions and opinions which they had deemed highly agreeable to superior powers?

We may conclude, then, with respect to the influence of this secondary cause in promoting the propagation of Christianity, that the circumstances of the

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Heathen world were leſs favourable to that influence than Mr Gibbon pretends; that the means by which he repreſents the primitive Chriſtians, as improving its efficacy, were ſome of them not employed, and others rather likely to weaken than to ſtrengthen it; and that therefore more is attributed to the operation of this cauſe than it could poſſibly produce.

24 Cauſe III.

The *third cauſe*, the miraculous powers of the primitive church, is with good reaſon repreſented as having conduced very often to the conviction of infidels. Mr Gibbon's reaſonings under this head are, That numerous miraculous works of the moſt extraordinary kind were oſtentatiouſly performed by the firſt Chriſtians: that, however, from the difficulty of fixing the period at which miraculous powers ceaſed to be communicated to the Chriſtian church, and from ſome other circumſtances, there is reaſon to ſuſpect them to have been merely the pretences of impoſture; but this (to uſe a phraſe of his own) is only darkly inſinuated: and, laſtly, that the Heathens having been happily prepared to receive them as real by the many wonders nearly of a ſimilar nature to which they were accuſtomed in their former ſuperſtition, the miracles which the firſt Chriſtians employed to give a ſanction to their doctrines, contributed in the moſt effectual manner to the propagation of Chriſtianity.

25 Obſervations in reply.

In reply to what is here advanced, it may be ſuggeſted, that the miracles recorded in the New Teſtament, as having been performed by the firſt Chriſtians when engaged in propagating their religion, as well as a number of others recorded by the Fathers, are eſtabliſhed as true, upon the moſt indubitable evidence which human teſtimony can afford for any fact. Mr Hume, who was too fond of employing his ingenuity in undermining truths generally received, has endeavoured to prove, that no human teſtimony, however ſtrong and unexceptionable, can afford ſufficient evidence of the reality of a miracle. But his reaſonings on this head, which once excited doubt and wonder, have been ſince completely refuted; and mankind ſtill continue to acknowledge, that though we are all liable to miſtakes and capable of deceit, yet human teſtimony *may* afford the moſt convincing evidence of the moſt extraordinary and even ſupernatural facts. The reader will not expect us to enter, in this place, into a particular examination of the miracles of our Saviour and his apoſtles, and the primitive church. An inquiry into theſe will be a capital object in another part of this work (THEOLOGY.) We may here conſider it as an undeniable and a generally acknowledged fact, that a certain part of thoſe miracles were real. Such as were real undoubtedly contributed, in a very eminent manner, to the propagation of Chriſtianity; but they are not to be ranked among the natural and *ſecondary* cauſes.

It is difficult to diſtinguiſh at what period miraculous gifts ceaſed to be conferred on the members of the primitive church; yet we *may* diſtinguiſh, if we take pains to inquire with minute attention, at what period the evidence ceaſes to be ſatisfactory. We can alſo, by conſidering the circumſtances of the church through the ſeveral ſtages of its hiſtory, form ſome judgment concerning the period during which the gifts of propheſying, and ſpeaking with tongues, and working miracles, were moſt neceſſary to Chriſtians to enable them to aſſert the truth and dignity of their religion.

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The Heathens were no ſtrangers to pretended miracles and prophecies, and other ſeeming interpoſitions of ſuperior beings, diſturbing the ordinary courſe of nature and of human affairs: but the miracles to which they were familiarized had been ſo often detected to be tricks of impoſture or pretences of mad enthuſiaſm, that, inſtead of being prepared to witneſs or to receive accounts of new miracles with eaſy credulity, they muſt have been in general diſpoſed to view them with jealouſy and ſuſpicion. Beſides, the miracles to which they had been accuſtomed, and thoſe performed by the apoſtles and the firſt preachers of Chriſtianity, were directly contradictory; and therefore the one could receive no aſſiſtance from the other.

Yet we muſt acknowledge, notwithſtanding what we have above advanced, that as diſagreements with reſpect to the principles and inſtitutions of their religion very early aroſe among Chriſtians; ſo they likewiſe ſought to extend its influence, at a very early period, by the uſe of *pious frauds*. Pious frauds, too, appear to have ſometimes ſerved the immediate purpoſes for which they were employed, though eventually they have been highly injurious to the cauſe of Chriſtianity.

We conclude, then, that Chriſtianity *was* indebted to the influence of miracles in a conſiderable degree for its propagation: but that the real miracles of our Saviour and his apoſtles, &c. were not among the *ſecondary* cauſes of its ſucceſs: that the Heathens who were to be converted were not very happily prepared for receiving the miracles of the goſpel with blind credulity: that, as it is poſſible to diſcern between ſufficient and inſufficient evidence, ſo it is not more difficult to diſtinguiſh between true and falſe miracles: and, laſtly, that falſe miracles were ſoon employed by Chriſtians as engines to ſupport and propagate their religion, and perhaps not unſucceſsfully; but were, upon the whole, more injurious than ſerviceable to the cauſe which they were called in to maintain.

26 Cauſe IV.

The *fourth of this ſeries of ſecondary cauſes*, which this author thinks to have been adequate to the propagation of Chriſtianity, is the virtues of the primitive Chriſtians. Theſe he is willing to attribute to other and leſs generous motives, rather than to the pure influence of the doctrines and precepts of their religion.

The firſt converts to Chriſtianity were moſt of them from among the loweſt and moſt worthleſs characters. The wiſe, the mighty, and thoſe who were diſtinguiſhed by ſpecious virtues, were in general perfectly ſatisfied with their preſent circumſtances and future proſpects. People whoſe minds were naturally weak, unenlightened, or oppreſſed with the ſenſe of atrocious guilt, and who were infamous or outcaſts from ſociety, were eager to graſp at the hopes which the goſpel held out to them.

When, after enliſting under the banner of Chriſt, they began to conſider themſelves as "born again to newneſs of life;" remorſe and fear, which eaſily prevail over weak minds; ſelfiſh hopes of regaining their reputation, and attaining to the honours and happineſs of thoſe manſions which Jeſus was ſaid to have gone to prepare; with a deſire to raiſe the honour and extend

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the influence of the ſociety of which they were become members: all together operated ſo powerfully as to enable them to diſplay both active and paſſive virtue in a very extraordinary degree. Their virtues did not flow from the pureſt and nobleſt ſource; yet they attracted the notice and moved the admiration of mankind. Of thoſe who admired, ſome were eager to imitate; and, in order to that, thought it neceſſary to adopt the ſame principles of action.

Their virtues, too, were rather of that ſpecies which excite wonder, becauſe uncommon, and not of eſſential utility in the ordinary intercourſe of ſociety; than of thoſe which are indiſpenſably neceſſary to the exiſtence of ſocial order, and contribute to the eaſe and convenience of life. Such virtues were well calculated to engage the imitation of thoſe who had failed egregiouſly in the practice of the more ſocial virtues.

Thus they practiſed extraordinary, but uſeleſs and unſocial virtues, upon no very generous motives; thoſe virtues drew upon them the eyes of the world, and induced numbers to embrace their faith.

27 Obſervations in anſwer.

We muſt, however unwillingly, declare that this is plainly an uncandid account of the virtues of the primitive Chriſtians, and the motives from which they originated. The ſocial virtues are ſtrongly recommended through the goſpel. No degree of mortification or ſelf-denial, or ſecluſion from the ordinary buſineſs and amuſements of ſocial life, was required of the early converts to Chriſtianity; ſave what was indiſpenſably neceſſary to wean them from the irregular habits in which they had before indulged, and which had rendered them nuiſances in ſociety, and to form them to new habits equally neceſſary to their happineſs and their uſefulneſs in life. We allow that they practiſed virtues which in other circumſtances would, however ſplendid, have been unneceſſary. But in the difficult circumſtances in which the firſt Chriſtians were placed, the virtues which they practiſed were in the higheſt degree ſocial. The moſt prominent feature in their character was, "their continuing to entertain ſentiments of generous benevolence, and to diſcharge ſcrupulouſly all the ſocial duties," towards thoſe who exerciſed neither charity nor humanity, and frequently not even bare integrity and juſtice, in their conduct towards them.

It cannot be ſaid with truth, that ſuch a proportion of the primitive Chriſtians were people whoſe characters had been infamous and their circumſtances deſperate, as that the character of the religion which they embraced can ſuffer from this circumſtance. Nor were they *only* the weak and illiterate whom the apoſtles and their immediate ſucceſſors converted by their preaching. The criminal, to be ſure, rejoiced to hear that he might obtain abſolution of his crimes; the mourner was willing to receive comfort; minds of refined and generous feelings were deeply affected with that goodneſs which had induced the Son of God to ſubmit to the puniſhment due to ſinners: but the ſimplicity, the rationality, and the beauty of the Chriſtian ſyſtem, likewiſe prevailed in numerous inſtances over the pride and prejudices of the great and the wiſe: in ſo many inſtances, as are ſufficient to vindicate the Chriſtian church from the aſperſions by which it has been repreſented as being in the firſt period of its exiſtence merely a body of *criminals and idiots*.

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The principles, too, from which the virtues of the firſt Chriſtians originated, were not peculiarly mean and ſelfiſh; nay, they ſeem to have been uncommonly ſublime and diſintereſted. Remorſe in the guilty mind is a natural and reaſonable ſentiment; the deſire of happineſs in every human breaſt is equally ſo. It is uncandid to cavil againſt the firſt Chriſtians for being, like the reſt of mankind, influenced by theſe ſentiments: And when we behold them overlooking temporary poſſeſſions and enjoyments, extending their views to futurity, and "living by faith;" when we obſerve them "doing good to thoſe who hated them, bleſſing thoſe who curſed them, and praying for thoſe by whom they were deſpitefully uſed:" can we deny their virtues to have been of the moſt generous and diſintereſted kind.

We allow then that the virtues of the firſt Chriſtians muſt have contributed to the propagation of their religion: but it is with pain that we obſerve this reſpectable writer ſtudiouſly labouring to miſrepreſent the principles from which thoſe virtues aroſe; and not only the principles from which they aroſe, but alſo their importance in ſociety.

28 Cauſe V. with obſervations.

The *fifth cauſe* was the mode of church government adopted by the firſt Chriſtians, by which they were knit together in one ſociety; who preferred the church and its intereſts to their country and civil concerns. We wiſh not to deny, that the mutual attachment of the primitive Chriſtians contributed to ſpread the influence of their religion; and the order which they maintained, in conſequence of being animated with this ſpirit of brotherly love, and with ſuch ardent zeal for the glory of God, muſt no doubt have produced no leſs happy effects among them than order and regularity produce on every other occaſion on which they are ſtrictly obſerved. But whether the form of church-government, which was gradually eſtabliſhed in the Chriſtian church, was actually the happieſt that could poſſibly have been adopted; or whether, by eſtabliſhing a diſtinct ſociety, with ſeparate intereſts, within the Roman empire, it contributed to the diſſolution of that mighty fabric, we cannot here pretend to inquire. Theſe are ſubjects of diſcuſſion, with reſpect to which we may with more propriety endeavour to ſatisfy our readers elſewhere.

29 General concluſion concerning the influence of the five cauſes.

From the whole of this review of what Mr Gibbon has ſo ſpeciouſly advanced concerning the influence of theſe five ſecondary cauſes in the propagation of the goſpel, we think ourſelves warranted to conclude, That the zeal of the firſt Chriſtians was not, as he repreſents it, intolerant: That the doctrine of the immortality of the human ſoul was ſomewhat better underſtood in the Heathen world, particularly among the Greeks and Romans, and the Jews, than he repreſents it to have been; and had an influence ſomewhat happier than what he aſcribes to it: That the additional circumſtances by which he tells us, the firſt preachers of Chriſtianity improved the effects of this doctrine, were far from being calculated to allure converts: That the heathens, therefore, were not quite ſo well prepared for an eager reception of this doctrine as he would perſuade us they were; and, of conſequence, could not be influenced by it in ſo conſiderable a degree in their converſion: That real, unqueſtionable miracles, performed by our Saviour, by his apoſtles, and

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by their ſucceſſors, *did* contribute ſignally to the propagation of Chriſtianity; but are not to be ranked among the ſecondary cauſes: That weakneſs and blind zeal did at times employ pretended miracles for the ſame purpoſe not altogether ineffectually: That though theſe deſpicable and wicked means might be in ſome inſtances ſucceſsful; yet they were, upon the whole, much more injurious than beneficial: That the virtues of the primitive Chriſtians aroſe from the moſt generous and noble motives, and were in their nature and tendency highly favourable to ſocial order, and to the comfort of mankind in the ſocial ſtate: And, laſtly, That the order and regularity of church-government, which were gradually eſtabliſhed among the firſt Chriſtians, contributed greatly to maintain the dignity and ſpread the influence of their religion; but do not appear to have diſjoined them from their fellow-ſubjects, or to have rendered them inimical to the welfare of the ſtate of which they were members.

Upon the whole, then, we do not ſee that theſe ſecondary cauſes were equal to the effects that have been aſcribed to them; and it ſeems undeniable, that others of a ſuperior kind co-operated with them. We earneſtly recommend to the peruſal of the reader a valuable performance of Lord Hailes's, in which he inquires into Mr Gibbon's aſſertions and reaſonings, concerning the influence of theſe five cauſes, with the utmoſt accuracy of information, ſtrength, and clearneſs of reaſoning, and elegant ſimplicity of ſtyle, and without virulence or paſſion.

CHRISTIANS, thoſe who profeſs the religion of Chriſt: See CHRISTIANITY and MESSIAH.—The name *Chriſtian* was firſt given at Antioch, in the year 42, to ſuch as believed in Chriſt, as we read in the Acts: till that time they were called *diſciples*.

The firſt Chriſtians diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the moſt remarkable manner by their conduct and their virtues. The faithful, whom the preaching of St Peter had converted, hearkened attentively to the exhortations of the Apoſtles, who failed not carefully to inſtruct them, as perſons who were entering upon an entirely new life. They went every day to the temple with one heart and one mind, and continued in prayers; doing nothing different from the other Jews, becauſe it was yet not time to ſeparate from them. But they made a ſtill greater progreſs in virtue; for they ſold all that they poſſeſſed, and diſtributed their goods in proportion to the wants of their brethren. They *ate their meat with gladneſs and ſingleneſs of heart, praiſing God, and having favour with all the people.* St Chryſoſtom, examining from what ſource the eminent virtue of the firſt Chriſtians flowed, aſcribes it principally to their diveſting themſelves of their poſſeſſions: "For (ſays the father) perſons from whom "all that they have is taken away, are not ſubject to "ſin: whereas, whoever has large poſſeſſions, wants "not a devil or a tempter to draw him into hell by a "thouſand ways."

The Jews were the firſt and the moſt inveterate enemies the Chriſtians had. They put them to death as often as they had it in their power: and when they revolted againſt the Romans in the time of the emperor Adrian, Barcochebas, the head of that revolt, employed againſt the Chriſtians the moſt rigorous puniſhments to compel them to blaſpheme and renounce Jeſus Chriſt. And we find that, even in the third century, they endeavoured to get into their hands Chriſtian women, in order to ſcourge and ſtone them in their ſynagogues. They curſed the Chriſtians ſolemnly three times a-day in their ſynagogues, and their rabbins would not ſuffer them to converſe with Chriſtians upon any occaſion. Nor were they contented to hate and deteſt them; but they deſpatched emiſſaries all over the world to defame the Chriſtians, and ſpread all ſorts of calumnies againſt them. They accuſed them, among other things, of worſhipping the ſun and the head of an aſs. They reproached them with idleneſs, and being an uſeleſs race of people. They charged them with treaſon, and endeavouring to erect a new monarchy againſt that of the Romans. They affirmed, that, in celebrating their myſteries, they uſed to kill a child and eat its fleſh. They accuſed them of the moſt ſhocking inceſts, and of intemperance in their feaſts of charity. But the lives and behaviour of the firſt Chriſtians were ſufficient to refute all that was ſaid againſt them, and evidently demonſtrated that theſe accuſations were mere calumny and the effect of inveterate malice.

Pliny the younger, who was governor of Pontus and Bithynia between the years 103 and 105, gives a very particular account of the Chriſtians in that province, in a letter which he wrote to the emperor Trajan, of which the following is an extract: "I take "the liberty, Sir, to give you an account of every "difficulty which ariſes to me. I have never been "preſent at the examination of the Chriſtians; for "which reaſon I know not what queſtions have been "put to them, nor in what manner they have been "puniſhed. My behaviour towards thoſe who have "been accuſed to me has been this: I have interro-"gated them, in order to know whether they were "really Chriſtians. When they have confeſſed it, I "have repeated the ſame queſtion two or three times, "threatening them with death if they did not re-"nounce this religion. Thoſe who have perſiſted "in their confeſſion, have been, by my order, led to "puniſhment. I have even met with ſome Roman "citizens guilty of this phrenſy, whom, in regard to "their quality, I have ſet apart from the reſt, in or-"der to ſend them to Rome. Theſe perſons de-"clare, that their whole crime, if they are guilty, "conſiſts in this; that, on certain days, they aſſem-"ble before ſunriſe, to ſing alternately the praiſes "of Chriſt, as of a god, and to oblige themſelves, "by the performance of their religious rites, not to "be guilty of theft, or adultery, to obſerve inviolably "their word, and to be true to their truſt. This "depoſition has obliged me to endeavour to inform "myſelf ſtill farther of this matter, by putting to the "torture two of their women-ſervants, whom they "call *deaconneſſes*; but I could learn nothing more "from them than that the ſuperſtition of theſe peo-"ple is as ridiculous as their attachment to it is aſto-"niſhing."

There is extant a juſtification, or rather panegyric, of the Chriſtians, pronounced by the mouth of a Pagan prince. It is a letter of the emperor Antoninus, written in the year 152, in anſwer to the States of Aſia, who had accuſed the Chriſtians of being the cauſe of ſome earthquakes which had happened in that

Chriſtians. that part of the world. The emperor adviſes them to "take care, leſt, in torturing and puniſhing thoſe whom they accuſed of Atheiſm (meaning the Chriſtians), they ſhould render them more obſtinate, inſtead of prevailing upon them to change their opinion; ſince their religion taught them to ſuffer with pleaſure for the ſake of God." As to the earthquakes which had happened, he put them in mind, "that they themſelves are always diſcouraged, and ſink under ſuch misfortunes; whereas the Chriſtians never diſcovered more cheerfulneſs and confidence in God than upon ſuch occaſions." He tells them, that "they pay no regard to religion, and neglect the worſhip of the Eternal; and, becauſe the Chriſtians honour and adore Him, therefore they are jealous of them, and perſecute them even to death." He concludes: "Many of the governors of provinces have formerly written to my father concerning them; and his anſwer always was, that they ſhould not be moleſted or diſturbed, provided they quietly ſubmitted to the authority of the government. Many perſons have likewiſe conſulted me upon this affair, and I have returned the ſame anſwer to them all; namely, that if any one accuſes a Chriſtian merely on account of his religion, the accuſed perſon ſhall be acquitted, and the accuſer himſelf puniſhed." This ordinance, according to Euſebius, was publicly fixed up at Epheſus in an aſſembly of the ſtates.

It is no difficult matter to diſcover the cauſes of the many perſecutions to which the Chriſtians were expoſed during the three firſt centuries. The purity of the Chriſtian morality, directly oppoſite to the corruption of the Pagans, was doubtleſs one of the moſt powerful motives of the public averſion. To this may be added, the many calumnies unjuſtly ſpread about concerning them by their enemies, particularly the Jews. And this occaſioned ſo ſtrong a prejudice againſt them, that the Pagans condemned them without inquiring into their doctrine, or permitting them to defend themſelves. Beſides, their worſhipping Jeſus Chriſt as God, was contrary to one of the moſt ancient laws of the Roman empire, which expreſsly forbade the acknowledging of any God which had not been approved by the ſenate.

But notwithſtanding the violent oppoſition made to the eſtabliſhment of the Chriſtian religion, it gained ground daily, and very ſoon made a ſurpriſing progreſs in the Roman empire. In the third century, there were Chriſtians in the camp, in the ſenate, in the palace: in ſhort everywhere, but in the temples and the theatres: they filled the towns, the country, the iſlands. Men and women of all ages and conditions, and even thoſe of the firſt dignities, embraced the faith; inſomuch that the Pagans complained that the revenues of their temples were ruined. They were in ſuch great numbers in the empire, that (as Tertullian expreſſes it) were they to have retired into another country, they would have left the Romans only a frightful ſolitude.

The primitive Chriſtians were not only remarkable for the practice of every virtue; they were alſo very eminently diſtinguiſhed by the many miraculous gifts and graces beſtowed by God upon them. "Some of the Chriſtians (ſays Irenæus) drive out devils, not in appearance only, but ſo as that they never return: whence it often happens, that thoſe who are diſpoſſeſſed of evil ſpirits embrace the faith and are received into the church. Others know what is to come, ſee viſions, and deliver oracles as prophets. Others heal the ſick by laying their hands on them, and reſtore them to perfect health: and we find ſome who even raiſe the dead.—It is impoſſible to reckon up the gifts and graces which the church has received from God—what they have freely received they as freely beſtow. They obtain theſe gifts by prayer alone, and invocation of the name of Jeſus Chriſt, without any mixture of enchantment or ſuperſtition." Chriſtians.

We ſhall here ſubjoin the remarkable ſtory, atteſted by Pagan authors themſelves, concerning the *Chriſtian Legion* in the army of the emperor Marcus Aurelius. That prince having led his forces againſt the Quadi, a people on the other ſide of the Danube, was ſurrounded and hemmed in by the enemy in a diſadvantageous place, and where they could find no water. The Romans were greatly embarraſſed, and, being preſſed by the enemy, were obliged to continue under arms, expoſed to the violent heat of the ſun, and almoſt dead with thirſt; when, on a ſudden, the clouds gathered, and the rain fell in great abundance. The ſoldiers received the water in their bucklers and helmets, and ſatisfied both their own thirſt and that of their horſes. The enemy, preſently after, attacked them; and ſo great was the advantage they had over them, that the Romans muſt have been overthrown, had not Heaven again interpoſed by a violent ſtorm of hail, mixed with lightning, which fell on the enemy, and obliged them to retreat. It was found afterwards, that one of the legions, which conſiſted of Chriſtians, had by their prayers, which they offered upon their knees before the battle, obtained this favour from heaven: and from this event that legion was ſurnamed *The Thundering Legion*. See, however, the criticiſm of Mr Moyle on this ſtory in his *Works*, vol. ii. p. 81—390. See alſo *Moſheim's Church Hiſtory*, vol. i. p. 124.

Such were the primitive Chriſtians, whoſe religion has by degrees ſpread itſelf over all parts of the world, though not with equal purity in all. And though, by the providence of God, Mahometans and Idolaters have been ſuffered to poſſeſs themſelves of thoſe places in Greece, Aſia, and Africa, where the Chriſtian religion formerly moſt flouriſhed; yet there are ſtill ſuch remains of the Chriſtian religion among them as to give them opportunity ſufficient to be converted. For, in the dominions of the Turk in Europe, the Chriſtians make two third parts at leaſt of the inhabitants; and in Conſtantinople itſelf there are above twenty Chriſtian churches, and above thirty in Theſſalonica. Philadelphia, now called *Ala-ſhahir*, has no fewer than twelve Chriſtian churches. The whole iſland of Chio is governed by Chriſtians; and ſome iſlands of the Archipelago are inhabited by Chriſtians only. In Africa, beſides the Chriſtians living in Egypt, and in the kingdom of Congo and Angola, the iſlands upon the weſtern coaſts are inhabited by Chriſtians; and the vaſt kingdom of Abyſſinia, ſuppoſed to be as big as Germany, France, Spain, and Italy, put together, is poſſeſſed by Chriſtians. In Aſia, moſt part of the empire of Ruſſia, the countries of Circaſſia and Mingrelia, Georgia, and Mount Libanus, are inhabited

Chriſtians || Chriſtina.

habited only by Chriſtians. In America, it is notorious that the Chriſtians are very numerous, and ſpread over moſt parts of that vaſt continent.

CHRISTIANS of St John, a ſect of Chriſtians very numerous in Balfara and the neighbouring towns: they formerly inhabited along the river Jordan, where St John baptized, and it was from thence they had their name. They hold an anniverſary feaſt of five days; during which they all go to the biſhop, who baptizes them with the baptiſm of St John. Their baptiſm is alſo performed in rivers, and that only on Sundays: they have no notion of the third perſon in the Trinity; nor have they any canonical book, but abundance full of charms, &c. Their biſhoprics deſcend by inheritance, as our eſtates do, though they have the ceremony of an election.

CHRISTIANS of St Thomas, a ſort of Chriſtians in a peninſula of India on this ſide of the gulf: they inhabit chiefly at Cranganor, and the neighbouring country: theſe admit of no images; and receive only the croſs, to which they pay a great veneration: they affirm, that the ſouls of the ſaints do not ſee God till after the day of judgment: they acknowledge but three ſacraments, viz. baptiſm, orders, and the euchariſt; they make no uſe of holy oils in the adminiſtration of baptiſm; but, after the ceremony, anoint the infant with an unction compoſed of oil and walnuts, without any benediction. In the euchariſt, they conſecrate with little cakes made of oil and ſalt, and inſtead of wine make uſe of water in which raiſins have been infuſed.

CHRISTIANA, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuys, ſituated in a bay of the ſea. E. Long. 10. 20. N. Lat. 59. 30.

CHRISTIANOPLE, a port-town of Sweden, ſituated on the Baltic ſea, in the territory of Bleckingen, and province of South Gothland. E. Long. 15. 47. N. Lat. 57°.

CHRISTIANSTADT, a ſtrong fortified town of Sweden; ſituated in the territory of Bleckingen and province of South Gothland. It was built in 1614 by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, when this province belonged to the Danes; and finally ceded to the Swedes by the peace of Roſkild in 1658. The town is ſmall but neatly built, and is eſteemed the ſtrongeſt fortreſs in Sweden. The houſes are all of brick, and moſtly ſtuccoed white. It ſtands in a marſhy plain cloſe to the river Helgeia, which flows into the Baltic at Ahus, about the diſtance of 20 miles, and is navigable only for ſmall craft of ſeven tons burden. Engliſh veſſels annually reſort to this port for alum, pitch, and tar. The inhabitants have manufactures of cloth and ſilken ſtuffs, and carry on a ſmall degree of commerce. E. Long. 14. 40. N. Lat. 56. 30.

CHRISTINA, daughter of Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden, was born in 1626; and ſucceeded to the crown in 1633, when only ſeven years of age. This princeſs diſcovered, even in her infancy, what ſhe afterwards expreſſed in her memoirs, an invincible antipathy for the employments and converſation of women; and ſhe had the natural aukwardneſs of a man with reſpect to all the little works which generally fall to their ſhare. She was, on the contrary, fond of violent exerciſes, and ſuch amuſements as conſiſt in feats of ſtrength and activity. She had alſo both ability and taſte for abſtracted ſpeculations; and amuſed herſelf with language and the ſciences, particularly that of legiſlation and government. She derived her knowledge of ancient hiſtory from its ſource; and Polybius and Thucydides were her favourite authors. As ſhe was the ſovereign of a powerful kingdom, it is not ſtrange that almoſt all the princes in Europe aſpired to her bed. Among others, were the prince of Denmark, the elector Palatine, the elector of Brandenburg, the king of Spain, the king of the Romans, Don Jehn of Auſtria, Sigiſmund of Rockocci, count and general of Caſſovia; Staniſlaus king of Poland; John Caſſimir his brother; and Charles Guſtavus duke of Deux Ponts, of the Bavarian Palatinate family, ſon of her father the great Guſtavus's ſiſter, and conſequently her firſt couſin. To this nobleman, as well as to all his competitors, ſhe conſtantly refuſed her hand; but ſhe cauſed him to be appointed her ſucceſſor by the ſtates. Political intereſts, differences of religion, and contrariety of manners, furniſhed Chriſtina with pretences for rejecting all her ſuitors; but her true motives were the love of independence, and a ſtrong averſion ſhe had conceived, even in her infancy, from the marriage yoke. "Do not force me to marry (ſaid ſhe to the ſtates); for if I ſhould have a ſon, it is not more probable that he ſhould be an Auguſtus than a Nero."

An accident happened in the beginning of her reign, which gave her a remarkable opportunity of diſplaying the ſtrength and equanimity of her mind. As ſhe was at the chapel of the caſtle of Stockholm, aſſiſting at divine ſervice with the principal lords of her court, a poor wretch, who was diſordered in his mind, came to the place with a deſign to aſſaſſinate her. This man, who was preceptor of the college, and in the full vigour of his age, choſe, for the execution of his deſign, the moment in which the aſſembly was performing what in the Swediſh church is called an *act of recollection*; a ſilent and ſeparate act of devotion, performed by each individual kneeling and hiding the face with the hand. Taking this opportunity, he ruſhed through the crowd, and mounted a balluſtrade within which the queen was upon her knees. The Baron Braki, chief juſtice of Sweden, was alarmed, and cried out; and the guards croſſed their partiſans, to prevent his coming further: but he ſtruck them furiouſly on one ſide; leaped over the barrier; and, being then cloſe to the queen, made a blow at her with a knife which he had concealed without a ſheath in his ſleeve. The queen avoided the blow, and puſhed the captain of her guards, who inſtantly threw himſelf upon the aſſaſſin, and ſeized him by the hair. All this happened in leſs than a moment of time. The man was known to be mad, and therefore nobody ſuppoſed he had any accomplices: they therefore contented themſelves with locking him up; and the queen returned to her devotion without the leaſt emotion that could be perceived by the people, who were much more frightened than herſelf.

One of the great affairs that employed Chriſtina while ſhe was upon the throne, was the peace of Weſtphalia, in which many claſhing intereſts were to be reconciled, and many claims to be aſcertained. It was concluded in the month of October 1648. The ſucceſs of the Swediſh arms rendered Chriſtina the arbitreſs

Christina. bitreſs of this treaty; at leaſt as to the affairs of Sweden, to which this peace confirmed the poſſeſſion of many important countries. No public event of importance took place during the reſt of Chriſtina's reign; for there were neither wars abroad, nor troubles at home. This quiet might be the effect of chance; but it might alſo be the effect of a good adminiſtration, and the great reputation of the queen; and the love her people had for her ought to lead us to this determination. Her reign was that of learning and genius. She drew about her, wherever ſhe was, all the diſtinguiſhed characters of her time: Grotius, Paſchal, Bochart, Deſcartes, Gaſſendi, Saumaiſe, Naude, Voſſius, Heinſius, Meibom, Scudery, Menage, Lucas, Holſtentius, Lambecius, Bayle, Madame Dacier, Filicaia, and many others. The arts never fail to immortalize the prince who protects them; and almoſt all theſe illuſtrious perſons have celebrated Chriſtina, either in poems, letters, or literary productions of ſome other kind, the greater part of which are now forgotten. They form, however, a general cry of praiſe, and a maſs of teſtimonials which may be conſidered as a ſolid baſis of reputation. Chriſtina, however, may be juſtly reproached with want of taſte, in not properly aſſigning the rank of all theſe perſons, whoſe merits, though acknowledged, were yet unequal; particularly for not having been ſufficiently ſenſible of the ſuperiority of Deſcartes, whom ſhe diſguſted, and at laſt wholly neglected. The rapid fortune which the adventurer Michon, known by the name of *Bourdelot*, acquired by her countenance and liberality, was alſo a great ſcandal to literature. He had no pretenſions to learning; and though ſprightly was yet indecent. He was brought to court by the learned Saumaiſe; and, for a time, drove literary merit out of it, making learning the object of his ridicule, and exacting from Chriſtina an exorbitant tribute to the weakneſs and inconſtancy of her ſex; for even Chriſtina, with reſpect to this man, ſhowed herſelf to be weak and inconſtant. At laſt ſhe was compelled, by the public indignation, to baniſh this unworthy minion: and he was no ſooner gone than her regard for him was at an end. She was aſhamed of the favour ſhe had ſhown him; and, in a ſhort time, thought of him with hatred or contempt. This Bourdelot, during his aſcendency over the queen, had ſupplanted Count Magnus de la Gardie, ſon of the conſtable of Sweden, who was a relation, a favourite, and perhaps the lover of Chriſtina. M. de Mottville, who had ſeen him ambaſſador in France, ſays, in his memoirs, that he ſpoke of his queen in terms ſo paſſionate and reſpectful, that every one concluded his attachment to her to be more ardent and tender than a mere ſenſe of duty can produce. This nobleman fell into diſgrace becauſe he ſhowed an inclination to govern; while M. Bourdelot ſeemed to aim at nothing more than to amuſe; and concealed, under the unſuſpected character of a droll, the real aſcendency which he exerciſed over the queen's mind.

About this time, an accident happened to Chriſtina which brought her into ſtill greater danger than that which has been related already. Having given orders for ſome ſhips of war to be built at the port of Stockholm, ſhe went to ſee them when they were finiſhed; and as ſhe was going on board of them, croſs a narrow plank, with Admiral Fleming, his foot ſlipping, he fell, and drew the queen with him into the ſea, which in that place was near 90 feet deep. Anthony Steinberg, the queen's firſt equerry, inſtantly threw himſelf into the water, laid hold of her robe, and, with ſuch aſſiſtance as was given him, got the queen aſhore: during this accident, her recollection was ſuch, that the moment her lips were above water, ſhe cried out, "Take care of the admiral." When ſhe was got out of the water, ſhe diſcovered no emotion either by her geſture or countenance; and ſhe dined the ſame day in public, where ſhe gave a humorous account of her adventure. Christina.

But though at firſt ſhe was fond of the power and ſplendour of royalty, yet ſhe began at length to feel that it embarraſſed her; and the ſame love of independency and liberty which had determined her againſt marriage, at laſt made her weary of the crown. As, after her firſt diſguſt, it grew more and more irkſome to her, ſhe reſolved to abdicate; and, in 1652, communicated her reſolution to the ſenate. The ſenate zealouſly remonſtrated againſt it; and was joined by the people; and even by Charles Guſtavus himſelf, who was to ſucceed her: ſhe yielded to their importunities, and continued to ſacrifice her own pleaſure to the will of the public till the year 1654, and then ſhe carried her deſign into execution. It appears by one of her letters to M. Canut, in whom ſhe put great confidence, that ſhe had meditated this project for more than eight years; and that ſhe had communicated it to him five years before it took place.

The ceremony of her abdication was a mournful ſolemnity, a mixture of pomp and ſadneſs, in which ſcarce any eyes but her own were dry. She continued firm and compoſed through the whole; and, as ſoon as it was over, prepared to remove into a country more favourable to ſcience than Sweden was. Concerning the merit of this action, the world has always been divided in opinion; it has been condemned alike both by the ignorant and the learned, the triflier and the ſage. It was admired, however, by the great Conde: "How great was the magnanimity of this princeſs (ſaid he), who could ſo eaſily give up that for which the reſt of mankind are continually deſtroying each other, and which ſo many throughout their whole lives purſue without attaining!" It appears, by the works of St Evremond, that the abdication of Chriſtina was at that time the univerſal topic of ſpeculation and debate in France. Chriſtina, beſides abdicating her crown, abjured her religion: but this act was univerſally approved by one party and cenſured by another; the Papiſts triumphed, and the Proteſtants were offended. No prince, after a long impriſonment, ever ſhowed ſo much joy upon being reſtored to his kingdom, as Chriſtina did in quitting hers. When ſhe came to a little brook, which ſeparates Sweden from Denmark, ſhe got out of her carriage; and leaping on the other ſide, cried out in a tranſport of joy, "At laſt I am free, and out of Sweden, whither, I hope, I ſhall never return." She diſmiſſed her women, and laid by the habit of her ſex: "I would become a man (ſaid ſhe); yet I do not love men becauſe they are men, but becauſe they are not women." She made her abjuration at Bruſſels; where ſhe ſaw the great Conde, who, after his

Christina. his defection, made that city his asylum. "Cousin, (said she), who would have thought, ten years ago, that we should have met at this distance from our countries?"

The inconstancy of Christina's temper appeared in her going continually from place to place: from Brussels she went to Rome; from Rome to France, and from France she returned to Rome again; after this she went to Sweden, where she was not very well received; from Sweden she went to Hamburgh, where she continued a year, and then went again to Rome; from Rome she returned to Hamburgh; and again to Sweden, where she was still worse received than before; upon which she went back to Hamburgh, and from Hamburgh again to Rome. She intended another journey to Sweden; but it did not take place, any more than an expedition to England, where Cromwell did not seem well disposed to receive her; and after many wanderings, and many purposes of wandering still more, she at last died at Rome in 1689.

It must be acknowledged, that her journeys to Sweden had a motive of necessity; for her appointments were very ill paid, though the states often confirmed them after her abdication: but to other places she was led merely by a roving disposition; and, what is more to her discredit, she always disturbed the quiet of every place she came into, by exacting greater deference to her rank as queen than she had a right to expect, by her total non-conformity to the customs of the place, and by continually exciting and fomenting intrigues of state. She was indeed always too busy, even when she was upon the throne; for there was no event in Europe in which she was not ambitious of acting a principal part. During the troubles in France by the faction called the *Fronde*, she wrote with great eagerness to all the interested parties, officiously offering her mediation to reconcile their interests, and calm their passions, the secret springs of which it was impossible she should know. This was first thought a dangerous, and afterwards a ridiculous behaviour. During her residence in France she gave universal disgust, not only by violating all the customs of the country, but by practising others directly opposite. She treated the ladies of the court with the greatest rudeness and contempt: when they came to embrace her, she, being in man's habit, cried out, "What a strange eagerness have these women to kiss me! is it because I look like a man?"

But though she ridiculed the manners of the French court, she was very solicitous to enter into its intrigues. Louis XIV. then very young, was enamoured of Mademoiselle de Mancini, niece to Cardinal Mazarine; Christina flattered their passion, and offered her service. "I would fain be your confidant (said she); if you love, you must marry."

The murder of Monaldechi is, to this hour, an inscrutable mystery. It is, however, of a piece with the expressions constantly used by Christina in her letters, with respect to those with whom she was offended; for she scarce ever signified her displeasure without threatening the life of the offender. "If you fail in your duty, (said she to her secretary, whom she sent to Stockholm after her abdication), not all the power of the king of Sweden shall save your life, though you should take shelter in his arms." A musician having quitted her service for that of the duke of Savoy, she was so transported with rage as to disgrace herself by these words, in a letter written with her own hand: "He lives only for me: and if he does not sing for me, he shall not sing long for any body." Christina || Christopher's.

Bayle was also threatened for having said that the letter which Christina wrote, upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes, was "a remain of Protestantism;" but he made his peace by apologies and submission. See the article BAYLE.

Upon the whole, she appears to have been an uncommon mixture of faults and great qualities; which, however it might excite fear and respect, was by no means amiable. She had wit, taste, parts, and learning: she was indefatigable upon the throne; great in private life; firm in misfortunes; impatient of contradiction; and, except in her love letters, inconstant in her inclinations. The most remarkable instance of this fickleness is, That after she had abdicated the crown of Sweden, she intrigued for that of Poland. She was, in every action and pursuit, violent and ardent in the highest degree; impetuous in her desires, dreadful in her resentment, and fickle in her conduct.

She says of herself, that, "she was mistrustful, ambitious, passionate, haughty, impatient, contemptuous, satirical, incredulous, undevout, of an ardent and violent temper, and extremely amorous;" a disposition, however, to which, if she may be believed, her pride and her virtue were always superior. In general, her failings were those of her sex, and her virtues the virtues of ours.

Santa CHRISTINA, one of the MARQUESAS *Islands*.

CHRISTMAS DAY, a festival of the Christian church; observed on the 25th of December, in memory of the *nativity* or birth of Jesus Christ. As to the antiquity of this festival, the first footsteps we find of it are in the second century, about the time of the emperor Commodus. The decretal epistles indeed carry it up a little higher; and say that Telesphorus, who lived in the reign of Antoninus Pius, ordered divine service to be celebrated, and an angelical hymn to be sung the night before the nativity of our Saviour. However, that it was kept before the times of Constantine, we have a melancholy proof: for whilst the persecution raged under Diocletian, who then kept his court at Nicomedia, that prince, among other acts of cruelty, finding multitudes of Christians assembled together to celebrate Christ's nativity, commanded the church doors where they were met to be shut, and fire to be put to it, which, in a short time, reduced them and the church to ashes.

CHRISTOPHER'S, ST, one of the Caribbee islands, in America, lying on the north-west of Nevis, and about 60 miles west of Antigua. It was formerly inhabited by the French and English; but, in 1713, it was ceded entirely to the latter. In 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored to Britain at the peace. It is about 20 miles in breadth, and seven in length; and has high mountains in the middle, whence rivulets run down. Between the mountains are dreadful rocks, horrid precipices, and thick woods; and in the south-west part of the island, hot sulphureous springs at the foot of them. The air is good; the soil light,

Christopher's || Chromatic.

light, ſandy, and fruitful; but the iſland is ſubject to hurricanes. The produce is chiefly ſugar, cotton, ginger, indigo, and the tropical fruits. W. Long. 62. 32. N. Lat. 17. 30.

CHROASTACES, an old term in *Natural Hiſtory*, applied to gems, and comprehending all thoſe of variable colours, as viewed in different lights and in different poſitions; of which kinds are the *opal* and the *aſteria* or cat's eye.

CHROMATIC, a kind of muſic which proceeds by ſeveral ſemitones in ſucceſſion. The word is derived from the Greek χρωμα, which ſignifies *colour*. For this denomination ſeveral cauſes are aſſigned, of which none appear certain, and all equally unſatisfactory. Inſtead, therefore, of fixing upon any, we ſhall offer a conjecture of our own; which, however, we do not impoſe upon the reader as more worthy of his attention than any of the former. χρωμα may perhaps not only ſignify a *colour*, but that of a ſhade of a colour by which it melts into another, or what the French call *nuance*. If this interpretation be admitted, it will be highly applicable to ſemitones; which being the ſmalleſt interval allowed in the diatonic ſcale, will moſt eaſily run one into another. To find the reaſons aſſigned by the ancients for this denomination, and their various diviſions of the chromatic ſpecies, the reader may have recourſe to the ſame article in Rouſſeau's Muſical Dictionary. At preſent, that ſpecies conſiſts in giving ſuch a procedure to the fundamental baſs, that the parts in the harmony, or at leaſt ſome of them, may proceed by ſemitones, as well in riſing as deſcending; which is moſt frequently found in the minor mode, from the alterations to which the ſixth and ſeventh note are ſubjected, by the nature of the mode itſelf.

The ſucceſſive ſemitones uſed in the *chromatic* ſpecies are rarely of the ſame kind; but alternately major and minor, that is to ſay, *chromatic* and *diatonic*: for the interval of a minor tone contains a minor or chromatic ſemitone, and another which is major or diatonic; a meaſure which temperament renders common to all tones: ſo that we cannot proceed by two minor ſemitones which are conjunctive in ſucceſſion, without entering into the enharmonic ſpecies; but two major ſemitones twice follow each other in the *chromatic* order of the ſcale. Chromatic.

The moſt certain procedure of the fundamental baſs to generate the chromatic elements in aſcent, is alternately to deſcend by thirds, and riſe by fourths, whilſt all the chords carry the third major. If the fundamental baſs proceeds from dominant to dominant by perfect cadences avoided, it produces the *chromatic* in deſcending. To produce both at once, you interweave the perfect and broken cadences, but at the ſame time avoid them.

As at every note in the *chromatic* ſpecies one muſt change the tone, that ſucceſſion ought to be regulated and limited for fear of deviation. For this purpoſe, it will be proper to recollect, that the ſpace moſt ſuitable to *chromatic* movements, is between the extremes of the dominant and the tonic in aſcending, and between the tonic and the dominant in deſcending. In the major mode, one may alſo chromatically deſcend from the dominant upon the ſecond note. This tranſition is very common in Italy; and, notwithſtanding its beauty, begins to be a little too common amongſt us.

The chromatic ſpecies is admirably fitted to expreſs grief and affliction; theſe ſounds boldly ſtruck in aſcending tear the ſoul. Their power is no leſs magical in deſcending; it is then that the ear ſeems to be pierced with real groans. Attended with its proper harmony, this ſpecies appears proper to expreſs every thing; but its completion, by concealing the melody, ſacrifices a part of its expreſſion; and for this diſadvantage, ariſing from the fulneſs of the harmony, it can only be compenſated by the nature and genius of the movement. We may add, that in proportion to the energy of this ſpecies, the compoſer ought to uſe it with greater caution and parſimony; like thoſe elegant viands, which, when profuſely adminiſtered, immediately ſurfeit us with their abundance; as much as they delight us when enjoyed with temperance, ſo much do they diſguſt when devoured with prodigality.

CHROMATIC, *Enharmonic*. See ENHARMONIC.

CHROMATICS;

THAT part of optics which explains the ſeveral properties of the colours of light, and of natural bodies.

1 Different hypotheſes concerning colours.

Before the time of Sir Iſaac Newton, we find no hypotheſis concerning colours of any conſequence. The opinions of the old philoſophers, however, we ſhall briefly mention, in order to gratify the curioſity of our readers. The Pythagoreans called colour the ſuperfices of body. Plato ſaid that it was a flame iſſuing from them. According to Zeno, it is the firſt configuration of matter; and Ariſtotle ſaid, it was that which moved bodies actually tranſparent. Des Cartes aſſerted, that colour is a modification of light; but he imagined, that the difference of colour proceeds from the prevalence of the direct or rotatory motion of the particles of light. Father Grimaldi, Dechales, and many others, thought the difference of colour depended upon the quick or ſlow vibrations of a certain elaſtic medium filling the whole univerſe. Rohault imagined that the different colours were made by the rays of light entering the eye at different angles with reſpect to the optic axis; and from the phenomena of the rainbow, he pretended to calculate the preciſe quantity of the angle that conſtituted each particular colour. Laſtly, Dr Hooke, the rival of Newton, imagined that colour is cauſed by the ſenſation of the oblique or uneven pulſe of light; and this being capable of no more than two varieties, he concluded there could be no more than two primary colours.

2 This ſubject inveſtigated by Sir Iſaac Newton.

In the year 1666, Sir Iſaac Newton began to inveſtigate this ſubject; and finding the coloured image of the ſun, formed by a glaſs priſm, to be of an oblong,

and not of a circular form, as, according to the laws of refraction, it ought to be, he began to conjecture that light is not *homogeneal;* but that it consists of rays, some of which are much more refrangible than others. See this discovery fully explained and ascertained under the article OPTICS.

This method of accounting for the different colours of bodies, from their reflecting this or that kind of rays most copiously, is so easy and natural, that Sir Isaac's system quickly overcame all objections, and to this day continues to be almost universally believed. It is now acknowledged, that the light of the sun which to us seems perfectly homogeneal and white, is composed of no fewer than seven different colours, viz. red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, and violet or indigo. A body which appears of a red colour hath the property of reflecting the red rays more powerfully than any of the others; and so of the orange, yellow, green, &c. A body which is of a black colour, instead of reflecting, *absorbs* all or the greatest part of the rays that fall upon it; and, on the contrary, a body which appears white reflects the greatest part of the rays indiscriminately, without separating the one from the other.

The foundation of a rational theory of colours being thus laid, it next became natural to inquire, by what peculiar mechanism in the structure of each particular body it was fitted to reflect one kind of rays more than another? This Sir Isaac Newton attributes to the density of these bodies. Dr Hooke had remarked, that thin transparent substances, particularly water and soap blown into bubbles, exhibited various colours according to their thinness; though, when they have a considerable degree of thickness, they appear colourless; and Sir Isaac himself had observed, that as he was compressing two prisms hard together, in order to make their sides (which happened to be a little convex) to touch one another, in the place of contact they were both perfectly transparent, as if they had been but one continued piece of glass. Round the point of contact, where the glasses were a little separated from each other, rings of different colours appeared. To observe more nicely the order of the colours produced in this manner, he took two object-glasses; one of them a plano-convex one belonging to a 14 feet refracting telescope, and the other a large double convex one for a telescope of about 50 feet; and laying the former of them upon the latter, with its plain side downwards, he pressed them slowly together; by which means the colours very soon emerged, and appeared distinct to a considerable distance. Next to the pellucid centrical spot, made by the contact of the glasses, succeeded blue, white, yellow, and red. The blue was very little in quantity, nor could he discern any violet in it; but the yellow and red were very copious, extending about as far as the white, and four or five times as far as the blue. The next circuit immediately surrounding these, consisted of violet, blue, green, yellow, and red: all these were copious and vivid, except the green, which was very little in quantity, and seemed more faint and dilute than the other colours. Of the other four the violet was the least in extent; and the blue less than the yellow or red. The third circle of colours was purple, blue, green, yellow, and red. In this the purple seemed more reddish than the violet in the former circuit, and the green was more conspicuous; being as brisk and copious as any of the other colours, except the yellow; but the red began to be a little faded, inclining much to purple. The fourth circle consisted of green and red; and of these the green was very copious and lively, inclining on the one side to blue, and on the other to yellow; but in this fourth circle there was neither violet, blue, nor yellow, and the red was very imperfect and dirty. All the succeeding colours grew more and more imperfect and dilute, till after three or four revolutions they ended in perfect whiteness.

3 Colours appearing between two glass plates.

As the colours were thus found to vary according to the different distances of the glass plates from each other; our author thought that they proceeded from the different thickness of the plate of air intercepted between the glasses; this plate of air being, by the mere circumstance of thinness or thickness, disposed to reflect or transmit this or that particular colour. From this he concluded, as already observed, that the colours of all natural bodies depended on their density, or the bigness of their component particles. He also constructed a table, wherein the thickness of a plate necessary to reflect any particular colour was expressed in parts of an inch divided into 1,000,000 parts.

4 Supposed to arise from density.

Sir Isaac Newton, pursuing his discoveries concerning the colours of thin substances, found that the same were also produced by plates of a considerable thickness. There is no glass or speculum, he observes, how well polished soever, but, besides the light which it refracts or reflects regularly, scatters every way irregularly a faint light; by means of which the polished surface, when illuminated in a dark room by a beam of the sun's light, may easily be seen in all positions of the eye. It was with this scattered light that the colours in the following experiments were produced.

5 Colours by reflection.

The sun shining into his darkened chamber through a hole in the shutter one inch wide, he let the beam of light fall perpendicularly upon a glass speculum concave on one side and convex on the other, ground to a sphere of five feet eleven inches radius, and quicksilvered over on the convex side. Then, holding a quire of white paper at the centre of the sphere to which the speculums were ground, in such a manner as that the beam of light might pass through a little hole made in the middle of the paper, to the speculum, and thence be refracted back to the same hole, he observed on the paper four or five concentric rings of colours like rainbows, surrounding the hole, very much like those which appeared in the thin plates above mentioned, but larger and fainter. These rings, as they grew larger and larger, became more dilute, so that the fifth was hardly visible; and yet sometimes, when the sun shone very clear, there appeared faint traces of a sixth and seventh.

6 Colours by refraction and reflection enumerated.

We have already taken notice, that the thin plates made use of in the former experiments reflected some kinds of rays in particular parts, and transmitted others in the same parts. Hence the coloured rings appeared variously disposed, according as they were viewed by transmitted or reflected light; that is, according as the plates were held up between the light and the eye, or not. For the better understanding of

which we ſubjoin the following table, wherein on one ſide are mentioned the colours appearing on the plates by reflected light, and on the other thoſe which were oppoſite to them, and which became viſible when the glaſſes were held up between the eye and the window. We have already obſerved, that the centre, when the glaſſes were in full contact, was perfectly tranſparent. This ſpot, therefore, when viewed by reflected light, appeared black, becauſe it tranſmitted all the rays; and for the ſame reaſon it appeared white when viewed by tranſmitted light.

Colours by Reflected Light.	*Colours by Tranſmitted Light.*
Black	White
Blue	Yellowiſh-red
White	Black
Yellow	Violet
Red	Blue
Violet	White
Blue	Yellow
Green	Red
Yellow	Violet
Red	Blue
Purple	Green
Blue	Yellow
Green	Red
Yellow } Red }	Bluiſh-green
Green	Red
Red	Bluiſh-green
Greeniſh-blue	Red
Red	

The colours of the rings produced from reflection by the thick plates, followed the order of thoſe produced by tranſmiſſion through the thin ones; and by the analogy of their phenomena with thoſe produced from the thin plates, Sir Iſaac Newton concluded that they were produced in a ſimilar manner. For he found, that if the quickſilver was rubbed off from the back of the ſpeculum, the glaſs alone would produce the ſame rings, but much more faint than before; ſo that the phenomenon did not depend upon the quickſilver, except in as far as, by increaſing the reflection at the back of the glaſs, it increaſed the light of the coloured rings. He alſo found that a ſpeculum of metal only, produced none of theſe rings; which made him conclude, that they did not ariſe from one ſurface only, but depended on the two ſurfaces of the plate of glaſs of which the ſpeculum was made, and upon the thickneſs of the glaſs between them.

7 General theory of colours by Sir Iſaac Newton.

From theſe experiments and obſervations, it will be eaſy to underſtand the Newtonian theory of colours. Every ſubſtance in nature ſeems to be tranſparent, provided it is made ſufficiently thin. Gold, the moſt denſe ſubſtance we know, when reduced into thin leaves, tranſmits a bluiſh-green light through it. If, therefore, we ſuppoſe any body, gold, for inſtance, to be divided into a vaſt number of plates, ſo thin as to be almoſt perfectly tranſparent, it is evident that all or greateſt part of the rays will paſs through the upper plates, and when they loſe their force will be reflected from the under ones. They will then have the ſame number of plates to paſs through which they had penetrated before; and thus, according to the number of thoſe plates through which they are obliged to paſs, the object appears of this or that colour, juſt as the rings of colours appeared different in the experiment of the two plates, according to their diſtance from one another, or the thickneſs of the plate of air between them.

8 Mr Delaval's experiments in confirmation of it.

This theory is adopted by Edward Huſſey Delaval, in his Experimental Inquiry into the cauſe of the changes of colours in opaque and coloured bodies. He endeavours to confirm it by a number of experiments on the infuſions of flowers of different colours; but his ſtrongeſt arguments ſeem to be thoſe derived from the different tinges given to glaſs by metallic ſubſtances. Here he obſerves, that each metal gives a tinge according to its ſpecific denſity: The more denſe metals producing the leſs refrangible colours, and the lighter ones thoſe colours which are more eaſily refrangible. Gold, which is the denſeſt of all metals, imparts a red colour to glaſs, whenever it can be divided into particles ſo minute, that it is capable of being mixed with the materials of which glaſs is made. It ſeems indifferent by what means it is reduced to this ſtate, nor can it by any means be made to produce another colour. If it is mixed in large maſſes without being minutely divided, it imparts no colour to the glaſs, but remains in its metallic form. Lead, the metal whoſe denſity is next in order to that of gold, affords a glaſs of the colour of the hyacinth; a gem whoſe diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic is, that it is red with an admixture of yellow, the ſame colour which is uſually called *orange*. Glaſs of lead is mentioned by ſeveral authors as a compoſition proper, without the addition of any other ingredient, for imitating the hyacinth. Silver, next in denſity to lead, can only be made to communicate a yellow colour to glaſs. If the metal is calcined with ſulphur, it readily communicates this colour. Leaf-ſilver laid upon red hot glaſs, likewiſe tinges it yellow. When we meet with authors who mention a blue or greeniſh colour communicated by ſilver, the cauſe muſt have been, that the ſilver uſed in ſuch proceſſes was mixed with copper. Mr Delaval aſſures us, from his own experience, that ſilver purified by the teſt retains ſo much copper, that, when melted ſeveral times with nitre and borax, it always imparted a green colour at the firſt and ſecond melting: though afterwards no ſuch colour was obtainable from it. The only colour produced by copper is green. It is indifferent in what manner the copper is prepared in order to tinge the glaſs, provided it is expoſed without any other ingredient to a ſufficient degree of heat. If a quantity of ſalts is added in the preparation, they will, by attenuating the mixture, make the glaſs incline to blue, the colour next in order: but this happens only when the fire is moderate; for, in a greater degree of heat, the redundant ſalts, even thoſe of the moſt fixed nature, are expelled. It is true, that copper is mentioned by ſome writers as an ingredient in red glaſs and enamel: but the *red*, which is the colour of the metal not diſſolved or mixed with the glaſs, remains only while the compoſition is expoſed to ſuch a degree of heat as is too ſmall to melt and incorporate it; for if it be ſuffered to remain in the furnace a few minutes after the copper is added, the maſs will turn out green inſtead of red. Iron, the metal next in denſity to copper, is apt

to be calcined, or reduced to a ruddy crocus, ſimilar to that ruſt which it contracts ſpontaneouſly in the air. In this ſtate it requires a conſiderable degree of heat to diſſolve and incorporate it with glaſs: till that heat is applied, it retains its ruddy colour: by increaſing the heat, it paſſes through the intermediate colours, till it arrives at its permanent one, which is blue; this being effected in the greateſt degree of heat the glaſs will bear, without loſing all colour whatever. Iron vitrified *per ſe* is converted into a blue glaſs. In ſhort, it is indubitable, that iron is the only metal which will, without any addition, impart to the glaſs a blue colour: for copper will not communicate that colour without the addition, of a conſiderable quantity of ſalts, or ſome other matter that attenuates it; and the other metals cannot by any means be made to produce it at all.

9 Sir Iſaac's theory defended by Dr Prieſtley.

Theſe are the principal of Mr Delaval's arguments in favour of Sir Iſaac Newton's theory of colours being formed by denſity. Dr Prieſtley too hath mentioned ſome which deſerve attention. "It was a diſcovery of Sir Iſaac Newton (ſays he), that the colours of bodies depend upon the thickneſs of the fine plates which compoſe their ſurfaces. He hath ſhown, that a change of the thickneſs of theſe plates occaſions a change in the colour of the body; rays of a different colour being thereby diſpoſed to be tranſmitted through it; and conſequently rays of a different colour reflected at the ſame place, ſo as to repreſent an image of a different colour to the eye. A variation in the denſity occaſions a variation in the colour: but ſtill a medium of any denſity will exhibit all the colours according to the thickneſs of it. Theſe obſervations he confirmed by experiments on plates of air, water, and glaſs. He likewiſe mentions the colours which ariſe on poliſhed ſteel by heating it, as likewiſe on bell-metal, and ſome other metalline ſubſtances, when melted and poured on the ground, where they may cool in the open air; and he aſcribes them to the ſcoriæ or vitrified parts of the metal, which, he ſays, moſt metals, when heated or melted, do continually protrude and ſend out to their ſurfaces, covering them in the form of a thin glaſſy ſkin. This great diſcovery concerning the colours of bodies depending on the thickneſs of the fine plates which compoſe their ſurfaces, of whatever denſity theſe plates may be, I have been ſo happy as to hit upon a method of illuſtrating and confirming by means of electrical exploſions. A number of theſe being received on the ſurface of any piece of metal, change the colour of it to a conſiderable diſtance from the ſpot on which they were diſcharged; ſo that the whole circular ſpace is divided into a number of concentric rings, each of which conſiſts of all the priſmatic colours, and perhaps as vivid as they can be produced in any method whatever. Upon ſhowing theſe coloured rings to Mr Canton, I was agreeably ſurpriſed to find, that he had likewiſe produced all the priſmatic colours from all the metals, but by a different operation. He extended fine wires of all the different metals along the ſurface of pieces of glaſs, ivory, wood, &c.; and when the wire was exploded, he always found them tinged with all the colours. They are not diſpoſed in ſo regular and beautiful a manner as in the rings I produced, but they equally demonſtrated that none of the metals thus exploded diſcovers the leaſt preference to one colour more than to another. In what manner theſe colours are formed it may not be eaſy to conjecture. In Mr Canton's method of producing them, the metal, or the calcined and vitrified parts of it, ſeem to be diſperſed in all directions from the plate of exploſion, in the form of ſpheres of a very great variety of ſizes, tinged with all the variety of colours, and ſome of them ſmaller than can be diſtinctly ſeen by any magnifier. In my method of making theſe colours, they ſeem to be produced in a manner ſimilar to the production of colours on ſteel and other metals by heat; i. e. the ſurface is affected without the parts of it being removed from their places, certain plates or laminæ being formed of a thickneſs proper to exhibit the reſpective colours."

10 His experiments.

11 Mr Canton's experiments.

12 Newtonian theory impugned by Dr Prieſtley.

But, however well ſupported this doctrine of the formation of colours by denſity may be, we find the ſame author (Dr Prieſtley), whom we have juſt now ſeen arguing for it in his hiſtory of electricity, arguing againſt it in his hiſtory of viſion. "There are (ſays he) no optical experiments with which Sir Iſaac Newton ſeems to have taken more pains than thoſe relating to the rings of colours which appear in thin plates; and in all his obſervations and inveſtigations concerning them, he diſcovers the greateſt ſagacity both as a philoſopher and mathematician; and yet in no object to which he gave his attention, does he ſeem to have overlooked more important circumſtances in the appearances he obſerved, or to have been more miſtaken with regard to their cauſes. The former will be evident from the obſervations of thoſe who ſucceeded him in theſe inquiries, particularly thoſe of the Abbé Mazeas. This gentleman, endeavouring to give a very high poliſh to the flat ſide of an object glaſs, happened to be rubbing it againſt another piece of flat and ſmooth glaſs; when he was ſurpriſed to find, that after this friction, they adhered very firmly together, till at laſt he could not move the one above the other. But he was much more ſurpriſed to obſerve the ſame colours between theſe plane glaſſes that Newton obſerved between the convex object-glaſs of a teleſcope and another that is plane. Theſe colours between the plane glaſſes, the Abbé obſerves, were in proportion to their adheſion. The reſemblance between them and the colours produced by Newton, induced him to give a very particular attention to them; and his obſervations and experiments were as follows:

13 Curious experiments by the Abbé Mazeas.

"If the ſurfaces of the pieces of glaſs are tranſparent, and well poliſhed, ſuch as are uſed for mirrors, and the preſſure be as equal as poſſible on every part of the two ſurfaces, a reſiſtance, he ſays, will ſoon be perceived when one of them is made to ſlide over the other; ſometimes towards the middle, and ſometimes towards the edges; but wherever the reſiſtance is felt, two or three very fine curve lines will be perceived, ſome of a pale red, and others of a faint green. Continuing the friction, theſe red and green lines increaſe in number at the place of contact, the colours being ſometimes mixed without any order, and ſometimes diſpoſed in a regular manner. In the laſt caſe, the coloured lines are generally concentric circles, or ellipſes, or rather ovals, more or leſs elongated as the

ſurface

ſurfaces are more or leſs united. Theſe figures will not fail to appear, if the glaſſes are well wiped and warmed before the friction.

"When the colours are formed, the glaſſes adhere with conſiderable force, and would always continue ſo without any change in the colours. In the centre of all thoſe ovals, the longer diameter of which generally exceeds ten lines, there appears a ſmall plate of the ſame figure, exactly like a plate of gold interpoſed between the glaſſes; and in the centre of it there is often a dark ſpot, which abſorbs all the rays of light except the violet: for this colour appears very vivid through a priſm.

"If the glaſſes are ſeparated ſuddenly, either by ſliding them horizontally over one another, or by the action of fire, as will be explained hereafter, the colours will appear immediately upon their being put together again, without the leaſt friction.

"Beginning by the ſlighteſt touch, and increaſing the preſſure by inſenſible degrees, there firſt appears an oval plate of a faint red, and in the midſt of it a ſpot of light green, which enlarges by the preſſure, and becomes a green oval, with a red ſpot in the centre; and this, enlarging in its turn, diſcovers a green ſpot in its centre. Thus the red and the green ſucceed one another in turns, aſſuming different ſhades, and having other colours mixed with them, which will be diſtinguiſhed preſently.

"The greateſt difference between theſe colours exhibited between plane ſurfaces and thoſe formed by curve ones is, that in the former caſe preſſure alone will not produce them, except in the caſe above mentioned. With whatever force he compreſſed them, his attempts to produce the colours were in vain without previous friction. But the reaſon of this plainly was, that with ſliding one of the glaſſes over the other, they could not be brought to approach near enough for the purpoſe.

"Having made theſe obſervations with plates of glaſs whoſe ſides were nearly parallel, he got two priſms with very ſmall refracting angles; and rubbing them together, when they were joined ſo as to form a parallelopiped, the colours appeared with a ſurpriſing luſtre at the places of contact, owing, he did not doubt, to the ſeparation of the rays of light by the priſm. In this caſe, differently coloured ovals appeared, but the plate of gold in them was much whiter, and only appeared yellow about its edges. The plate having a black ſpot in its centre, was bordered by a deep purple. He could not perceive any violet by his naked eye, but it might be perceived by the help of a lens with a weak light. It appeared in a very ſmall quantity at the confines of the purple and the blue, and ſeemed to him to be only a mixture of theſe two colours. It was very viſible in each of the coloured rings by inclining the glaſſes to the light of the moon. Next to the purple and violet appeared blue, orange, red tinged with purple, light green, and faint purple. The other rings appeared to the naked eye to conſiſt of nothing but faint reds and greens; and they were ſo ſhaded that it was not eaſy to mark their terminations. That the order of theſe may be compared with Newton's, he gives a view of both in the following table:

	Order of the Colours in the Plane Glaſſes.	*Order of the Colours in Newt. Object Glaſſes.*
Order I.	Black ſpot	Black
	Whitiſh oval	Blue
	Yellow border	White
	Deep purple	Yellow
		Red
Order II.	Blue	Violet
	Orange	Blue
	Purple	Green
Order III.	Greeniſh blue	Yellow
	Yellow green	Red
	Purple red	Purple
		Blue
		Green
Order IV.	Green	Yellow
	Red	Red
Order. V.	Faint green	Green
	Faint red	Red
Order VI.	Weak green	Greeniſh blue
	Light red	Red
Order VII.	Very faint green	Greeniſh blue
	Very faint red	Red
		Greeniſh blue
		Pale red.

"When theſe coloured glaſſes were ſuſpended over the flame of a candle, the colours diſappeared ſuddenly, though the glaſſes ſtill continued to adhere to one another, when they were parallel to the horizon. When they were ſuffered to cool, the colours returned by degrees to their former places, in the order of the preceding table.

"After this the Abbé took two plates much thicker than the former, in order to obſerve at his leiſure the action of fire upon the matter which he ſuppoſed to produce the colours; and obſerved, that as they grew warm, the colours retired to the edges of the glaſſes, and there became narrower and narrower till they were reduced to imperceptible lines. Withdrawing the flame, they returned to their place. This experiment he continued till the glaſſes were bent by the violence of the heat. It was pleaſant, he ſays, to obſerve theſe colours glide over the ſurface of the glaſs as they were purſued by the flame.

"At the firſt our author had no doubt but that theſe colours were owing to a thin plate of air between the glaſſes, to which Newton has aſcribed them: but the remarkable difference in the circumſtances attending thoſe produced by the flat pieces, and thoſe produced by the object-glaſſes of Newton, convinced him that the air was not the cauſe of this appearance. The colours of the flat plates vaniſhed at the approach of flame, but thoſe of the object-glaſſes did not. He even heated the latter till that which was next the flame was cracked by the heat, before he could obſerve the leaſt dilatation of the coloured rings. This difference was not owing to the plane glaſſes being leſs compreſſed than the convex ones; for though the former were compreſſed ever ſo much by a pair of forceps, it did not in the leaſt hinder the effect of the flame.

"Afterwards he put both the plane glaſſes and the convex ones into the receiver of an air pump, ſuſpending the former by a thread, and keeping the latter compreſſed

preſſed by two ſtrings; but he obſerved no change in the colours of either of them in the moſt perfect vacuum he could make.

"Notwithſtanding theſe experiments ſeemed to be concluſive againſt the hypotheſis of theſe colours being formed by a plate of air, the Abbé frankly acknowledges, that the air may adhere ſo obſtinately to the ſurface of the glaſſes as not to be ſeparated from them by the force of the pump; which, indeed, is agreeable to other appearances: but the following experiments of our author make it ſtill more improbable that the air ſhould be the cauſe of theſe colours.

"To try the utmoſt effect of heat upon theſe coloured plates, after warming them gradually, he laid them upon burning coals; but though they were nearly red, yet when he rubbed them together by means of an iron rod, he obſerved the ſame coloured circles and ovals as before. When he ceaſed to preſs upon them, the colours ſeemed to vaniſh; but when he repeated the friction, they returned, and continued till the pieces of glaſs began to be red hot, and their ſurfaces to be united by fuſion.

"When the outward ſurface of one of his plates of glaſs was quickſilvered, none of theſe colours were viſible, though the glaſſes continued to adhere with the ſame force. This he aſcribed to the ſtronger impreſſion made on the eye by the greater quantity of light reflected from the quickſilver.

"Judging from the reſemblance between his experiments and thoſe of Sir Iſaac Newton, that the colours were owing to the thickneſs of ſome matter, whatever that was, interpoſed between the glaſſes, the Abbé, in order to verify his hypotheſis, tried the experiment on thicker ſubſtances. He put between his glaſſes a little ball of ſuet, about a fourth of a line in diameter, and preſſed it between the two ſurfaces, warming them at the ſame time, in order to diſperſe the ſuet; but though he rubbed them together as before, and uſed other ſoft ſubſtances beſides ſuet, his endeavours to produce the colours had no effect. But, rubbing them with more violence in a circular manner, he was ſurpriſed on looking at a candle through them, to ſee it ſurrounded with two or three concentric rings, very broad, and with very lively delicate colours; namely, a red inclining to a yellow, and a green inclining to that of an emerald. At that time he obſerved only theſe two colours; but continuing the friction, the rings aſſumed the colours of blue, yellow, and violet, eſpecially when he looked through the glaſſes on bodies directly oppoſed to the ſun. If, after having rubbed the glaſſes, the thickneſs was conſiderably diminiſhed, the colours grew weaker by tranſmitted light, but they ſeemed to be much ſtronger by reflection, and to gain on one ſide what they loſt on the other.

14 Newtonian hypotheſis oppoſed.

"Our author was confirmed in his opinion, that there muſt be ſome error in Newton's hypotheſis, by conſidering, that, according to his meaſures, the colours of the plates varied with the difference of a millionth part of an inch; whereas he was ſatisfied that there muſt have been much greater differences in the diſtance between his glaſſes, when the colours remained unchanged.

"If the colour depended upon the thickneſs only, he thought that the matter interpoſed between the glaſſes ought to have given the ſame colour when it was reduced to a thin plate by ſimple fuſion as well as by friction, and that, in rubbing two plates together, warming them at different times, and compreſſing them with a conſiderable force, other colours would have appeared beſides thoſe above mentioned.

"Theſe circumſtances made him ſuſpect, that the different thickneſſes of the ſubſtance interpoſed between the glaſſes ſerved only to make them more or leſs tranſparent; which was an eſſential condition in the experiment; and he imagined that the friction diffuſed over the ſurface of the thin ſubſtance a kind of matter on which the colours are formed by reflected light; for when he held the plates (which gave the colours when the ſuet was between them) over the flame of a ſmall candle, the colours fled with great precipitation, and returned to their place without his being able to perceive the leaſt alteration in the ſuet.

"He was confirmed in his conjectures, by frequently obſerving, that when the glaſſes were ſeparated, at the moment the colours diſappeared, they were covered with the ſame greaſy matter, and that it ſeemed to be in the very ſame ſtate as when they were ſeparated without warming. Beſides, having often repeated the ſame experiment with different kinds of matter, he found that the degree of heat that diſperſed the colours was not always ſufficient to melt it; which difference was more ſenſible in proportion as the matter interpoſed was made thinner.

"Inſtead of the ſuet, he ſometimes made uſe of Spaniſh wax, reſin, common wax, and the ſediment of urine. He began with Spaniſh wax, on account of its remarkable tranſparency in Mr Hauksbee's electrical experiments; but he had much difficulty in making it ſufficiently thin by friction, being often obliged to warm his glaſſes, to ſeize the moment of fuſion, which continued but a ſhort time, and to hazard the burning of his fingers.

"The experiment at length ſucceeding, the Spaniſh wax appeared with its opacity and natural colour when it reflected the light, but they both diſappeared in the tranſmitted light. He obſerved the ſame rings in it as in the ſuet; and indeed he could perceive but little difference between the colour of ſuet, Spaniſh wax, common wax, or reſin; except that this laſt ſubſtance did not make the colours ſo vivid, on account of the too great tranſparency of its particles.

"The ſediment of urine had ſomething more particular in its appearance, as its colours were more lively. Holding it above the flame, its colour diſappeared; and keeping it in that ſituation, there were formed, upon its ſurface, ramifications, like thoſe of the hoar froſt, which diſappeared as the glaſſes grew cold. There were the ſame ramifications both upon the ſuet and the wax, but they were not ſo conſiderable. The glaſſes which had Spaniſh wax and reſin between them adhered with ſo much force, that they could not be ſeparated without the help of fire; and when they began to grow warm, they ſeparated with a noiſe like that of glaſs breaking in the fire, though the glaſſes were not broken, and the matter between them was not melted.

"Separating the glaſſes which he firſt uſed very ſuddenly,

suddenly, he observed upon their surface very thin vapours, which formed different colours, but presently vanished altogether.

"To try the effect of vapour, he breathed upon one of his plates of glass, and observed that the vapours which adhered to the glasses sometimes formed, before they were entirely dispersed, a surprising variety of colours. This experiment, he observes, does not always succeed at the first trial. The glass must be breathed upon several times, and care must be taken to wipe it every time with one's hand, both to take off the moisture, and also to make upon the glass a kind of furrows, which contribute very much to the variety of colours, by making inequalities in the thicknesses of the vapours. It is necessary also, that the glasses on which these experiments are made have no quicksilver upon them.

"When the particles of water which formed this vapour were too thick to exhibit these colours, he struck them several times with his pencil, in order to attenuate them; and then he saw an infinity of small coloured threads which succeeded one another with great rapidity.

"Putting a drop of water between two pieces of common glass, he observed that the compression of them produced no colour; but if, while they were compressed, the water was made to pass from one place to another, it left behind it large spots, red, yellow, green, purple, &c. and the spots assumed different colours with a surprising rapidity, and presented to the eye a most beautiful variety of shades.

"In order to determine with greater certainty whether they were vapours that caused the colours in his first observations, he first breathed upon one of his plates of glass, and then rubbed them against one another, when the colours appeared in the same order as before, but darker, and dispersed in confusion in the places occupied by the vapours: but when he made use of fire, to dissipate the watery particles, the colours resumed their lustre.

"Newton, having introduced a drop of water between his two object-glasses, observed, that in proportion as the water insinuated itself between the glasses, the colours grew fainter, and the rings were contracted: and ascribing these colours to the thickness of the plate of water, as he ascribed the former to that of the plate of air, he measured the diameters of the coloured rings made by the plate of water, and concluded that the intervals between the glasses at the similar rings of these two mediums were nearly as three to four; and thence he inferred, that in all cases, these intervals would be as the sines of the refractions of these mediums.

"The Abbé Mazeas, in order to assure himself whether, agreeable to this rule, the coloured rings of his glasses depended upon the thickness of the water only, dipped one of the edges of his coloured glasses in a vessel of water, having taken care to wipe and warm them well, before he produced his colours by friction. The water was a considerable time in rising as high as the glasses; and in proportion as it ascended, he perceived a very thin plate of water, which seemed to pass over the matter which he thought produced the colours, without mixing with it; for beyond this plate of water, he still perceived the colours in the same place and order, but deeper and darker; and holding the glasses above the flame of a candle, he saw the colours go and come several times as he moved them nearer to or farther from the flame. He then moistened both the glasses more than before; and rubbing them as usual, he always saw the same appearance; and seizing the moment when the colours had disappeared to separate the glasses, he always found that they were wet. On this account, he thought that it could not be the water on which the colour depended, but some substance much more sensible to heat. He also thought that these coloured rings could not be owing to the compression of the glasses; or that, if this circumstance did contribute any thing to them, it served rather to modify than to generate them.

15 M. du Tour's observations.

"M. du Tour gave particular attention to the preceding observations of the Abbé Mazeas. He repeated the experiments with some variation of circumstances, particularly comparing them with those of Sir Isaac Newton. He is so far from supposing a plate of air to be necessary to the formation of these coloured rings, that he thinks the reason of their not appearing between the flat plates of glass is the adhering of the air to their surfaces; and that mere pressure is not sufficient to expel it; except, as the Abbé Mazeas observed, the rings had before been made in the same place; in which case, simple apposition without friction is sufficient; the air, probably, not having had time to apply itself so closely to the surface of the glass. The contact of some other substances, M. du Tour observes, is not so prejudicial in this experiment as that of air; for he found, that, if he only gave the plates a slight coating of any kind of grease, the rings would appear without friction. Also dipping them slightly in water, or wiping them with his finger, would answer the same purpose. He verified his conjectures by means of the air-pump: for, dipping two pieces of glass in water, one of which had been wiped, and the other not, the former appeared to have no bubbles adhering to it when the air was exhausted, whereas the other had.

"When one of the glasses is convex, our author observes, that the particles of air may more easily make their escape by pressure only; whereas their retreat is in a manner cut off when they are compressed between two flat surfaces. The air-pump, he found, was not able to detach these particles of air from the surfaces to which they adhere; leaving these flat plates for a considerable time in an exhausted receiver, was not sufficient to prepare them so well for the experiment as wiping them.

16 Experiments on colours by reflection.

"Besides the observations on the colours of thin plates, it has been seen that Sir Isaac Newton imagined he could account for the colours exhibited by thick ones in some cases in a similar manner; particularly in those curious experiments in which he admitted a beam of light through a hole in a piece of pasteboard, and observed the rings of colours reflected back upon it by a concave glass mirror of equal thickness in all places. These experiments were resumed, and happily pursued by the Duke de Chaulnes, who ascribed these colours to the inflection of light*. Chance led the duke to observe, that when the nearer surface of the glass mirror was clouded by breathing upon it, so

* See Optics.

ſo as lightly to tarniſh it, a white diffuſed and vivid light was ſeen upon the paſteboard, and all the colours of the rings became much ſtronger, and more diſtinct. This appearance he made conſtant by moiſtening the ſurface of the mirror with a little milk and water, and ſuffering it to dry upon it.

"In all his experiments upon this ſubject, he found, that when the rays fell converging on the ſurface of the mirror, the rings were hardly viſible; when they fell parallel upon it, as they muſt have done in all the experiments of Newton, they appeared ſufficiently diſtinct; but when, by means of a convex lens placed in the hole of the window, they were made to diverge from the centre of the ſphere to which the mirror was ground, ſo that they fell perpendicularly on the ſurface of the mirror, the colours were as vivid as he could make them. In this caſe he could remove the reflected image to a great diſtance from the hole, without making the rings diſappear; and he could plainly perceive them to ariſe from their central ſpots, which changed their colours ſeveral times.

"The effect of tarniſhing the mirror convinced him, that theſe coloured rings depended on the firſt ſurface of the mirror; and that the ſecond ſurface, or that which reflected them after they had paſſed the firſt, only ſerved to collect them and throw them upon the paſteboard in a quantity ſufficient to make them viſible; and he was confirmed in his ſuppoſition by the following experiments.

"He took a plano-convex object-glaſs, of ſix feet focus, and placed it ſix feet from the paſteboard with its convex ſide towards it. By this means the rays which fell upon that ſurface, after being refracted there, were tranſmitted through the thickneſs of the glaſs, parallel to one another, and fell perpendicularly on the plane ſurface that reflected them, and, in their return, would be collected upon the paſteboard. In theſe circumſtances the rings appeared very diſtinct after he had tarniſhed the convex ſurface, which in this poſition was next to the light.

"Turning the ſame glaſs the contrary way, ſo that the plane ſurface was towards the paſteboard, he could perceive none of the rings at the diſtance of ſix feet; but they were viſible at the diſtance of three feet; becauſe at that diſtance the ſecond ſurface reflected the rays by its concavity directly towards the paſteboard.

"Theſe two experiments demonſtrate the uſe of the ſecond ſurface of the mirror, and ſhow the manner of placing it to moſt advantage. Thoſe that follow ſhow the uſe of the firſt ſurface with reſpect to theſe rings; and he was led to make them by the caſual obſervation above mentioned.

"Newton, he obſerves, had remarked, that when he made uſe of a mirror of the ſame focus with the firſt he had uſed, but of twice the thickneſs, he found the diameter of the rings much ſmaller than before. This obſervation the duke thought favourable to his own concluſions; for if theſe rings depend upon the firſt ſurface, the nearer it is to the ſecond, which only reflects the ray tranſmitted from it, the larger they ought to appear upon the paſteboard.

"To aſcertain this fact, he thought of making uſe of two moveable ſurfaces; and to make uſe of a micrometer to meaſure the diſtance between them with exactneſs. For this purpoſe he took a metallic mirror belonging to a reflecting teleſcope, being part of a ſphere of ten feet radius; and he fixed it firm upon a foot in which was a groove that carried a light frame, to which was faſtened a thin piece of talk tarniſhed with milk and water. The frame that ſupported the piece of talk could either be brought into contact with the mirror, or be removed to the diſtance of eight or nine inches from it, and the micrometer ſhowed to the utmoſt exactneſs the leaſt motion of the frame.

"Having placed this mirror ten feet from the paſteboard, that is, at the diſtance of the radius of its own ſphere, he obſerved the rings to appear very diſtinct: the form of his mirror being very true: but the diameter of the rings upon the paſteboard varied with the diſtance of the talk from the mirror: ſo that they were very large when the talk was near the mirror, and very ſmall when it was placed at the diſtance of ſeven or eight inches.

"Theſe experiments proved that the rings were formed by the firſt ſurface, and reflected by the ſecond; but it ſtill remained to be determined in what manner they were formed. He imagined that the ſmall pencils of rays that were tranſmitted through the pores of the glaſs, or any other tranſparent ſubſtance, might ſuffer a kind of inflection, which might change the cylinder which they formed into a truncated cone, either by means of their different degrees of inflexibility, or by the different diſtances at which they paſs by the edges of the ſmall hole, through which they are tranſmitted. Purſuing this idea, he thought of making uſe of ſome body, the pores of which were of a known and determined ſhape. Inſtead, therefore, of the piece of talk, he placed a piece of fine linen in the above-mentioned frame, ſtretching it as even as poſſible, to make the pores formed by the threads more exact, and more permeable by the light; and he ſoon found, with great pleaſure, that his conjecture was verified; for inſtead of the circular rings which he had before, they were now manifeſtly ſquare, though their angles were a little rounded; and they were coloured as the others, though the light was not very vivid, on account of the quantity that was ſtopped by the muſlin.

"When, inſtead of the muſlin, he ſtretched acroſs his frame fine ſilver wires exactly parallel, at the diſtance of about three quarters of a line, or a whole line from one another, without any other wires acroſs them; inſtead of the rings which he had ſeen before, there was nothing upon the paſteboard but a gleam of white light, divided by many ſmall ſtreaks, coloured in a very vivid manner, and in the ſame manner as the rings."

17 Another theory of colours.

Thus we have another hypotheſis of the formation of colours, namely, by the inflection of light in its paſſage out from between the ſolid and impenetrable particles of which bodies are compoſed. It is, however, very difficult, upon the hypotheſis either of Sir Iſaac Newton, or that of the duke de Chaulnes, to give a reaſon why bodies that are not entirely white, ſhould not appear variouſly coloured. For it appears from Sir Iſaac Newton's experiments, that plates of different denſity are capable of exhibiting the ſame colours; and that where a plate is continually varying in denſity, it will produce all the colours. Now it is evident,

evident, that the plates of which we ſuppoſe all natural bodies to be compoſed, muſt be ſimilar to one that is perpetually varying in its thickneſs; for ſuppoſing the plates of which any ſubſtance is compoſed to be of any determinate thickneſs, 9 millionth parts of an inch for inſtance; ſuch of the rays as are reflected from this plate will be red. But if any of them penetrate to the depth of $11\frac{1}{6}$ of theſe parts, they will be reflected by a violet colour, &c. and thus muſt alloy and obſcure the red; and ſo of others. If we ſuppoſe the colours to be produced by inflection, it will be equally difficult to account for ſome particular rays being inflected and others not; ſeeing we obſerve that all of them are capable of being inflected by every ſubſtance whatever, when they paſs very near it. In ſome caſes, too, colours are produced when the light is neither refracted nor inflected, as far as we can judge; and this ſeems to obſcure the theory of chromatics more than any thing we have yet mentioned.

As the experiments we are now about to mention are of the greateſt importance, and in direct terms contradict one of Sir Iſaac Newton's, we ſhall give a full account of them, from Prieſtley's Hiſtory of Viſion, &c. with his remarks thereon.

18 One of Sir Iſaac Newton's experiments found to be erroneous.

The experiment in queſtion is the eighth of Newton's ſecond book of Optics: "He (Sir Iſaac Newton) found, he ſays, that when light goes out of air through ſeveral contiguous refracting mediums, as through water and glaſs, and thence goes out again into air, whether the refracting ſurfaces be parallel or inclined to one another, that light, as often as, by contrary refractions, it is ſo corrected, that it emerges in lines parallel to thoſe in which it was incident, continues ever after to be white; but if the emergent rays be inclined to the incident, the whiteneſs of the emerging light will, by degrees, in paſſing on from the place of emergence, become tinged at its edges with colours. This he tried by refracting light with priſms of glaſs, placed within a priſmatic veſſel of water.

"By theorems, deduced from this experiment, he infers, that the refraction of the rays of every ſort, made out of any medium into air, are known by having the refraction of the rays of any one ſort; and alſo, that the refraction out of one medium into another is found as often as we have the refractions out of them both into any third medium.

"On the contrary, a Swediſh philoſopher (M. Klingenſtierna) obſerves*, that in this experiment, the rays of light, after paſſing through the water and the glaſs, though they come out parallel to the incident rays, will be coloured; but that the ſmaller the glaſs priſm is, the nearer will the reſult of it approach to Newton's deſcription.

* *Swed. Abhand.* vol. xvi. p. 300.

"This paper of M. Klingenſtierna, being communicated to Mr Dollond by M. Mallet, made him entertain doubts concerning Newton's report of the reſult of his experiment, and determined him to have recourſe to experiments of his own.

"He therefore cemented together two plates of parallel glaſs, at their edges, ſo as to form a priſmatic veſſel when ſtopped at the ends or baſes; and the edge being turned downwards, he placed in it a glaſs priſm with one of its edges upwards, and filled up the vacancy with clear water; ſo that the refraction of the priſm was contrived to be contrary to that of the water, in order that a ray of light, tranſmitted through both theſe refracted mediums, might be effected by the difference only between the two refractions. As he found the water to refract more or leſs than the glaſs priſm, he diminiſhed or increaſed the angle between the glaſs plates, till he found the two contrary refractions to be equal, which he diſcovered by viewing an object through this double priſm. For when it appeared neither raiſed nor depreſſed, he was ſatisfied that the refractions were equal, and that the emergent rays were parallel to the incident.

"Now, according to the prevailing opinion, he obſerves, that the object ſhould have appeared through this double priſm in its natural colour; for if the difference of refrangibility had been in all reſpects equal, in the two equal refractions, they would have rectified each other. But this experiment fully proved the fallacy of the received opinion, by ſhowing the divergency of the light by the glaſs priſm to be almoſt double of that by the water; for the image of the object, though not at all refracted, was yet as much infected with priſmatic colours as though it had been ſeen through a glaſs wedge only whoſe angle was near 30 degrees.

19 Colours produced without refraction or reflection.

"This experiment is the very ſame with that of Sir Iſaac Newton above mentioned, notwithſtanding the reſult was ſo remarkably different: but Mr Dollond aſſures us, that he uſed all poſſible precaution and care in his proceſs; and he kept his apparatus by him, that he might evince the truth of what he wrote, whenever he ſhould be properly required to do it.

"He plainly ſaw, however, that if the refracting angle of the water-veſſel could have admitted of a ſufficient increaſe, the divergency of the coloured rays would have been greatly diminiſhed, or entirely rectified; and that there would have been a very great refraction without colour, as he had already produced a great diſcolouring without refraction; but the inconveniency of ſo large an angle as that of the priſmatic veſſel muſt have been, to bring the light to an equal divergency with that of the glaſs priſm, whoſe angle was about 60°, made it neceſſary to try ſome experiments of the ſame kind with ſmaller angles.

"Accordingly he got a wedge of plate-glaſs, the angle of which was only nine degrees; and, uſing it in the ſame circumſtances, he increaſed the angle of the water-wedge, in which it was placed, till the divergency of the light by the water was equal to that by the glaſs; that is, till the image of the object, though conſiderably refracted by the exceſs of the refraction of the water, appeared nevertheleſs quite free from any colours proceeding from the different refrangibility of the light.

20 Defences of Sir Iſaac.

"Notwithſtanding it evidently appeared, I may ſay to almoſt all philoſophers, that Mr Dollond had made a real diſcovery of ſomething not comprehended in the optical principles of Sir Iſaac Newton, it did not appear to ſo ſenſible a man, and ſo good a mathematician as Mr Murdoch is univerſally acknowledged to be. Upon this occaſion he interpoſed in the defence, as he imagined, of Sir Iſaac Newton; maintaining, that Mr Dollond's poſitions, which he ſays, he knows not by what miſhap have been deemed paradoxes in

Sir Isaac's theory of light, are really the necessary consequences of it. He also endeavours to show, that Sir Isaac might not be mistaken in his account of the experiment above mentioned. But admitting all that he advances in this part of his defence, Newton must have made use of a prism with a much smaller refracting angle than, from his own account of his experiments, we have any reason to believe he ever did make use of.

"The fact probably was, that Sir Isaac deceived himself in this case, by attending to what he imagined to be the clear consequences of his other experiments; and though the light he saw was certainly tinged with colours, and he must have seen it to be so, yet he might imagine that this circumstance arose from some imperfection in his prisms, or in the disposition of them, which he did not think it worth his while to examine. It is also observable, that Sir Isaac is not so particular in his description of his prisms, and other parts of his apparatus, in his account of this experiment, as he generally is in other cases, and therefore probably wrote his account of it from his memory only.

P. 804. "Much has been said on this experiment; and it is thought very extraordinary, that a man of Sir Isaac's accurate attention should have overlooked a circumstance, the effect of which now appears to be so considerable. But it has happily occurred to Mr Mitchel, that, as Sir Isaac Newton observes, he used to put saccharum saturni into his water to increase its refractive power, the lead, even in this form, might increase the dissipative refraction, as it does in the composition of glass; and if so, that this would account for Newton's not finding his dissipative power of water less than that of the glass prisms, which he otherwise ought to have done, if he had tried the experiment as he said he did.

"Accordingly he included a prism of glass in water, as highly impregnated with saccharum saturni as it would bear, the proportion of saccharum to water being about as 5 to 11. When the image, seen through the water (so impregnated) and a glass prism, was in its natural place, it still was coloured, though very little: he thought not more than a fourth part as much as when seen through the plain water, and the prism in its natural place; so that he had no doubt, but that, if his prism had had a little less of the dispersing power, its errors would have been perfectly corrected."

21 Mr Delaval's experiments on the colours of opaque bodies.

Besides the experiments of Mr Delaval above related, and which were made on the colours of transparent bodies, he has lately published an account of some made upon the permanent colours of opaque substances; the discovery of which must be of the utmost consequence in the arts of colour-making and dyeing. These arts, he observes, were in very remote ages carried to the utmost height of perfection in the countries of Phœnicia, Egypt, Palestine, India, &c. and that the inhabitants of these countries also excelled in the art of imitating gems, and tinging glass and enamel of various colours. The colours used in very ancient paintings were as various as those now in use, and greatly superior both in beauty and durability. The paints used by Apelles were so bright, that he was obliged to glaze his pictures with a dark coloured varnish, lest the eye should be offended by their excessive brightness; and even these were inferior to what had been used among the ancient Egyptians. Pliny complains that the art of painting was greatly decayed in his time; and the moderns were not furnished with any means of retrieving the art, until they began to avail themselves of experimental observations.

22 These colours depend chiefly on the division of the colouring particles.

The changes of colour in permanently coloured bodies, our author observes, are produced by the same laws which take place in transparent colourless substances; and the experiments by which they can be investigated consist chiefly of various methods of uniting the colouring particles into larger, or dividing them into smaller masses. Sir Isaac Newton made his experiments chiefly on transparent substances; and in the few places where he treats of others, acknowledges his deficiency of experiments. He makes the following remark, however, on those bodies which reflect one kind of light and transmit another, viz. that "If these glasses or liquors were so thick and massy that no light could get through them, he questioned whether they would not, like other opaque bodies, appear of one and the same colour in all positions of the eye; though he could not yet affirm it from experience." It was the opinion of this great philosopher, that all coloured matter reflects the rays of light, some reflecting the more refrangible, and others the less refrangible rays more copiously; and that this is not only a true reason of these colours, but likewise the only reason. He was likewise of opinion, that opaque bodies reflect the light from their interior surface by some power of the body evenly diffused over and external to it. With regard to transparent-coloured liquors, he expresses himself in the following manner: "A transparent body, which looks of any colour by transmitted light, may also look of the same colour by reflected light; the light of that colour being reflected by the farther surface of that body, or by the air beyond it: and then the reflected colour will be diminished, and perhaps cease, by making the body very thick, and pitching it on the back side to diminish the reflection of its farther surface, so that the light reflected from the tinging particles may predominate. In such cases, the colour of the reflected light will be apt to vary from that of the light transmitted."

To investigate the truth of these opinions, Mr Delaval entered upon a course of experiments with transparent coloured liquors and glasses, as well as with opaque and semi-transparent bodies. From these he discovered several remarkable properties of the colouring matter; particularly, that in transparent coloured substances it does not reflect any light; and when, by intercepting the light which was transmitted, it is hindered from passing through such substances, they do not vary from their former colour to any other, but become entirely black (A).

This incapacity of the colouring particles of transparent

(A) Here our author observes, that he makes use of the word *colour* only to express those called *primary*; such

23 No light reflected by the colouring particles.

parent bodies to reflect light, being deduced from very numerous experiments, may therefore be held as a general law. It will appear the more extenſive, if we conſider, that, for the moſt part, the tinging particles of liquors or other tranſparent ſubſtances are extracted from opaque bodies; that the opaque bodies owe their colours to thoſe particles, in like manner as the tranſparent ſubſtances do; and that by the loſs of them they are deprived of their colours.

24 Apparatus for making thoſe experiments.

For making his experiments, Mr Delaval uſed ſmall phials of flint-glaſs, whoſe form was a parallelopiped, and their height, excluſive of the neck, about two inches, the baſe about an inch ſquare, and the neck two inches in length. The bottom and three ſides of each of theſe phials were covered with a black varniſh; the cylindrical neck, and the anterior ſide, except at its edges, being left uncovered. He was careful to avoid any crevices in the varniſh, that no light might be admitted except through the neck or anterior ſide of the phials.

In theſe experiments it is of importance to have the phials perfectly clean; and as many of the liquors are apt to depoſit a ſediment, they ought to be put into the phials only at the time the experiments are to be made. The uncovered ſide of the phials ſhould not be placed oppoſite to the window through which the light is admitted; becauſe in that ſituation the light would be reflected from the farther ſide of the phial; and our author obſerves, that ſmooth black ſubſtances reflect light very powerfully. But as it is a principal object in the experiment, that no light be tranſmitted through the liquor, this is beſt accompliſhed by placing the uncovered ſide of the phial in ſuch a ſituation that it may form a right angle with the window.

25 The colouring matter only ſhows itſelf by tranſmitted light.

With theſe precautions, our author viewed a great number of ſolutions, both of coloured metallic ſalts and of the tinging matter of vegetables; univerſally obſerving, that the colour by reflection was black, whatever it might be when viewed by tranſmitted light. If theſe liquors, however, are ſpread thin upon any white ground, they appear of the ſame colour as when viewed by tranſmitted light; but on a black ground they afford no colour, unleſs the black body be poliſhed; in which caſe the reflection of the light through it produces the ſame effect as tranſmiſſion.

The experiments with tinged glaſſes were in many reſpects analogous to thoſe with tranſparent-coloured liquors. For theſe he made ſeveral parcels of colourleſs glaſſes, principally uſing one compoſed of equal parts of borax and white ſand. The glaſs was reduced to powder, and afterwards ground, together with the ingredients by which the colours were imparted. "This method (ſays he) of incorporating the tinging particles is greatly preferable to mixing them with the raw materials; and the glaſſes thus compoſed excel moſt others in hardneſs, being ſcarcely inferior in luſtre to real gems."

The reſult of all the experiments made in this manner was, that when matter is of ſuch thinneſs, and the tinge ſo diluted, that light can be tranſmitted through it, the glaſſes then appear vividly coloured; but when they are in larger maſſes, and the tinging matter is more denſely diffuſed through them, they appear black; for theſe, as well as the tranſparent-coloured liquors, ſhow their colour by tranſmiſſion. The following experiments were made with a view to determine the proportion of tinging matter which produces colour or blackneſs.

26 Experiments to determine the proportion of tinging matter.

1. Glaſs was tinged green by adding to it $\frac{1}{60}$th of its weight of copper; and that whether the latter was uſed in its metallic or calcined ſtate.

2. A blue glaſs was made by the addition of zaffre, a purple one by manganeſe, a red glaſs by gold, and yellow glaſſes by ſilver and calcined iron. A yellow glaſs reſembling a topaz was likewiſe made by the addition of a ſmall quantity of charcoal in powder. The ſame colour was likewiſe procured by the addition of wheat-flour, roſin, and ſeveral other inflammable matters. Small pieces of each of theſe glaſſes being ground by a lapidary, reſembled gems of their different colours.

3. Having formed pieces of ſuch glaſſes about two inches thick, he incloſed them in black cloth on all ſides, except their farther and anterior ſurfaces. In this ſituation each of them ſhowed a vivid colour when light was tranſmitted through them; but when the poſterior ſurface was likewiſe covered with the cloth to prevent this tranſmiſſion, no other colour than black was exhibited by any of them.

4. When plates of tranſparent-coloured glaſs, ſomewhat thicker than common window-glaſs, were made uſe of, they always exhibited their colours by tranſmitted light.

5. On intercepting the light tranſmitted through theſe coloured plates, they as conſtantly appeared black when placed in ſuch a direction as to form a right angle with the window.

From theſe phenomena Mr Delaval deduced the following obſervations: 1. That the colouring particles do not reflect any light. 2. That a medium, ſuch as Sir Iſaac Newton has deſcribed, is diffuſed over both the anterior and farther ſurfaces of the plates, whereby objects are equally and regularly reflected as by a mirror. Hence, when it is ſaid that light is reflected by the ſurface of any ſubſtance, it ſhould be underſtood from this expreſſion, that the reflection is effected by the medium diffuſed over its ſurface.

27 On the reflection of the light of a candle by coloured glaſſes.

6. When a lighted candle is placed near one of thoſe coloured plates, the flame is reflected by the medium which is diffuſed over the anterior ſurface. The image thus reflected entirely reſembles the flame in ſize and colour; being ſcarcely diminiſhed, and not in the leaſt tinged by the coloured glaſs.

7. If the plate be not ſo intenſely coloured, or ſo maſſy, as to hinder the tranſmiſſion of the light of the candle, there appears a ſecondary image of the flame, which is reflected by the medium contiguous to the farther ſurface of the glaſs; and as the light thus reflected paſſes through the coloured glaſs, it is tinged very vividly.

8. When

ſuch a mixture of them as does not compoſe whiteneſs, or any of the gradations between white and black; ſuch as are called by Sir Iſaac Newton, gray, dun, or ruſſet brown.

8. When the glaſs uſed in this experiment is of a green colour, the image of the flame is always of a bright green; and when glaſſes of other colours are uſed, that of the ſecondary flame is always the ſame with that of the glaſs.

9. The ſecondary image is leſs than that reflected from the anterior ſurface. This diminution is occaſioned by the loſs of that part of the light which is abſorbed in paſſing through the coloured glaſs. For whenever any medium tranſmits one ſort of rays more copiouſly than the reſt, it ſtops a great part of the differently coloured rays. Much more light alſo is loſt in paſſing through coloured than tranſparent ſubſtances. In making theſe obſervations, it is proper to chooſe coloured plates of glaſs which are not in every part of an equal thickneſs, that the ſecondary image may not coincide with that reflected from the anterior ſurface, and be intercepted by it.

10. When the plates are ſo thick, and ſo copiouſly coloured, that the light cannot penetrate to their farther ſurface, they appear intenſely black in whatever direction they are viewed, and afford no ſecondary image, but only reflect, from their anterior ſurface, the flame, or any other objects that are oppoſed to them. Theſe objects are repreſented in their own proper colours, and are as free from tinge as thoſe reflected from quickſilvered glaſs, or ſpecula made of white metals.

Hence again it is manifeſt, that the colouring particles do not poſſeſs any ſhare of reflective power; for if they had any ſhare in this reflection, they would certainly impart ſome ſhare of colour to the light they reflected. Hence alſo it appears, that tranſparent coloured bodies, in a ſolid ſtate, poſſeſs no more reflective power than thoſe in a fluid ſtate.

28 Experiments on the pure colouring particles.

Our author next conſiders the colouring particles themſelves, pure, and unmixed with other media. In order to procure maſſes made up of ſuch particles, ſeveral tranſparent coloured liquors were reduced to a ſolid conſiſtence by evaporation. By employing a gentle heat, the colouring matter may thus remain unimpaired; and is capable of having its particles again ſeparated by water or other liquids, and tinging them as before.

In this ſtate the colouring particles reflect no light, and therefore appear uniformly black, whatever ſubſtance they have been extracted from. In the courſe of his experiments, Mr Delaval made uſe of the infuſions of brazil wood, logwood, fuſtic, turmeric, red ſaunders, alkanet, ſap-green, kermes, and all the other tranſparent coloured liquors he had tried before, among which were infuſions of red and yellow flowers, without obſerving the leaſt variation in the reſult.

Some liquors are apt to become totally opaque by evaporation; the reaſon of which may be the cryſtallization of ſaline matters, or the coaleſcence of the particles into maſſes, differing conſiderably in denſity from the menſtrua in which they were diſſolved. When this opacity takes place, our author has conſtantly obſerved, that they became incapable of entering the pores of wool, ſilk, or other matters of that kind, or of adhering to their ſurface; and conſequently unfit for the purpoſes of dyeing. This he ſuppoſes to ariſe from their increaſed bulk; for the attractive force by which the particles cohere together is weakened in proportion as their bulk increaſes; ſo that the degree of magnitude of the colouring particles, which is eſſential to the capacity of liquors, is inconſiſtent with the minuteneſs requiſite for dyeing. An inſtance of this is given in an infuſion of fuſtic. Having infuſed ſome of this wood in ſuch a quantity of water, that the latter was ſaturated with the colouring particles, he evaporated the liquor to a ſolid conſiſtence with an uninterrupted, but very gentle heat. During every part of the proceſs the liquor continued tranſparent, and the ſolid extract yielded by it tranſmitted a yellow colour when ſpread thin, but appeared black when thicker maſſes were viewed. Having prepared another pint of this liquor, he evaporated half the water, and allowed the remainder to become cold. In this ſtate it became turbid and opaque; on filtering, a tranſparent tincture paſſed through, an opaque fecula remaining on the paper. This fecula did not adhere to the paper, but was eaſily ſeparable from it: on being dried, it appeared white with a ſlight tinge of yellow; but was nevertheleſs ſoluble in water, and by ſolution gave a liquid in all reſpects ſimilar to the original infuſion. "From theſe circumſtances (ſays he) it appears that a given proportion of water, or a ſufficient degree of heat, is requiſite to the ſolution of the colouring particles of fuſtic. And experience evinces that thoſe particles which are too groſs to paſs through filtering paper, are incapable of entering the pores, or firmly cohering to the ſurface of bodies. Many ingredients, ſuch as the colouring particles of logwood, kermes, and various other matters, are ſoluble in water in every proportion; and therefore their infuſions are not ſubject to become opaque or turbid during their evaporation. The ſolid extracts obtained by evaporation reflect no colour, but are black."

Our author alſo formed ſolid maſſes by mixing a ſmall quantity of drying oil with pigments which conſiſt chiefly of colouring matter; as Pruſſian blue, indigo, and ſap green. Theſe paints likewiſe exhibit their reſpective colours only by tranſmitted light, appearing entirely black when viewed by reflection. Inſtances of blackneſs ariſing from this denſity of the colouring matter, may be obſerved in ſeveral kinds of fruits, as black currants, cherries, &c. for the juices of theſe appear red when ſpread thin on a white ground, or otherwiſe viewed by tranſmitted light.

Mr Delaval's next attempt was to conſider the action and properties of the colouring particles of opaque bodies themſelves, and the means by which theſe colours are produced. Here our author endeavours to prove, that theſe colours of opaque bodies appear on the ſame principles as thoſe already mentioned, which ſeem black when very denſe, but ſhow their proper tinge when ſpread thin upon a white ground. On this ſubject the following experiments were made:

1. Graſs, and other green leaves of plants, were digeſted in rectified ſpirit of wine; by which means a tranſparent green tincture was obtained. One of the vials formerly mentioned being filled with this liquid, it was obſerved to tranſmit a vivid green colour; but the other part of the tincture, which was contiguous to the uncovered ſide of the vial, reflected no light, and therefore appeared black.

2. Having poured ſome of the tincture into a China cup, the bottom was thereby made to look green, exactly

actly resembling the colour which had been extracted from the leaves.

3. After the colour had been totally extracted by the vinous spirit, the leaves remained apparently unaltered, either as to figure or texture; but were entirely white, or had their whiteness slightly tinged with brown.

4. Red, purple, and blue flowers, were also digested in spirit of wine, all of which yielded their colouring matter to the spirit, and became white by being deprived of it. From most of these flowers, however, the spirit acquired either no tinge at all, or only a very faint one; but when acidulated, it became red, and by the addition of an alkali appeared blue, purple, or green, according to the quantity of alkali, and the nature of the infusion. In these states, all of them, when viewed by transmitted light, or poured upon a white ground, showed their colours, but universally appeared black by reflection.

5. Red, purple, and blue flowers, were digested in water slightly acidulated with nitrous acid. Thus, red infusions were obtained, which, by saturation with sea-salt, might be preserved for many years.

6. The same liquors were changed green, blue, or purple, by the addition of an alkali: but here the case was the same as before; all of them yielding vivid colours by transmission, but none by reflection. In making this experiment, care must be taken to add the alkali very gradually; for if too much is put in at once to the red liquor, the immediate colours between the red and the green will be wanting. To half an ounce of the red infusion it is proper to add, at once, only the smallest quantity that can be taken upon the point of a pen; repeating this addition slowly, until each of the colours be produced.

7. The flowers, after having been repeatedly macerated in acidulated water, lost their colouring matter, and became white.

8. Yellow flowers also communicated their colours to water and to spirit of wine. The infusion and tinctures of these flowers were subjected to the same experiments as had been employed in the examination of the liquors already mentioned; and appeared yellow by transmitted light, but did not reflect any colour.

9. White paper, linen, &c. may be tinged of any of these colours, by dipping them in the infusions; and the consideration of the manner in which the colours are imparted to the linen, affords much insight into the manner in which natural colours are produced. It has already been observed, that, when the colouring matter of plants is extracted from them, the solid fibrous parts, thus divested of their covering, display their natural whiteness. White linen, paper, &c. are formed of such fibrous vegetable matter; which is bleached by dissolving and detaching the heterogeneous colouring particles. When these are dyed or painted with vegetable colours, it is evident that they do not differ in their manner of acting on the rays of light from natural vegetable bodies; both yielding their colours by transmitting, through the transparent coloured matter, the light which is reflected from the white ground. This white matter frequently exists, without any considerable mixture, in plants, while they are in a state of vegetation; as cotton, white flowers, the pith, wood, seeds, roots, and other parts of several kinds of vegetables. When decayed trees, &c. have been long exposed to the atmosphere, their coloured juices are sometimes so perfectly extracted, that the fibres appear white. This white matter is not distinct from the vegetable earth to which plants are reduced to burning. Mr Delaval has rendered ashes intensely white, by carefully calcining them, and afterwards grinding with a small proportion of nitre, and exposing them to such a degree of heat as would cause the nitre deflagrate with the remaining quantity of phlogiston. Lastly, the ashes were digested with muriatic acid, in order to dissolve the ferruginous matter diffused through them, and repeatedly washing the remainder in water. Mixing ashes thus purified with borax, and applying a vitrifying heat, an opaque enamel is obtained, remarkable for its whiteness.

29 How ashes may be made intensely white.

Hence it appears, that the earth which forms the substance of plants is white, and separable from that substance which gives to earth its peculiar colour; that whenever it is pure and unmixed, or diffused through colourless media, it shows its native whiteness; and is the only vegetable matter endowed with a reflective power. It may be discovered, however, by other means than that of burning: thus, roses may be whitened by exposing them to the vapour of burning sulphur: an effect which cannot be attributed to the sulphuric acid, but to the phlogiston contained in that vapour. This was proved to be the case, by exposing several kinds of red and purple flowers to the phlogistic vapour issuing from hepar sulphuris; and by this every one of them was whitened; their colour being afterwards restored by the addition of an acid either mineral or vegetable.

30 White earth of plants, the only substance in them that reflects the light.

"Thus (says Mr Delaval) it appears, that the colouring matter of the flowers is not discharged or removed, but only dissolved by carbonic acid; and thereby divided into particles too minute to exhibit any colour. In this state, together with the vegetable juice in which they are diffused, they form a colourless transparent covering, through which the white matter of the flowers is seen untinged. The colouring particles of plants consist principally of inflammable matter, and their solubility in carbonic acid, and union with it, are analogous to the action of other inflammable bodies upon each other. Thus, æther dissolves all essential and expressed oils, animal empyreumatic oils, and resins. Sulphur, camphor, and almost all substances abounding in phlogiston, are soluble in oils, ardent spirits, or other inflammable menstrua. The manner in which the red colour of vegetable flowers is restored, appears to be explicable from known chemical laws. When acids are applied to the whitened flowers, they unite with the phlogiston which the sulphur had communicated, and disengage it from the colouring particles; which, being thus extricated, resume their original magnitude and hue. A change of the same kind is also produced by fixed alkali, which, like the acids, has a strong attraction for phlogiston, always changes the whitened flowers to a blue, purple, or green colour.

31 Colouring matter dissolved by carbonic acid.

"In like manner, the action of the rays of light operates upon coloured bodies. Thus, dyed silk, or other substances of that kind, when exposed to the sun's

32 Colours destroyed by the light of the sun.

ſun's light, are deprived of their colour in every part on which the rays are allowed to act; whilſt thoſe preſerve their colour which are defended from the light by the folds of the cloth, or intervention of any opaque body. The colours thus impaired, may be reſtored, if acids are implied while the injury is recent; but they are afterwards apt to fly off, on account of that volatility which is conſtantly imparted by inflammable matter to any other with which it is united."

Our author now proceeds, at conſiderable length, to prove the identity of the ſolar light and carbonic acid; but as recent experiments have ſhown that theſe two are eſſentially diſtinct, we omit his argumentation upon this head. The error of his theory in this reſpect, however, does not in the leaſt affect the doctrine concerning colours above laid down: on the contrary, the lateſt experiments have determined, that carbonic acid in its groſſeſt form, viz. that of common charcoal, manifeſts a ſurpriſing power of whitening various ſubſtances; which, according to Mr Delaval's theory, proceeds from the power it has of diſſolving the colouring matter with which they are impregnated. This ſolvent power, according to our author, is manifeſt in many other inſtances beſides thoſe already mentioned. Silk is whitened by the carbonated vapours of ſulphur; and this operation does not appear to differ from the change effected on flowers by the ſame vapour. The light of the ſun is found to be a neceſſary and eſſential agent in bleaching linen, wax, and various other ſubſtances; ſome part of the colouring matter which impairs the whiteneſs of theſe bodies not yielding to any other ſolvent. Red flowers are whitened by the electric ſpark, of whoſe inflammable nature we cannot entertain the leaſt doubt; for the ſpark itſelf is a bright flame, and yields the ſame ſmell which all other carbonated matters impart. The electric ſpark, in like manner, changes the blue infuſion of turnſole to red (B). The effects which it produces on the turnſole, and on red flowers, do not differ from each other, except in degree only. For when vegetable matter is diſſolved, it is changed from blue to red; and, when farther diſſolved, it is divided into particles too minute to exhibit any colour.

33 How to diſtinguiſh the ſolutions made by carbone from thoſe made by acids.

Solutions effected by means of phlogiſton frequently are wrongly attributed to the operation of ſuppoſed acid menſtrua, as ſeveral kinds of ſubſtances are capable of being diſſolved indiſcriminately both by acids and phlogiſton. For the purpoſe of diſtinguiſhing, therefore, in any caſe between the action of the acid ſolvents and that of the inflammable menſtrua, it is proper to examine the nature of the matter by which either of theſe principles are furniſhed. It appears from various chemical proceſſes, that alkalies are rendered mild, and capable of cryſtallization, in proportion as they are united to carbone. The carbonated alkaline lixivium, when ſaturated, is perfectly mild; and by a ſlight evaporation is reduced to a concrete cryſtalline maſs, which does not deliqueſce or imbibe the leaſt moiſture from the air, and no longer retains any alkaline property. M. Beaume, by an elegant and ingenious experiment, has proved the preſence of carbone in mild alkalies, and has ſhown that their power of cryſtallizing depends on their union with that principle. He heated in a ſilver veſſel a lixivium of mild alkali, which imparted to the ſilver a covering or coating of inflammable matter, by which its ſurface was tarniſhed and became black. The lixivium was ſeveral times poured out of the ſilver veſſel, and after the ſurface of the metal had been freed from the tarniſh, the lixivium was replaced in it, and again heated, by which the tarniſh was renewed; and this was repeated till the lixivium no longer communicated any ſtain to the ſilver. The cauſticity of the lixivium was increaſed in proportion as it imparted its carbone to the ſilver; and at the end of the proceſs the alkali became perfectly cauſtic and incapable of cryſtallizing.

"From the preceding experiments (ſays he) it appears, that the colouring particles of flowers and leaves are ſoluble in acid, alkaline, and carbonated menſtrua. The other parts of vegetables conſiſt of materials ſimilar to thoſe which are contained in their flowers and leaves, and undergo the ſame changes from the ſame cauſes. Having extracted from logwood its colouring particles by repeatedly boiling it in water, the wood was thus deprived of its yellow colour, and aſſumed a brown hue ſimilar to that of oak wood. Some pieces of it thus deprived of its colour were then macerated in nitric acid; and after they had undergone the action of that acid, they were waſhed in a ſufficient quantity of water. The wood was thus reduced to whiteneſs."

34 Logwood affords only a yellow tincture with water.

Here our author obſerves, that though moſt authors who treat of colouring ſubſtances deſcribe logwood as of a red colour, he was never able to procure any other colour from it than yellow. It imparts yellow and orange colours to diſtilled water. Other waters extract a red tinge from it by means of the alkali which they contain. Theſe obſervations are alſo applicable to the other dyeing woods, kermes, and various other articles of the materia tinctoria. By a ſimilar treatment, fuſtic wood alſo loſt its colouring matter, and became white.

The reſults of all the experiments above related are, that the colouring matter of plants does not exhibit any colour by reflection, but by tranſmiſſion only; that their ſolid earthy ſubſtance is a white matter; and that it is the only part of vegetables which is endowed with a reflective power; that the colours of vegetables are produced by the light reflected from this white matter, and tranſmitted from thence through the coloured coat or covering which is formed on its ſurface by the colouring particles; that whenever the colouring matter is either diſcharged or divided by ſolution into particles too minute to exhibit any colour, the ſolid earthy ſubſtance is expoſed to view, and diſplays that whiteneſs which is its diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic.

35 Colouring matter of animal ſubſtances.

Mr Delaval next proceeds to examine the coloured parts of animal ſubſtances, and finds them exactly ſimilar, with regard to the manner in which the colour is

(B) This effect of the electric ſpark is now known to be produced, not by its carbonated nature, but by the generation of an acid.

is produced, to the vegetable bodies already treated of. The tinctures and infusions of cochineal and of kermes yield their colours when light is transmitted through them, but show none by reflection. On diluting fresh ox-gall with water, and examining it in the phials already mentioned, that part of it which was in the neck of the phial, and viewed by transmitted light, was yellow; but the anterior surface was black, and reflected no colour. Flesh derives its colour entirely from the blood, and when deprived of it, the fibres and vessels are perfectly white; as are likewise the membranes, sinews, and bones, when freed from their aqueous and volatile parts; in which case they are a mere earth, unalterable by fire, and capable of imparting an opaque whiteness to glass.

36 Of the colour of blood.

On examining blood diluted with water in one of the phials formerly described, it transmitted a red colour, and the anterior surface was almost, but not entirely, black; for it received a slight hue of brown from some coagulated particles that were suspended in the liquor. In order to procure blood sufficiently diluted, and at the same time equably and perfectly dissolved, he mixed as much cruor with spirit of sal ammoniac as imparted a bright colour to it. The liquor being then viewed in the phial, that part which was contained in the neck, and transmitted the light, appeared of a fine red; but the anterior part reflecting no light, was intensely black. Hence it appears, that the florid red colour of the flesh arises from the light which is reflected from the white fibrous substance, and transmitted back through the red transparent covering which the blood forms on every part of it.

Blood, when recently drawn, does not assume the appearance common to transparent coloured liquors; for these, when too massy to transmit light from their farther surfaces, always appear black; but blood, when recently drawn, always shows a fine red colour, in whatever way it be viewed. This is occasioned by a white matter diffused through the blood; and which is easily separated from the cruor, by dividing it after coagulation into a number of thin pieces, and washing in a sufficient quantity of pure water. Thus the water acquires a red colour, and ought to be changed daily. In a few days it will acquire no more tinge; and the remaining masses of the cruor are no longer red, but white.

37 Of the shells of lobsters.

In like manner, the red colour of the shells of lobsters, after boiling, is no more than a mere superficial covering spread over the white calcareous earth of which the shells are composed, and may be easily removed from the surface by scraping or filing. Before the application of heat, this superficial covering is much denser, insomuch that, in some parts of the shell, it appears quite black, being too thick to admit the passage of the light to the shell and back again; but where this transparent blue colour of the unboiled lobster is thinner, it constantly appears like a blue film. In like manner, the colours of the eggs of certain birds are entirely superficial, and may be scraped off, leaving the white calcareous earth exposed to view.

38 Of feathers.

The case is the same with feathers, which owe their colours entirely to a very thin layer of some transparent matter upon a white ground. Our author ascertained this by scraping off the superficial colours from certain feathers which were strong enough to bear the operation; and thus separated the coloured layers from the white ground on which they had been naturally spread. The lateral fibres of the feathers cannot indeed have their surfaces separated in this manner; but their texture, when viewed by a microscope, seems to indicate, that the colours are produced upon them by no other means than those already related. In the examination of some animal subjects, where the colouring matter could not be separated by chemical means, our author had recourse to mechanical division; but this can only be employed when the principal part of the white substance is unmixed with the coloured coat or covering which is spread upon its surface. All of them, however, by whatever means their colours could be separated, showed that they were produced in the same manner, namely, by the transmission of light from a white ground through a transparent coloured medium.

39 Of the colours of mineral substances.

The coloured substances of the mineral kingdom are very numerous, and belong principally to two classes, viz. earths and metals. The former, when pure, are all perfectly white, and their colours arise from carbonic or metallic mixtures. Calcareous earths, when indurated, constitute marble, and may be tinged with various colours by means of metallic solutions: all which are similar in their nature to the dyes put upon silk, cotton, or linen, and invariably proceed from the same cause, viz. the transmission of light through a very thin and transparent coloured medium. Flints are formed from siliceous earths, and owe their colour to carbone. When sufficiently heated, they are rendered white by the loss of the inflammable matter which produced their colour. When impregnated with metals, they form agates, cornelians, jasper, and coloured crystals. The coloured gems also receive their different hues from metals: and all of them may be imitated by glasses tinged with such carbonic or metallic matters as enter into the composition of the original substances.

40 Of metals.

Thus our author concludes, that the coloured earths, gems, &c. exhibit their various tints in the same manner with other substances; viz. by the transmission of light reflected from a white ground. Our author, however, proceeds farther; and asserts, that even the colours of metals themselves are produced in the same manner.

"Gold (says he) exhibits a white light, which is tinged with yellow. I have used this expression, because it appears from experiment that gold reflects a white light, and that its yellow colour is a tinge superadded to its whiteness. The experiment is thus set forth by Sir Isaac Newton. Gold in this light (that is, a beam of white light) appears of the same yellow colour as in day light, but by intercepting at the lens a due quantity of the yellow-making rays, it will appear white like silver, as I have tried; which shows, that its yellowness arises from the excess of the intercepted rays, tinging that whiteness with their colour when they are let pass.

"I have already shown, by numerous experiments, in what manner coloured tinges are produced; and it uniformly appears, from all these experiments, that colours do not arise from reflection, but from transmission only. A solution of silver is pellucid and colourless. A solution of gold transmits yellow, but reflects

flects no colour. This metal alſo, when united with glaſs, yields no colour by reflection, but by tranſmiſſion only. All theſe circumſtances ſeem to indicate, that the yellow colour of gold ariſes from a yellow tranſparent matter, which is a conſtituent part of that metal; that it is equally mixed with the white particles of the gold, and tranſmits the light which is reflected by them, in like manner as when ſilver is gilt, or foils are made by covering white metals with tranſparent colours. But theſe factitious coverings are only ſuperficial; whereas the yellow matter of gold is diffuſed throughout the whole ſubſtance of the metal, and appears to envelope and cover each of the white particles. In whatſoever manner the yellow matter of gold is united to its white ſubſtance, it exiſts in a rare ſtate; for it bears only the ſame proportion to the white particles of the gold as that of the yellow-making rays which were intercepted bear to all the other rays compriſed in the white light of the ſun.

"Sir Iſaac Newton has ſhown, that when ſpaces or interſtices of bodies are repleniſhed with media of different denſities, the bodies are opaque; that thoſe ſuperfices of tranſparent bodies reflect the greateſt quantity of light which intercede media that differ moſt in their refractive denſities; and that the reflections of very thin tranſparent ſubſtances are conſiderably ſtronger than thoſe made by the ſame ſubſtances of a greater thickneſs. Hence the minute portions of air, or of the rarer medium which occupies ſpaces void of other matter, reflect a vivid white light whenever their ſurfaces are contiguous to media whoſe denſities differ conſiderably from their own; ſo that every ſmall maſs of air, or of the rarer medium which fills the pores or interſtices of denſe bodies, is a minute white ſubſtance. This is manifeſt in the whiteneſs of froth, and of all pellucid colourleſs bodies; ſuch as glaſs, cryſtal or ſalts, reduced to powder, or otherwiſe flawed: for in all theſe inſtances a white light is reflected from the air or rarer medium which intercede the particles of the denſer ſubſtances whoſe interſtices they occupy."

From theſe principles our author takes occaſion to explain the reaſon why the particles of metals, which yield no colour by incident light when ſuſpended in their ſolvents, are diſpoſed to exhibit colours when ſeparated from them. Hence alſo we ſee why opaque white ſubſtances are rendered pellucid by being reduced to uniform maſſes, whoſe component parts are everywhere nearly of the ſame denſity; for as all pellucid ſubſtances are rendered opaque and white by the admixture of pellucid colourleſs media of conſiderably different denſities, they are again deprived of their opacity by extricating theſe media which kept their particles at a diſtance from each other: thus froth or ſnow, when reſolved into water, loſe their whiteneſs, and aſſume their former pellucid appearance. In like manner, by proper fluxes, the opaque white earths are reduced to pellucid colourleſs glaſſes; becauſe all reflections are made at the ſurfaces of bodies differing in denſity from the ambient medium, and in the confines of equally denſe media there is no reflection.

As the oxides of metals are enabled to reflect their colours by the intervention of the particles of air; ſo, when mixed with oil in the making of paint, they always aſſume a darker colour, becauſe the exceſs of the denſity of oil over that of air forms a ſenſible difference when comparatively conſidered with reſpect to the ſpecific gravity of the rarer metals. From this cauſe perceptibly leſs light is reflected from the moleculæ of oil than from thoſe of air, and conſequently the maſs appears darker. The caſe, however, is different with ſuch paints as are formed of the denſer metals; as vermilion, minium, &c. for though oil differs very conſiderably from air in its ſpecific denſity, yet it alſo differs very much in this reſpect from the denſer metallic powders: and the moleculæ of oil which divide their particles, act upon the light ſo ſtrongly, that the reflection occaſioned by them cannot be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which are cauſed by rarer media. Hence though we mix vermilion or minium with oil, the colour is not leſs ſenſibly altered.

41 Objections to his theory of metallic colours.

This part of our author's theory, however, ſeems liable to objection; for though it be true that the oxides of ſome metals are denſer than others, yet that is, comparatively ſpeaking, but in a very ſmall proportion; nor is even the difference of denſity between oil and the oxides of the heavier metals at all comparable to that between the denſity of air and oil. Thus, though the oxide of iron may be 10 or 11 times more denſe than oil; yet, as the latter is between 500 or 600 times denſer than air, the ſmall difference between the oil and metallic oxide ought to be imperceptible. In this reſpect, indeed, there are conſiderable differences with regard to the oils employed, which cannot be ſuppoſed to ariſe from the mere circumſtance of denſity. Thus the colour of vermilion, when mixed with turpentine-varniſh, is much brighter than with linſeed oil; and yet the difference between the denſities of linſeed oil and turpentine-varniſh is very trifling. The mere action of heat likewiſe has a ſurpriſing effect in this caſe. Thus the red oxide of iron, called *ſcarlet oker*, by being only heated a certain degree, appears of a very dark purple, reſuming its red colour when cold; and this variation may be induced as often as we pleaſe by only heating it over the fire in a ſhovel. In like manner, by gradually heating red lead, it may be made to aſſume a moſt beautiful crimſon colour; which growing gradually darker, becomes at laſt almoſt quite black. On cooling, if the heat has not been raiſed too high, it gradually returns through the ſame ſhades of colour, until at laſt it fixes in its original hue. Theſe immenſe differences in colour cannot by any means be attributed either to the expulſion of air, or to an alteration in denſity. The fire indeed does certainly expand theſe oxides as well as other bodies; but as the medium interſperſed between their particles is thus alſo expanded, the colour ought at leaſt to remain the ſame, if not to become lighter, on account of the ſuperior expanſion of air to that of metal by the ſame degree of heat. It would ſeem, therefore, that the action of the element of fire itſelf has a conſiderable ſhare in the production of colours; and indeed its ſhare in the operations of nature is ſo great, that we might well think it ſtrange if it ſhould be entirely excluded from this.

42 Of the colours of ſemipellucid ſubſtances.

With regard to ſemipellucid ſubſtances, which appear of one colour by incident, and another by tranſmitted light, our author likewiſe endeavours to ſhow that no reflection is made by the coloured matter, but only

only by the white or colourless particles. They consist of pellucid media, throughout which white or colourless opaque particles are dispersed. The latter are disposed at such distances from each other, that some of the incident rays of light are capable of passing through the intervals which intercede them, and thus are transmitted through the semipellucid mass. Some sorts of rays penetrate through such masses, while others, which differ from them in their refrangibility, are reflected by the light or colourless particles; and from thence are transmitted through the pellucid part of the medium which intervenes between the reflecting particles and the anterior surface of the mass. On the same principle our author explains the blue colour of the sky, the green colour of the sea, and other natural phenomena: and from his numerous experiments on this subject at last concludes, "that the power by which the several rays of light are transmitted through different media is inherent in the particles themselves, and therefore is not confined to the surfaces of such media. For if the transmissive force was exerted at the surface only, the thinner plates of coloured substances would act upon the rays as powerfully as thicker masses. But it appears from experiment, that in proportion as the rays pass through different thicknesses of coloured media, they exhibit colours differing not only in degree, but frequently in species also.

43 How colours are shown by transmitted light.

"The sun's light, by which bodies are illuminated, consists of all the rays of which a white light is compounded. These rays, in their entire and undivided state, are incident upon the opaque particles of semipellucid substances, and upon the colouring particles of transparent coloured substances, whenever these media are exposed to the light. When the rays accede to the opaque particles of semipellucid substances, some sorts of them are reflected back from the anterior surface of these particles: the other sorts of rays, which are not reflected back, are diverted from the direction which is opposite to the anterior surface of the opaque particles, and passing through the intervals between the particles, are transmitted through the mass.

"When the rays are incident upon the particles of transparent coloured bodies, none of them are reflected back; because the colouring particles are not endowed with any reflective power; but some of the rays are either stopped at the interior surface of the particles, or are diverted into such directions as render them incapable of passing towards the further side of the mass; and consequently such rays cannot be transmitted. The rays which are not thus intercepted or dispersed, are transmitted in the same manner as those which pass through semipellucid media. Thus it is evident, that the coloured rays which are transmitted through semipellucid substances, are *inflected* by the opaque particles; and those which are transmitted through transparent-coloured substances are *inflected* by the colouring particles. From the preceding observations likewise it appears, that the particles of coloured media inflect the several sorts of rays according to the several sizes and densities of the particles; also in proportion to the inflammability of the media which owe their colour to them; and it is manifest that the transmission of coloured rays depends upon their inflection. All these observations are conformable to Sir Isaac Newton's doctrine that the rays of light are reflected, refracted, and inflected, by one and the same principle acting variously in various circumstances."

The most remarkable part of Mr Delaval's doctrine is that concerning the metals; for the better understanding of which we shall premise a short abstract of his general doctrine concerning white bodies, and the manner in which light is reflected by them. "All the earths, (he observes), which in their natural state are of a pure white, constitute transparent colourless media when vitrified with proper fluxes, or when dissolved in colourless menstrua; and the saline masses obtainable from their solutions are transparent and colourless, while they retain the water which is essential to their crystallization, and are not flawed or reduced to powder; but after their pores and interstices are opened in such a manner as to admit the air, they become then white and opaque by the entrance of that rare medium. The earthy particles which form the solid parts of bodies generally exceed the other in density; consequently these particles, when contiguous to the rare media already mentioned, must reflect the rays of light with a force proportionate to their density. The reflective power of bodies does not depend merely upon their excess of density, but upon their difference of density with respect to the surrounding media. Transparent colourless particles, whose density is greatly inferior to that of the media they come between, also powerfully reflect all sorts of rays, and thereby become white. Of this kind are the air or other rare fluids which occupy the interstices of liquors; and in general of all denser media in whose interstices such rare particles are admitted.

44 Of the manner in which light is reflected from white bodies.

Hence we may conclude, that white opaque bodies are constituted by the union or contiguity of two or more transparent colourless media differing considerably from each other in their reflective powers. Of these substances we have examples in froth, emulsions, or other imperfect combinations of pellucid liquors, milk, snow, calcined or pulverized salts, glass or crystal reduced to powder, white earths, paper, linen, and even those metals which are called white by mineralogists and chemists: for the metals just mentioned do not appear white unless their surfaces be rough; as in that case only there are interstices on their surfaces sufficient to admit the air, and thus make a reflection of a white and vivid light.

"But the polished surfaces of metallic mirrors reflect the incident rays equably and regularly, according to their several angles of incidence; so that the reflected rays do not interfere with each other, but remain separate and unmixed, and therefore distinctly exhibit their several colours. Hence it is evident, that white surfaces cannot act upon the light as mirrors; because all the rays which are reflected from them are blended in a promiscuous and disorderly manner.

"The above mentioned phenomena give much insight into the nature and cause of opacity: as they clearly show, that even the rarest transparent colourless substances, when their surfaces are adjacent to media differing greatly from them in refractive power, may thereby acquire a perfect opacity, and may assume a resplendency and hue so similar to that of white metals, that the rarer pellucid substances cannot by the

45 Of the cause of opacity.

sight

ſight be diſtinguiſhed from the denſe opaque metals. And this ſimilarity to the ſurfaces of metals, occurs in the rare pellucid ſubſtances, not only when, from the roughneſs of their ſurfaces, they reſemble unpoliſhed metals in whiteneſs, but alſo when, from their ſmoothneſs, they reſemble the poliſhed ſurfaces of metals.

"Metals ſeem to conſiſt entirely of tranſparent matter, and to derive their apparent opacity and luſtre ſolely from the copious reflection of light from their ſurfaces. The analogy between the metals and tranſparent media, as far as reſpects their optical properties, will appear from the following conſiderations.

"1. All metals diſſolved in their proper menſtrua are tranſparent. 2. By the union of two or more tranſparent media, ſubſtances are conſtituted which are ſimilar to metals in their opacity and luſtre, as plumbago and marcaſites. 3. The tranſparent ſubſtances of metals, as well as thoſe of minerals, by their union with carbone, acquire their ſtrong reflective powers from which their luſtre and opacity ariſe. 4. The ſurfaces of pellucid media, ſuch as glaſs or water, aſſume a metallic appearance, when by their ſmoothneſs, difference of denſity with reſpect to the contiguous media, or any other cauſe, they are diſpoſed copiouſly to reflect the light.

"From all theſe conſiderations it is evident, that opaque ſubſtances are conſtituted by the union or contiguity of tranſparent colourleſs media, differing from one another in their reflective powers; and that, when the common ſurface, which comes between ſuch media, is plane, equal, and ſmooth, it reflects the incident rays equally and regularly as a mirror; but when the ſurface is rough and unequal, or divided into minute particles, it reflects the incident rays irregularly and promiſcuouſly in different directions, and conſequently appears white."

46 Theory of colours ſtill uncertain.

From all theſe experiments we can only conclude, that the theory of colours ſeems not yet to be determined with certainty; and very formidable, perhaps unanſwerable, objections might be brought againſt every hypotheſis of this ſubject that hath been invented. The diſcoveries of Sir Iſaac Newton, however, are ſufficient to juſtify the following

APHORISMS.

1. All the colours in nature proceed from the rays of light.

2. There are ſeven primary colours; which are red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet.

3. Every ray of light may be ſeparated into the ſeven primary colours.

4. The rays of light in paſſing through the ſame medium have different degrees of refrangibility.

5. The difference in the colours of light ariſes from its different refrangibility: that which is the leaſt refrangible producing red; and that which is the moſt refrangible, violet.

6. By compounding any of the two primary colours, as red and yellow, or yellow and blue, the intermediate colour, as orange or green, may be produced.

7. The colours of bodies ariſe from their diſpoſitions to reflect one ſort of rays and to abſorb the other; thoſe that reflect the leaſt refrangible rays appearing red; and thoſe that reflect the moſt refrangible, violet.

8. Such bodies as reflect two or more ſorts of rays appear of various colours.

9. The whiteneſs of bodies ariſes from their diſpoſition to reflect all the rays of light promiſcuouſly.

10. The blackneſs of bodies proceeds from their incapacity to reflect any of the rays of light (c).

Entertaining EXPERIMENTS, *founded on the preceding Principles.*

I. *Out of a ſingle colourleſs ray of light to produce ſeven other rays, which ſhall paint, on a white body, the ſeven primary colours of nature.*

PROCURE from an optician a large glaſs priſm DEF, (fig. 1.), well poliſhed, two of whoſe ſides muſt contain an angle of about ſixty-four degrees. Make a room quite dark, and in the window-ſhutter AB, cut a round hole, about one-third of an inch in diameter, at C, through which a ray of light LI paſſing, falls on the priſm DEF; by that it is refracted out of the direction IT, in which it would have proceeded, into another GH; and, falling on the paper MNSX, will there form an oblong ſpectrum PQ, whoſe ends will be ſemicircular, and its ſides ſtraight; and if the diſtance of the priſm from the paper be about eighteen feet, it will be ten inches long, and two inches wide. This ſpectrum will exhibit all the primary colours; the rays between P and V, which are the moſt refracted, will paint a deep violet; thoſe between V and I, indigo; thoſe between I and B, blue; thoſe between B and G, green; thoſe between G and Y, yellow; thoſe between Y and O, orange; and thoſe between O and R, being the leaſt refracted, an intenſe red. The colours between theſe ſpaces will not be everywhere equally intenſe, but will incline to the neighbouring colour: thus the part of the orange next to R will incline to a red, that next to Y to a yellow; and ſo of the reſt. Plate CXLV. Fig. 1.

II. *From two or more of the primary colours, to compoſe others that ſhall, in appearance, reſemble thoſe of the former.*

By mixing the two homogeneous colours red and yellow, an orange will be produced, ſimilar in appearance to that in the ſeries of primary colours; but the light of the one being homogeneous, and that of the other heterogeneous, if the former be viewed through a priſm it will remain unaltered, but the other will be reſolved into its component colours red and yellow. In like manner, other contiguous homogeneous colours may compound new colours; as by mixing yellow and green, a colour between them is formed; and if blue be added, there will appear a green, that is the middle colour

(c) From hence it ariſes, that black bodies, when expoſed to the ſun, become ſooner heated than all others.

colour of thoſe three. For the yellow and blue, if they are equal in quantity, will draw the intermediate green equally toward them, and keep it, as it were, in equilibrio, that it verge not more to the one than to the other. To this compound green there may be added ſome red and violet; and yet the green will not immediately ceaſe, but grow leſs vivid; till by adding more red and violet it will become more diluted; and at laſt, by the prevalence of the added colours, it will be overcome, and turned into ſome anomalous colour.

If the ſun's white, compoſed of all kinds of rays, be added to any homogeneous colour, that colour will not vaniſh, nor change its ſpecies, but be diluted; and by adding more white, it will become continually more diluted. Laſtly, if red and violet be mixed, there will be generated, according to their various proportions, various purples, ſuch as are not like, in appearance, to the colour of any homogeneous light; and of theſe purples, mixed with blue and yellow, other new colours may be compoſed.

III. *Out of three of the primary colours, red, yellow, and blue, to produce all the other priſmatic colours, and all that are intermediate to them.*

Fig. 2. Provide three panes of glaſs (fig. 2.) of about five inches ſquare; and divide each of them, by parallel lines, into five equal parts. Take three ſheets of very thin paper; which you muſt paint, lightly, one blue, another yellow, and the third red (D). Then paſte on one of the glaſſes five pieces of the red paper, one of which muſt cover the whole glaſs, the ſecond only the four lower diviſions, the third the three lower, the fourth the two loweſt, and the fifth the laſt diviſion only. On the other glaſſes five pieces of the blue and yellow papers muſt be paſted in like manner. You muſt alſo have a box of about ſix inches long, and the ſame depth and width as the glaſſes; it muſt be black on the inſide: let one end be quite open, and in the oppoſite end there muſt be a hole large enough to ſee the glaſſes completely. It muſt alſo open at the top, that the glaſſes may be placed in it conveniently.

When you have put any one of theſe glaſſes in the box, and the open end is turned toward the ſun, you will ſee five diſtinct ſhades of the colour it contains. If you place the blue and yellow glaſſes together, in a ſimilar direction, you will ſee five ſhades of green diſtinctly formed. When the blue and red glaſſes are placed, a bright violet will be produced: and by the red and yellow, the ſeveral ſhades of orange.

If, inſtead of placing theſe glaſſes in a ſimilar poſition, you place the ſide AB of the yellow glaſs againſt the ſide BD of the blue, you will ſee all the various greens that are produced by nature (E); if the blue and red glaſſes be placed in that manner, you will have all the poſſible varieties of purples, violets, &c.; and, laſtly, if the red and orange glaſſes be ſo placed, there will be all the intermediate colours, as the marygold, aurora, &c. Fig. 3.

IV. *By means of the three primary colours, red, yellow, and blue, together with light and ſhade, to produce all the gradations of the priſmatic colours.*

On ſeven ſquare panes of glaſs, paſte papers that are painted with the ſeven priſmatic colours, in the ſame manner as the laſt experiment. The colours for the orange, green, indigo, and violet, may be made by mixing the other three. Then with biſtre (F,) well diluted, ſhade a ſheet of very thin paper, by laying it light on both its ſides. With pieces of this paper cover four-fifths of a glaſs, of the ſame ſize with the others, by laying one piece on the four loweſt diviſions, another on the three loweſt, a third on the two loweſt, and the fourth on the loweſt diviſion only, and leaving the top diviſion quite uncovered. When one of the coloured glaſſes is placed in the box, together with the glaſs of ſhades, ſo that the ſide AB of the one be applied to the ſide BC of the other, as in fig. 3. the ſeveral gradations of colours will appear ſhaded in the ſame manner as a drapery judiciouſly painted with that colour.

It is on this principle that certain French artiſts have proceeded in their endeavours to imitate, by deſigns printed in colours, paintings in oil: which they do by four plates of the ſame ſize, on each of which is engraved the ſame deſign. One of theſe contains all the ſhades that are to be repreſented, and which are painted either black or with a dark gray. One of the three other plates is covered with blue, another with red, and the third with yellow; each of them being engraved on thoſe parts only which are to repreſent that colour (G); and the engraving is either ſtronger or weaker, in proportion to the tone of colour that is to be repreſented (H).

Theſe four plates are then paſſed alternately under the

(D) Water-colours muſt be uſed for this purpoſe: the blue may be that of Pruſſia, and very bright; the red, carmine; and the yellow, gamboge, mixed with a little ſaffron. Theſe colours muſt be laid very light and even on both ſides of the paper.

(E) In the firſt poſition of the glaſſes, the quantity of blue and yellow being equal, the ſame ſort of green was conſtantly viſible; but by thus inverting the glaſſes, the quantity of the colours being conſtantly unequal, a very pleaſing variety of tints is produced.

(F) The biſtre here uſed muſt be made of ſoot, not that in ſtone.

(G) When a red drapery is required, it is engraved on the plate aſſigned to that colour; and ſo of yellow and blue: but if one of the other colours be wanting, ſuppoſe violet, it muſt be engraved on thoſe that print the red blue: and ſo of the reſt. The plates of this kind have been hitherto engraved in the manner of mezzotinto; but theſe, unleſs they are ſkilfully managed, are ſoon effaced. Engravings in the manner of crayon will perhaps anſwer better.

(H) The principal difficulty in this ſort of engraving ariſes from want of ſkilful management, in giving each plate that preciſe degree of engraving which will produce the tone of colour required. If a bright green is

the preſs, and the mixture of their colours produces a print that bears no ſmall reſemblance to a painting. It muſt be confeſſed, however, that what has been hitherto done of this kind falls far ſhort of that degree of perfection of which this art appears ſuſceptible. If they who engrave the beſt in the manner of the crayon, were to apply themſelves to this art, there is reaſon to expect they would produce far more finiſhed pieces than we have hitherto ſeen.

V. *To make figures appear of different colours ſucceſſively.*

Fig. 4. Make a hole in the window-ſhutter of a dark room, through which a broad beam of light may paſs, that is to be refracted by the large glaſs priſm ABC, (fig. 4.), which may be made of pieces of mirrors cemented together, and filled with water. Provide another priſm DEF, made of three pieces of wood: through the middle of this there muſt paſs an axis on which it is to revolve. This priſm muſt be covered with white paper; and each of its ſides cut through in ſeveral places, ſo as to repreſent different figures; and thoſe of each ſide ſhould likewiſe be different. The inſide of this priſm is to be hollow, and made quite black, that it may not reflect any of the light that paſſes through the ſides into it. When this priſm is placed near to that of glaſs, as in the figure, with one of its ſides EF perpendicular to the ray of light, the figures on that ſide will appear perfectly white: but when it comes into the poſition *g h*, the figures will appear yellow and red; and when it is in the poſition *k l*, they will appear blue and violet. As the priſm is turned round its axis, the other ſides will have a ſimilar appearance. If, inſtead of a priſm, a four or five-ſided figure be here uſed, the appearances will be ſtill further diverſified.

This phenomenon ariſes from the different refrangibility of the rays of light. For when the ſide EF is in the poſition *g h*, it is more ſtrongly illuminated by the leaſt refrangible rays; and wherever they are predominant, the object will appear red or yellow. But when it is on the poſition *k l*, the more refrangible rays being then predominant, it will appear tinged with blue and violet.

VI. *The ſolar magic lanthorn.*

Procure a box, of about a foot high, and eighteen inches wide, or ſuch other ſimilar dimenſions as you ſhall think fit, and about three inches deep. Two of the oppoſite ſides of this box muſt be quite open; and in each of the other ſides let there be a groove, wide enough to paſs a ſtiff paper or paſtebord. This box muſt be faſtened againſt a window on which the ſun's rays fall direct. The reſt of the window ſhould be cloſed up, that no light may enter. Provide ſeveral ſheets of ſtiff paper, which muſt be blacked on one ſide. On theſe papers cut out ſuch figures as you ſhall think proper; and placing them alternately in the grooves of the box, with their blacked ſides towards you, look at them through a large and clear glaſs priſm: and if the light be ſtrong, they will appear to be painted with the moſt lively colours in nature. If you cut on one of theſe papers the form of the rainbow, about three quarters of an inch wide, you will have a lively repreſentation of that in the atmoſphere.

This experiment may be farther diverſified, by paſting very thin papers, lightly painted with different colours, over ſome of the parts that are cut out: which will appear to change their colours when viewed through the priſm, and to ſtand out from the paper, at different diſtances, according to the different degrees of refrangibility of the colours with which they are painted. For greater convenience, the priſm may be placed in a ſtand on a table, at the height of your eye, and made to turn round on an axis, that when you have got an agreeable proſpect, you may fix it in that poſition.

VII. *The priſmatic camera obſcura.*

Make two holes, F, *f*, (fig. 5.) in the ſhutter of a dark chamber, near to each other; and againſt each hole place a priſm ABC, and *a b c*, in a perpendicular direction, that their ſpectrums NM may be caſt on the paper in a horizontal line, and coincide with each other; the red and violet of the one being in the ſame part with thoſe of the other. The paper ſhould be placed at ſuch a diſtance from the priſms that the ſpectrum may be ſufficiently dilated. Provide ſeveral papers nearly of the ſame dimenſions with the ſpectrum; croſs theſe papers, and draw lines parallel to the diviſions of the colours. In theſe diviſions cut out ſuch figures as you ſhall find will have an agreeable effect, as flowers, trees, animals, &c. When you have placed one of theſe papers in its proper poſition, hang a black cloth or paper behind it, that none of the rays that paſs through may be reflected and confuſe the phenomena. The figures cut on the paper will then appear ſtrongly illuminated with all the original colours of nature. If, while one of the priſms remains at reſt, the other be revolved on its axis, the continual alteration of the colours will afford a pleaſing variety; which may be further increaſed by turning the priſm round in different directions. Fig. 5.

When the priſms are ſo placed that the two ſpectrums become coincident in an inverted order of their colours, the red end of one falling on the violet end of the other; if they be then viewed through a third priſm DH, held parallel to their length, they will no longer appear coincident, but in the form of two diſtinct ſpectrums, *p t* and *n m* (fig. 6.), croſſing one another in the middle, like the letter X: the red of one ſpectrum and violet of the other, which were coincident at NM, being parted from each other by a greater refraction of the violet to *p* and *m*, than that of the red to *n* and *t*. Fig 6.

This experiment may be further diverſified by adding two other priſms, that ſhall form a ſpectrum in the ſame line, and contiguous to the other; by which not only the variety of figures, but the viciſſitude of colours, will be conſiderably augmented.

VIII.

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is to be repreſented, there ſhould be an equal quantity of engraving on the red and yellow plates: but if an olive green, the yellow plate ſhould be engraved much deeper than the red.

VIII. *The diatonic ſcale of colours.*

The illuſtrious Newton, in the courſe of his inveſtigations of the properties of light, diſcovered that the length of the ſpaces which the ſeven primary colours poſſeſs in the ſpectrum, exactly correſponds to thoſe of chords that ſound the ſeven notes in the diatonic ſcale of muſic: As is evident by the following experiment.

Fig. 7. On a paper in a dark chamber, let a ray of light be largely refracted into the ſpectrum AFTMGP (fig. 7.), and mark the preciſe boundaries of the ſeveral colours, as *a*, *b*, *c*, &c. Draw lines from thoſe points perpendicular to the oppoſite ſide, and you will find that the ſpaces M*rf*F, by which the red is bounded; *rgef*, by which the orange is bounded; *qped*, by which the yellow is bounded, &c. will be in exact proportion to the diviſions of a muſical chord for the notes of an octave; that is, as the intervals of theſe numbers $1, \frac{8}{9}, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{9}{10}, \frac{1}{2}$.

IX. *Colorific muſic.*

Father Caſtel, a Frenchman, in a curious book he has publiſhed on chromatics, ſuppoſes the note *ut* to anſwer to blue in the priſmatic colours; the note *re* to yellow, and *mi* to red. The other tones he refers to the intermediate colours; from whence he conſtructs the following gamut of colorific muſic:

Ut	Blue
Ut ſharp	Sea green
Re	Bright green
Re ſharp	Olive green
Mi	Yellow
Fa	Aurora
Fa ſharp	Orange
Sol	Red
Sol ſharp	Crimſon
La	Violet
La ſharp	Blue violet
Si	Sky blue
Ut	Blue

This gamut, according to this plan, is to be continued in the ſame manner for the following octave; except that the colours are to be more vivid.

He ſuppoſes that theſe colours, by ſtriking the eye in the ſame ſucceſſion as the ſounds (to which he makes them analogous) do the ear, and in the ſame order of time, they will produce correſpondent ſenſations of pleaſure in the mind. It is on theſe general principles, which F. Caſtel has elucidated in his treatiſe, that he has endeavoured, though with little ſucceſs, to eſtabliſh his ocular harpſichord.

The conſtruction of this inſtrument, as here explained, will ſhow that the effects produced by colours by no means anſwer thoſe of ſounds, and that the principal relation there is between them conſiſts in the duration of the time that they reſpectively affect the ſenſes.

Fig. 8. Between two circles of paſteboard, of ten inches diameter, AB and CD, (fig. 8.), incloſe a hollow paſteboard cylinder E, 18 inches long. Divide this cylinder into ſpaces half an inch wide, by a ſpiral line that runs round it from the top to the bottom, and divide its ſurface into ſix equal parts by parallel lines drawn between its two extremities: as is expreſſed in the figure.

Let the circle AB, at top, be open, and let that at bottom, CD, be cloſed, and ſupported by an axis or ſcrew, of half an inch diameter, which muſt turn freely in a nut placed at the bottom of a box we ſhall preſently deſcribe. To the axis juſt mentioned adjuſt a wooden wheel G, of two inches and a half in diameter, and that has 12 or 15 teeth, which take the endleſs ſcrew H. Let this cylinder be incloſed in a box ILMN (fig. 9.) whoſe baſe is ſquare, and at whoſe bottom there is a nut, in which the axis F turns. Obſerve that the endleſs ſcrew H ſhould come out of the box, that it may receive the handle O, by which the cylinder is to be turned.

This box being cloſed all round, place over it a tin covering A, which will be perforated in different parts; from this cover there muſt hang three or four lights, ſo placed that they may ſtrongly illumine the inſide of the cylinder. In one ſide of this box (which ſhould be covered with paſteboard) cut eight apertures, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, (fig. 9.) of half an inch wide, and Fig. 9. $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch high; they muſt be directly over each other, and the diſtance between them muſt be exactly two inches. It is by theſe openings, which here correſpond to the muſical notes, that the various colours analogous to them are to appear; and which being placed on the paſteboard cylinder, as we have ſhown, are reflected by means of the lights placed within it.

It is eaſy to conceive, that when the handle O is turned, the cylinder in conſequence riſing half an inch, if it be turned five times round, it will ſucceſſively ſhow, at the openings made in the ſide of the box, all thoſe that are in the cylinder itſelf, and which are ranged according to the direction of the inclined lines drawn on it. It is therefore according to the duration of the notes which are to be expreſſed, that the apertures on the cylinder are to be cut. Obſerve, that the ſpace between two of the parallel lines drawn vertically on the cylinder, is equal to one meaſure of time; therefore, for every turn of the cylinder, there are ſix meaſures, and thirty meaſures for the air that is to be played by this inſtrument.

The ſeveral apertures being made in the ſide of the cylinder, in conformity to the notes of the tune that is to be expreſſed, they are to be covered with double pieces of very thin paper, painted on both ſides with the colours that are to repreſent the muſical notes.

This experiment might be executed in a different manner, and with much greater extent; but as the entertainment would not equal the trouble and expence, we have thought it ſufficient to give the above piece, by which the reader will be enabled to judge how far the analogy ſuppoſed by F. Caſtel really exiſts.

Fig. 3.

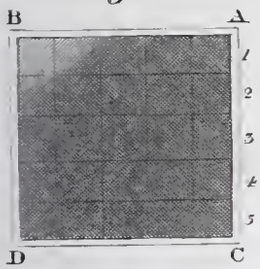


Fig. 2.

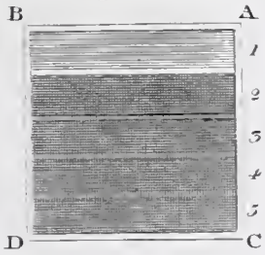


Fig. 1.

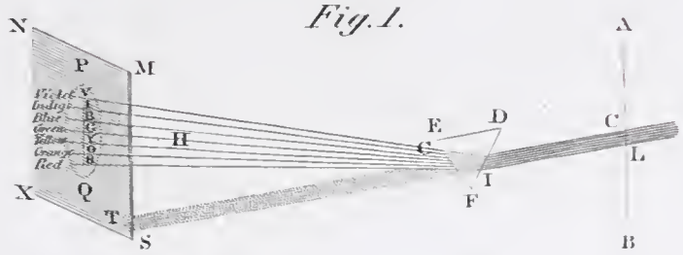


Fig. 7.

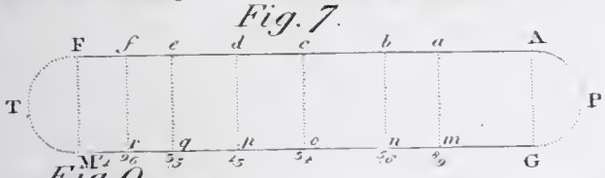


Fig. 4.

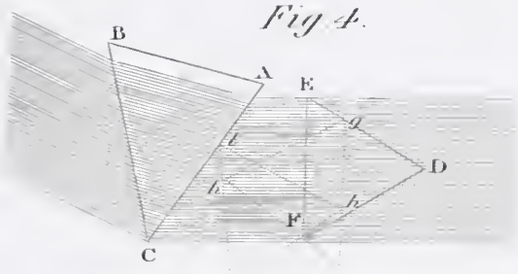


Fig. 9.

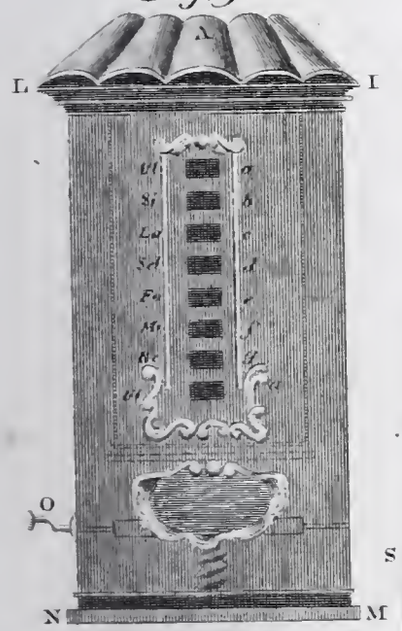


Fig. 8.

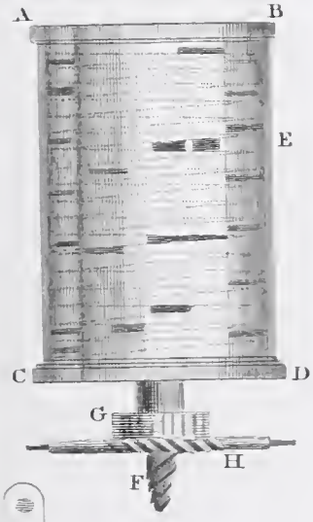
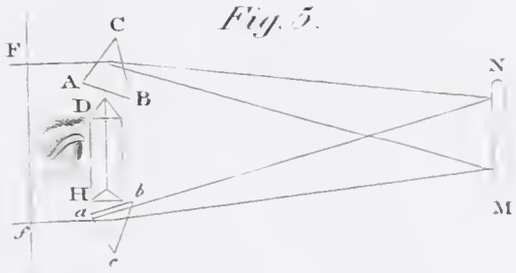
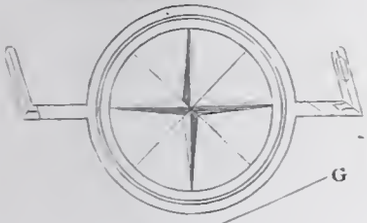


Fig. 6.

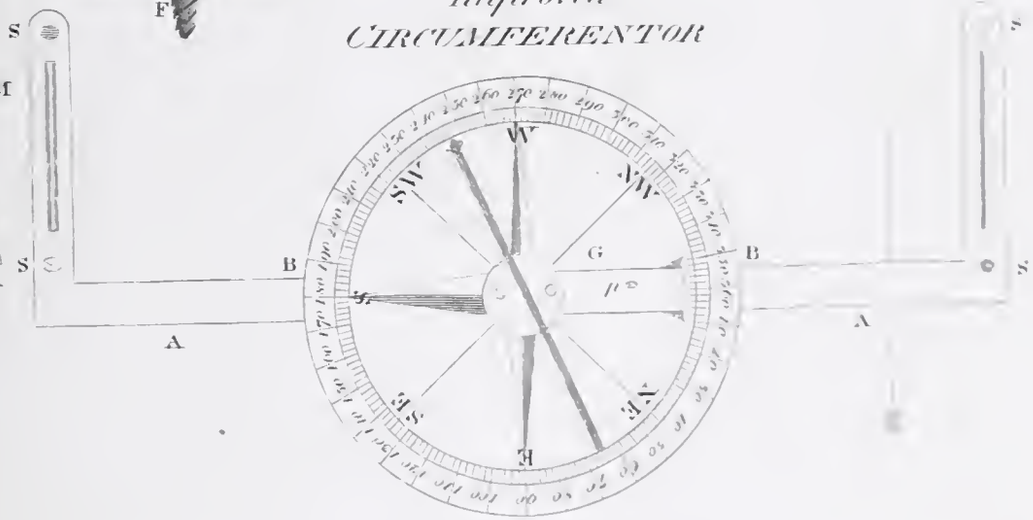
Fig. 5.



CIRCUMFERENTOR

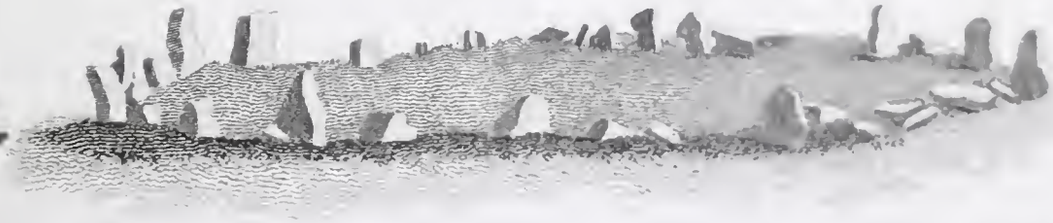


Improved CIRCUMFERENTOR



CHINNOR

Druidical CIRCLE



Chronic, Chronicle.

CHRONIC, or CHRONICAL, among physicians, an appellation given to diseases that continue a long time; in contradistinction to those that soon terminate, and are called *acute*.

CHRONICLE, in matters of literature, a species or kind of history disposed according to the order of time, and agreeing in most respects with annals. See ANNALS.

Parian CHRONICLE. See *ARUNDELIAN Marbles*. Since that article was printed, in which an abstract was given of Mr Robertson's doubts and observations respecting the authenticity of the Parian Chronicle, one or two publications have appeared in answer, but none of them calculated to remove the objections, or materially to affect the arguments that had been stated with so much learning and ingenuity against it. The following strictures, however, with which the Monthly Reviewers have concluded their critique of Mr Robertson's performance, seem to merit consideration.

Monthly Review. Jan. 1789.

On Objection I. *That the characters have no certain or unequivocal marks of antiquity*, the Reviewers remark, that this seems rather to be an answer to a defender of the inscription, than an objection. If a zealous partizan of the marble should appeal to its characters and orthography, as decisive proofs of its being genuine, it would be proper enough to answer, that these circumstances afford no certain criterion of authenticity. But in this word *certain* sculks an unlucky ambiguity. If it means demonstrative, it must be allowed that no inscription can be proved to be certainly genuine from these appearances; but if it means no more than highly probable, many inscriptions possess sufficient internal evidence to give their claims this degree of certainty. The true question is, Has not the Parian Chronicle every mark of antiquity that can be expected in a monument claiming the age of 2000 years? The letters Γ and Ξ are, by Mr R.'s own confession, such as occur in genuine inscriptions; and to say in answer, that an impostor might copy the forms of these letters from other inscriptions, is already to suppose the inscription forged, before it is rendered probable by argument. The learned author of the Dissertation seems to betray some doubt of his own conclusion: for he adds, p. 56. "that the antiquity of an inscription can never be proved by the mere form of the letters, because the most ancient characters are as easily counterfeited as the modern." But this objection is equally applicable to all other ancient inscriptions; and is not to the purpose, if the present inscription has any peculiar marks of imposture in its characters and orthography. "The characters do not resemble the Sigean, the Nemean, or the Delian inscriptions." Mr R. answers this objection himself, by adding, "which are supposed to be of a more ancient date." The opposite reason to this will be a sufficient answer to the other objection, "that they do not resemble the Farnesian pillars or the Alexandrian MS." If "they differ in many respects from the Marmor Sandvicense," they may be presumed to agree in many. "They seem to resemble more than any other, the alphabet taken by Montfauçon from the marmor Cyzicenum." Thus it appears that the Parian Chronicle most nearly resembles the two inscriptions, to whose age it most nearly approaches.

When Mr R. adds, that the letters "are such as an ordinary stone-cutter would probably make, if he were employed to engrave a Greek inscription, according to the alphabet now in use," he must be understood *cum grano salis*. The engraver of a fac-simile generally omits some nice and minute touches in taking his copy; but, even with this abatement, we dare appeal to any adept in Greek calligraphy, whether the specimen facing p. 56. will justify our author's observation? "The small letters (O, Θ, Ω,) intermixed among the larger, have an air of affectation and artifice." Then has the greater part of ancient inscriptions an air of affectation and artifice. For the O is perpetually engraved in this diminutive size; and Ω being of a kindred sound, and Θ of a kindred shape, how can we wonder that all three should be represented of the same magnitude? In the inscription which immediately follows the marble in Dr Chandler's edition, No. xxiv. these very three letters are never so large as the rest, and often much smaller; of which there are instances in the three first lines. See also two medals in the second part of Dorville's Sicula, Tab. xvi. Numb. 7. 9.

"From the archaisms, such as εγ Λυκωρειας εγ Κυβελοις, εμι Παρωι, &c. &c. no conclusion can be drawn in favour of the authenticity of the inscription." Yet surely every thing common to it with other inscriptions, confessedly genuine, creates a reasonable presumption in its favour. "But what reason could there be for these archaisms in the Parian Chronicle? We do not usually find them in Greek writers of the same age, or even of a more early date." The reason is, according to our opinion, that such archaisms were then in use: this we know from other inscriptions, in which such archaisms (or, as our author afterwards calls them, barbarisms) are frequent. Nothing can be inferred from the Greek writers, unless we had their autographs. The present system of orthography in our printed Greek books is out of the question. Again, "The inscription sometimes adopts and sometimes neglects these archaisms, as in lines 4, 12, 27, 52, 63, 67." This inconsistency either is no valid objection, or if it be valid, will demolish not only almost every other inscription, but almost every writing whatsoever. For example, in the inscription just quoted, No. xxiv. we find τοΝ βασιλεα, l. 20. and οταΜ, πεμπτι, 24. A little farther, N° xxvi. l. 31. we have εΓ Μαγνησιας, 57. 73. 81. εΚ Μαγνησιας, and 106, 108. εΚΓ Μαγνησιας. The Corcyrean inscription (Montfauçon, Diar. Ital. p. 420.) promiscuously uses εΚδανειζεται and εΓδανειζομαι. In English, who is surprised to find *has* and *hath*, *a hand* and *an hand*, *a useful* and *an useful*, in the works of the same author? We could produce instances of this inaccuracy from the same page, nay from the same sentence.

"The authenticity of those inscriptions, in which these archaisms appear, must be established, before they can be produced in opposition to the present argument." This is, we cannot help thinking, rather too severe a restriction. If no inscription may be quoted before it be proved genuine, the learned author of the Dissertation need not be afraid of being confuted; for nobody will engage with him on such conditions. Perhaps the reverse of the rule will be thought more equitable; that every inscription be allowed to be genuine, till its authenticity be rendered doubtful by

by probable arguments. We will conclude this head with two ſhort obſervations. In Selden's copy, l. 26. was written ΠΟΗΣΙΝ, which the later editions have altered to ΠΟΙΗΣΙΝ, but without reaſon, the other being the more ancient way of writing, common in MSS. and ſometimes found on inſcriptions. (See G. Koen's Notes on *Gregorius de Dialectis*, p. 30.) In l. 83. the marble has Καλλεου, for which Palmer wiſhed to ſubſtitute Καλλιου. Dr Taylor refutes him from the *Marmor Sandvicenſe*, obſerving at the ſame time, that this orthography occurs in no other place whatever except in theſe two monuments. Is it likely that two engravers ſhould by chance coincide in the ſame miſtake, or that the forger of the Parian Chronicle (if it be forged) ſhould have ſeen the *Marmor Sandvicenſe*, and taken notice of this peculiarity with the intention of afterward employing it in the fabrication of an impoſture?

The reviewers next proceed to conſider, but more briefly, the other objections.

II. *It is not probable that the Chronicle was engraved for private uſe.*—1. *Becauſe it was ſuch an expence, as few learned Greeks were able to afford.* If only a *few* were able to afford it, ſome one of thoſe few might be willing to incur it. But let Mr R. conſider how likely it is that a modern, and probably a needy Greek, ſhould be more able to afford it in the laſt century, than a learned Greek 2000 years ago! 2. *A manuſcript is more readily circulated.* Do men never prefer cumbrous ſplendor to cheapneſs and convenience? And if this compoſition, inſtead of being engraved on marble, had been committed to parchment, would it have had a better chance of coming down to the preſent age? Such a flying ſheet would ſoon be loſt; or, if a copy had, by miracle, been preſerved to us, the objections to its being genuine would be more plauſible than any that have been urged againſt the inſcription. What Mr R. ſays about the errors to which an inſcription is liable, &c. will only prove that chronological inſcriptions ought not to be engraved; but not that they never were. We allow that the *common* method of writing in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus was NOT on STONES. But it was common enough to occur to the mind of any perſon who wiſhed to leave behind him a memorial at once of his learning and magnificence.

III. This objection, *that the marble does not appear to be engraved by public authority*, we ſhall readily admit, though Bentley (Diſſ. on Phalaris, p. 251.) leans to the contrary opinion. In explaining this objection, the learned diſſertator obſerves, that though the expreſſion, αρχοντος εμ Παρωι, would lead us to ſuppoſe that the inſcription related to Paros, not a ſingle circumſtance in the hiſtory of that iſland is mentioned. But this expreſſion only ſhows that the author was an inhabitant of Paros, and intended to give his readers a clue, or *parapegma*, by the aid of which they might adjuſt the general chronology of Greece to the dates of their own hiſtory. "It is as abſurd as would be a marble in Jamaica containing the revolutions of England." We ſee no abſurdity in ſuppoſing a book to be written in Jamaica containing the revolutions of England. The natives of Paros were not unintereſted in events relating to the general hiſtory of Greece, particularly of Athens; and how can we tell whether the author were an *inquilinus*, or a native of the iſland; whether he thought it a place beneath his care; or whether he had devoted a ſeparate inſcription to the chronology of Paros?

IV. *It has been frequently obſerved, that the earlier periods of the Grecian hiſtory are involved in darkneſs and confuſion.* Granted. It follows, then, that "an author who ſhould attempt to ſettle the dates of the earlier periods would frequently contradict preceding, and be contradicted by ſubſequent, writers; that he would naturally fall into miſtakes; and at beſt could only hope to adopt the moſt probable ſyſtem. But the difficulty of the taſk, or the impoſſibility of ſucceſs, are not ſufficient to prove that no man has been raſh or mad enough to make the attempt." On the contrary, we know that many have made it. What a number of diſcordant opinions has Mr R. himſelf given us from the ancients concerning the age of Homer? This conſideration will in part obviate another objection, that the Parian Chronicle does not agree with any ancient author. For if the ancients contradict one another, how could it follow more than one of them? and why might not the author, without any imputation of ignorance or raſhneſs, ſometimes depart from them all? If indeed he diſagrees with them when they are unanimous, it might furniſh matter for ſuſpicion: though even this would be far from a deciſive argument, unleſs the ancients were ſo extremely unlike the moderns, as never to be fond of ſingular and paradoxical poſitions.

V. *This Chronicle is not once mentioned by any writer of antiquity.* How many of thoſe inſcriptions, which are preſerved to the preſent day, are mentioned by claſſical authors? Verrius Flaccus compoſed a Roman kalendar, which, as a monument of his learning and induſtry, was engraved on marble, and fixed in the moſt public part of Preneſte. Fragments of this very kalendar were lately dug up at Preneſte, and have been publiſhed by a learned Italian. Now if the paſſage of Suetonius, which informs us of this circumſtance, had been loſt, would the ſilence of the Latin writers prove that the fragments were not genuine remains of antiquity? It may be ſaid that the caſes are not parallel; for not a ſingle author mentions the Parian Chronicle, whereas Suetonius does mention Verrius's Roman kalendar. To this we anſwer, It is dangerous to deny the authenticity of any monument on the ſlender probability of its being caſually mentioned by a ſingle author. We ſhall alſo obſerve, that this fact of the Hemicyclium of Verrius will anſwer ſome part of the Diſſertator's ſecond objection: "The Parian Chronicle is not an inſcription that might have been concealed in a private library." Why not? it is of no extraordinary bulk; and might formerly have been concealed in a private library, or in a private room, with as much eaſe as many inſcriptions are now concealed in very narrow ſpaces. But unleſs this monument were placed in ſome conſpicuous part of the iſland, and obtruded itſelf on the notice of every traveller, the wonder will in great meaſure ceaſe why it is never quoted by the ancients. Of the nine authors named in p. 109, had any one ever viſited Paros? If Pauſanias had travelled thither, and publiſhed his deſcription of the place, we might perhaps expect to find ſome mention of this marble in ſo curious and inquiſitive a writer. But though the inſcription exiſted, and were famous at Paros, there ſeems no neceſſity for any

Chronicle.

any of the authors whose works are still extant to have known or recorded it. If there be, let this learned antagonist point out the place where this mention ought to have been made. If any persons were bound by a stronger obligation than others to speak of the Parian inscription, they must be the professed chronologers; but alas! we have not the entire works of so much as a single ancient chronologer: it is therefore impossible to determine whether this Chronicle were quoted by any ancient. And supposing it had been seen by some ancient, whose writings still remain, why should he make particular mention of it? Many authors, as we know from their remains, very freely copied their predecessors without naming them. Others, finding only a collection of bare events in the inscription, without historical proofs or reasons, might entirely neglect it, as deserving no credit. Mr R. seems to lay much stress on the precise, exact, and particular specification of the events, p. 109. But he ought to reflect, that this abrupt and positive method of speaking is not only usual, but necessary, in such short systems of chronology as the marble contains, where events only, and their dates, are set down, unaccompanied by any examination of evidences for and against, without stating any computation of probabilities, or deduction of reasons. When therefore a chronological writer had undertaken to reduce the general history of Greece into a regular and consistent system, admitting that he was acquainted with this inscription, what grounds have we to believe that he would say any thing about it? Either his system coincided with the Chronicle or not: if it coincided, he would very probably disdain to prop his own opinions with the unsupported assertions of another man, who, as far as he knew, was not better informed than himself. On the other hand, if he differed from the authority of the marble, he might think it a superfluous exertion of complaisance, to refute, by formal demonstration, a writer who had chosen to give no reasons for his own opinion. We shall pass hence to

Objection VII. With respect to the parachronisms that Mr R. produces, we shall without hesitation grant that the author of the inscription may have committed some mistakes in his chronology, as perhaps concerning Phidon, whom he seems to have confounded with another of the same name, &c. But these mistakes will not conclude against the antiquity of the inscription, unless we at the same time reject many of the principal Greek and Roman writers, who have been convicted of similar errors. We return therefore to

Objection VI. *Some of the facts seem to have been taken from authors of a later date.* We have endeavoured impartially to examine and compare the passages quoted in proof of this objection; but we are obliged to confess, that we do not perceive the faintest traces of theft or imitation. One example only deserves to be excepted; to which we shall therefore pay particular attention.

"The names of six, and, if the lacunæ are properly supplied, the names of twelve cities, appear to have been engraved on the marble, exactly, as we find them in Ælian's Various History. But there is not any imaginable reason for this particular arrangement. It does not correspond with the time of their foundation, with their situation in Ionia, with their relative importance, or with the order in which they are placed by other eminent historians."

The chance of six names, says Mr R. being placed by two authors in the same order, is as 1 to 720; of 12, as 1 to 479,001,600. "It is therefore utterly improbable that these names would have been placed in this order on the marble, if the author of the inscription had not transcribed them from the historian."

On this argument we shall observe, 1st, That the very contrary conclusion might possibly be just, that the historian transcribed from the inscription. Yet we shall grant that in the present case this is improbable, especially if the author of the Various History be the same Ælian, who, according to Philostratus, Vit. Sophist. II. 31. never quitted Italy in his life. But an intermediate writer might have copied the marble, and Ælian might have been indebted to him. 2dly, We see no reason to allow, that the *lacunæ* are properly supplied. Suppose we should assert, that the names stood originally thus: Miletus, Ephesus, Erythræ, Clazomene, Lebedos, Chios, Phocæa, Colophon, Myus, Priene, Samos, Teos. In this arrangement, only four names would be together in the same order with Ælian; and from these Miletus must be excepted, because there is an obvious reason for mentioning that city first. Three only will then remain; and surely that is too slight a resemblance to be construed into an imitation. For Pausanias and Paterculus, quoted by our author, p. 154, have both enumerated the same twelve cities, and both agree in placing the five last in the same order; nay, the six last, if Vossius's conjecture that TEUM ought to be inserted in Paterculus after Myum TEM, be as true as it is plausible. But who imagines that Pausanias had either opportunity or inclination to copy Paterculus? 3dly, Allowing that the names were engraved on the marble exactly in the order that Ælian has chosen, is there no way of solving the phenomenon but by supposing that one borrowed from the other? Seven authors at least (Mr R. seems to say more, p. 154, 155.) mention the colonization of the same cities: how many authors now lost may we reasonably conjecture to have done the same? If therefore the composer of the Chronicle and Ælian lighted on the same authors, the former would probably preserve the same arrangement that he found, because in transcribing a list of names, he could have no temptation to deviate; and the latter would certainly adhere faithfully to his original, because he is a notorious and servile plagiarist. Mr R. indeed thinks, p. 158, that if a succeeding writer had borrowed the words of the inscription, he would not have suppressed the name of the author. This opinion must fall to the ground, if it be shown that Ælian was accustomed to suppress the names of the authors to whom he was obliged. Ælian has given a list of fourteen celebrated gluttons; and elsewhere, another of twenty-eight drunkards (from which, by the way, it appears, that people were apt to eat and drink rather too freely in ancient as well as modern times); and both these lists contain exactly the same names in the same order with Atheneus. Now it is observable, that fourteen names may be transposed 87,178,291,200 different ways, and that twenty-eight names admit of 304,888,344,611,713,860,501,504,000,000 different transpositions, &c. &c. Ælian therefore transcribed them

them from Atheneüs: yet Ælian never mentions Atheneüs in his Various History. So that whether Ælian copied from the marble, or only drew from a common source, he might, and very probably would, conceal his authority.

VIII. *The history of the discovery of the Marbles is obscure and unsatisfactory.*

In p. 169, it is said to be "related with suspicious circumstances, and without any of those clear and unequivocal evidences which always discriminate truth from falsehood." The question is then finally decided. If the inscription has not any of those evidences which truth always possesses, and which falsehood always wants, it is most certainly forged. The learned dissertator seems for a moment to have forgotten the modest character of a *doubter*, and to personate the dogmatist. But waving this, we shall add, that, as far as we can see, no appearance of fraud is discoverable in any part of the transaction. The history of many inscriptions is related in a manner equally unsatisfactory; and if it could be clearly proved that the marble was dug up at Paros, what could be easier for a critic, who is determined at any rate to object, than to say, that it was buried there in order to be afterward dug up? If the person who brought this treasure to light had been charged on the spot with forging it, or concurring in the forgery, and had then refused to produce the external evidences of its authenticity, we should have a right to question, or perhaps to deny, that it was genuine. But no such objection having been made or hinted, at the original time of its discovery, it is unreasonable to require such testimony as it is now impossible to obtain. "There is nothing said of it in Sir T. Roe's negociations." What is the inference? That Sir Thomas knew nothing of it, or believed it to be spurious, or forged it, or was privy to the forgery? Surely nothing of this kind can be pretended. But let our author account for the circumstance if he can. To us it seems of no consequence on either side. "Peiresc made no effort to recover this precious relic; and from this composure he seems to have entertained some secret suspicions of its authenticity." Peiresc would have had no chance of recovering it after it was in the possession of Lord Arundel's agents. He was either a real or a pretended patron of letters; and it became him to affect to be pleased that the inscription had come into England, and was illustrated by his learned friend Selden. John F. Gronovius had, with great labour and expence, collated Anna Comnena's Alexiades, and intended to publish them. While he was waiting for some other collations, they were intercepted, and the work was published by another. As soon as Gronovius heard this unpleasant news, he answered, that learned men were engaged in a common cause; that if one prevented another in any publication, he ought rather to be thanked for lightening the burden, than blamed for interfering. But who would conclude from this answer, that Gronovius thought the Alexiades spurious, or not worthy of any regard?

Mr R. calculates, that the venders of the marble received 200 pieces. But here again we are left in the dark, unless we knew the precise value of these pieces. Perhaps they might be equal to an hundred of our pounds, perhaps only to fifty. Besides, as they at first bargained with Samson, Peiresc's supposed Jew agent, for fifty pieces only, they could not have forged the inscription with the clear prospect of receiving more; neither does it appear that they were paid by Samson. It is fully as reasonable to suppose fraud on the one side as on the other; and if Samson, after having the marble in his possession, refused or delayed to pay the sum stipulated, he might, in consequence of such refusal or delay, be thrown into prison, and might, in revenge, damage the marble before the owners could recover it. We own this account of ours to be a romance; but it is lawful to combat romance with romance.

IX. *The world has been frequently imposed upon by spurious books and inscriptions; and therefore we should be extremely cautious with regard to what we receive under the venerable name of antiquity.*

Much truth is observable in this remark. But the danger lies in applying such general apophthegms to particular cases. In the first place, it must be observed, that no forged books will exactly suit Mr R.'s purpose, but such as pretend to be the author's own hand-writing; nor any inscriptions, but such as are still extant on the original materials, or such as were known to be extant at the time of their pretended discovery. Let the argument be bounded by these limits, and the number of forgeries will be very much reduced. We are not in possession of Cyriacus Anconitanus's book; but if we were governed by authority, we should think that the testimony of Reinesius in his favour greatly overbalances all that Augustinus has said to his prejudice. The opinion of Reinesius is of the more weight, because he suspects Ursinus of publishing counterfeit monuments. We likewise find the most eminent critics of the present age quoting Cyriacus without suspicion (Vid. Ruhnken. in Timæi Lex. Plat. p. 10. apud Koen, ad Gregor. p. 140.). The doctrine advanced in the citation from Hardouin is exactly conformable to that writer's usual paradoxes. He wanted to destroy the credit of all the Greek and Latin writers. But inscriptions hung like a millstone about the neck of his project. He therefore resolved to make sure work, and to deny the genuineness of as many as he saw convenient: to effect which purpose, he intrenches himself in a general accusation. If the author of the dissertation had quoted a few more paragraphs from Hardouin, in which he endeavours, after his manner, to show the forgery of some inscriptions, he would at once have administered the poison and the antidote. But to the reveries of that learned madman, respecting Greek supposititious compositions of this nature, we shall content ourselves with opposing the sentiments of a modern critic, whose judgment on the subject of spurious inscriptions will not be disputed. Maffei, in the introduction to the third book, c. 1. p. 51. of his admirable, though unfinished, work, *de Arte Critica Lapidaria*, uses these words: *Inscriptionum Græce loquentium commentitias, si cum Latinis comparemus, deprehendi paucas; neque enim ullum omnino est, in tanta debacchantium falsariorum libidine, monumenti genus, in quod ii sibi minus licere putaverint. Argumento est, paucissimas usque in hanc diem ab eruditis viris, et in hoc literarum genere plurimum versatis rejectas esse, falsique damnatas.*

Books of CHRONICLES, a canonical writing of the Old

Chronicles.

Old Teſtament. It is uncertain which were written firſt, *The Books of Kings*, or *The Chronicles*, ſince they each refer to the other. However it be, the latter is often more full and comprehenſive than the former. Whence the Greek interpreters call theſe two books Παραλειπομενα, *Supplements*, *Additions*, or things omitted, becauſe they contain ſome circumſtances which are omitted in the other hiſtorical books. The Jews make but one book of the Chronicles, under the title of *Dibre-Haiamim*, i. e. *Journals* or *Annals*. Ezra is generally believed to be the author of theſe books. It is certain they were written after the end of the Babyloniſh captivity and the firſt year of the reign of Cyrus, of whom mention is made in the laſt chapter of the ſecond book.

The *Chronicles*, or *Paraleipomena*, are an abridgement of all the ſacred hiſtory, from the beginning of the Jewiſh nation to their firſt return from the captivity, taken out of thoſe books of the Bible which we ſtill have, and out of other annals which the author had then by him. The deſign of the writer was to give the Jews a ſeries of their hiſtory. The firſt book relates to the riſe and propagation of the people of Iſrael from Adam, and gives a punctual and exact account of the reign of David. The ſecond book ſets down the progreſs and end of the kingdom of Judah, to the very year of their return from the Babyloniſh captivity.

Chronogram, Chronology.

CHRONOGRAM, a ſpecies of falſe wit, conſiſting in this, that a certain date or epocha is expreſſed by numeral letters of one or more verſes; ſuch is that which makes the motto of a medal ſtruck by Guſtavus Adolphus in 1632:

ChrIſtVs DVX; ergo trIVMphVs.

CHRONOLOGY,

TREATS of time, the method of meaſuring its parts, and adapting theſe, when diſtinguiſhed by proper marks and characters, to paſt tranſactions, for the illuſtration of hiſtory. This ſcience therefore conſiſts of two parts. The firſt treats of the proper meaſurement of time, and the adjuſtment of its ſeveral diviſions; the ſecond, of fixing the dates of the various events recorded in hiſtory, and ranging them according to the ſeveral diviſions of time, in the order in which they happened.

1 How divided.

2 Chronology unknown to the ancients.

Chronology, comparatively ſpeaking, is but of modern date. The ancient poets appear to have been entirely unacquainted with it; and Homer, the moſt celebrated of them all, mentions nothing like a formal kalendar in any part of his writings. In the moſt early periods, the only meaſurement of time was by the ſeaſons, the revolutions of the ſun and moon; and many ages muſt have elapſed before the mode of computation by dating events came into general uſe. Several centuries intervened between the era of the Olympic games and the firſt hiſtorians; and ſeveral more between theſe and the firſt authors of chronology. When time firſt began to be reckoned, we find its meaſures very indeterminate. The ſucceſſion of Juno's prieſteſſes at Argos ſerved Hellanicus for the regulation of his narrative; while Ephorus reckoned his matters by generations. Even in the hiſtories of Herodotus and Thucydides, we find no regular dates for the events recorded: nor was there any attempt to eſtabliſh a fixed era, until the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus, who attempted it by comparing and correcting the dates of the Olympiads, the kings of Sparta, and the ſucceſſion of the prieſteſſes of Juno at Argos. Eratoſthenes and Apollodorus digeſted the events recorded by them, according to the ſucceſſion of the Olympiads and of the Spartan kings.

3 Inaccurate methods of computing time at firſt made uſe of.

The uncertainty of the meaſures of time in the moſt early periods renders the hiſtories of thoſe times equally uncertain; and even after the invention of dates and eras, we find the ancient hiſtorians very inattentive to them, and inaccurate in their computations. Frequently their eras and years were reckoned differently without their being ſenſible of it, or at leaſt without giving the reader any information concerning it; a circumſtance which has rendered the fragments of their works now remaining of very little uſe to poſterity. The Chaldean and Egyptian writers are generally acknowledged to be fabulous; and Strabo acquaints us, that Diodorus Siculus, and the other early hiſtorians of Greece, were ill informed and credulous. Hence the diſagreement among the ancient hiſtorians, and the extreme confuſion and contradiction we meet with on comparing their works. Hellanicus and Acuſilaus diſagreed about their genealogies; the latter gejected the traditions of Heſiod. Timæus accuſed Ephorus of falſehood, and the reſt of the world accuſed Timæus. The moſt fabulous legends were impoſed on the world by Herodotus; and even Thucydides and Diodorus, generally accounted able hiſtorians, have been convicted of error. The chronology of the Latins is ſtill more uncertain. The records of the Romans were deſtroyed by the Gauls; and Fabius Pictor, the moſt ancient of their hiſtorians, was obliged to borrow the greateſt part of his information from the Greeks. In other European nations the chronology is ſtill more imperfect and of a later date; and even in modern times, a conſiderable degree of confuſion and inaccuracy has ariſen from want of attention in the hiſtorians to aſcertain the dates and epochs with preciſion.

4 Ancient hiſtorians not to be credited.

From theſe obſervations it is obvious how neceſſary a proper ſyſtem of chronology muſt be for the right underſtanding of hiſtory, and likewiſe how very difficult it muſt be to eſtabliſh ſuch a ſyſtem. In this, however, ſeveral learned men have excelled, particularly Julius Africanus, Euſebius of Cæſarea, George Cyncelle, John of Antioch, Dennis, Petau, Cluviar, Calviſius, Uſher, Simſon, Marſham, Blair, and Playfair. It is founded, 1. On aſtronomical obſervations, particularly of the eclipſes of the ſun and moon, combined with the calculations of the eras and years of different nations. 2. The teſtimonies of credible authors. 3. Thoſe epochs in hiſtory which are ſo well atteſted and determined, that they have never been controverted.

5 Utility of chronology. Liſt of chronologers, &c.

verted. 4. Ancient medals, coins, monuments, and inſcriptions. None of theſe, however, can be ſufficiently intelligible without an explanation of the firſt part, which, we have already obſerved, conſiders the diviſions of time, and of which therefore we ſhall treat in the firſt place.

6 Of the diviſion of time into days.

The moſt obvious diviſion of time is derived from the apparent revolutions of the celeſtial bodies, particularly of the ſun, which by the viciſſitudes of day and night becomes evident to the moſt barbarous and ignorant nations. In ſtrict propriety of ſpeech, the word *day* ſignifies only that portion of time during which the ſun diffuſes light on any part of the earth; but in the moſt comprehenſible ſenſe, it includes the night alſo, and is called by chronologers a *civil* day; by aſtronomers a *natural*, and ſometimes an *artificial* day.

7 Civil, ſolar, &c. days defined.

By a civil day is meant the interval betwixt the ſun's departure from any given point in the heavens and next return to the ſame, with as much more as anſwers to its diurnal motion eaſtward, which is at the rate of 59 minutes and 8 ſeconds of a degree, or 3 minutes and 57 ſeconds of time. It is alſo called a *ſolar* day, and is longer than a *ſidereal* one, inſomuch that, if the former be divided into 24 equal parts or hours, the latter will conſiſt only of 23 hours 56 minutes. The apparent inequality of the ſun's motion, likewiſe, ariſing from the obliquity of the ecliptic, produces another inequality in the length of the days: and hence the difference betwixt real and apparent time, ſo that the apparent motion of the ſun cannot always be a true meaſure of duration. Thoſe inequalities, however, are capable of being reduced to a general ſtandard, which furniſhes an exact meaſure throughout the year; whence ariſes the difference between mean and apparent time, as is explained under the article ASTRONOMY.

8 Different ways of computing the beginning of the day.

There have been very conſiderable differences among nations with regard to the beginning and ending of their days. The beginning of the day was counted from ſunriſe by the Babylonians, Syrians, Perſians, and Indians. The civil day of the Jews was begun from ſunriſe, and their ſacred one from ſunſet; the latter mode of computation being followed by the Athenians, Arabs, ancient Gauls and other European nations. According to ſome, the Egyptians began their day at ſunſet, while others are of opinion that they computed from noon or from ſunriſe; and Pliny informs us that they computed their civil day from one midnight to another. It is probable, however, that they had different modes of computation in different provinces or cities. The Auſonians, the moſt ancient inhabitants of Italy, computed the day from midnight; and the aſtronomers of Cathay and Oighur in the Eaſt Indies reckoned in the ſame manner. This mode of computation was adopted by Hipparchus, Copernicus, and other aſtronomers, and is now in common uſe among ourſelves. The *aſtronomical* day, however, as it is called, on account of its being uſed in aſtronomical calculation, commences at noon, and ends at the ſame time the following day. The Mahometans reckon from one twilight to another. In Italy, the civil day commences at ſome indeterminate point after ſunſet; whence the time of noon varies with the ſeaſon of the year. At the ſummer ſolſtice, the clock ſtrikes 16 at noon, and 19 at the time of the winter ſolſtice. Thus alſo the length of each day differs by ſeveral minutes from that immediately preceding or following it. This variation requires a conſiderable difficulty in adjuſting their time by clocks. It is accompliſhed, however, by a ſudden movement which corrects the difference when it amounts to a quarter of an hour; and this it does ſometimes at the end of eight days, ſometimes at the end of 15, and ſometimes at the end of 40. Information of all this is given by a printed kalendar, which announces, that from the 16th of February, for inſtance to the 24th, it will be noon at a quarter paſt 18; from the 24th of February to the 6th of March, it will be noon at 18 o'clock preciſely; from the firſt of June to the 13th of July, the hour of noon will be at 16 o'clock; on the 13th of July it will be at half an hour after 16; and ſo on throughout the different months of the year. This abſurd method of meaſuring the day continues, notwithſtanding ſeveral attempts to ſuppreſs it, throughout the whole of Italy, a few provinces only excepted.

9 Strange method of computa- Italy.

10 Various ſubdiviſions of the day.

The ſubdiviſions of the day have not been leſs various than the computations of the day itſelf. The moſt obvious diviſion, and which could at no time, nor in no age, be miſtaken, was that of morning and evening. In proceſs of time the two intermediate points of noon and midnight were determined; and this diviſion into quarters was in uſe long before the invention of hours.

From this ſubdiviſion probably aroſe the method uſed by the Jews and Romans of dividing the day and night into four vigils or watches. The firſt began at ſunriſing, or ſix in the morning; the ſecond at nine; the third at twelve; and the fourth at three in the afternoon. In like manner the night was divided into four parts; the firſt beginning at ſix in the evening, the ſecond at nine, the third at twelve, and the fourth at three in the morning. The firſt of theſe diviſions was called by the Jews the *third* hour of the day; the ſecond the *ſixth*; the third the *ninth*; and the fourth the *twelfth*, and ſometimes the *eleventh*. Another diviſion in uſe, not only among the nations above mentioned, but the Greeks alſo, was that which reckoned the firſt quarter from ſunſet to midnight; the ſecond from midnight to ſunriſe; the third, or morning watch, from morning to noon; and the fourth from noon to ſunſet.

11 Invention of hours uncertain.

It is uncertain at what time the more minute ſubdiviſion of the day into hours firſt commenced. It does not appear from the writings of Moſes that he was acquainted with it, as he mentions only the morning, mid-day, evening, and ſunſet. Hence we may conclude, that the Egyptians at that time knew nothing of it, as Moſes was well ſkilled in their learning. According to Herodotus, the Greeks received the knowledge of the twelve hours of the day from the Babylonians. It is probable, however, that the diviſion was actually known and in uſe before the name *hour* was applied to it; as Cenſorinus informs us that the term was not made uſe of in Rome for 300 years after its foundation; nor was it known at the time the twelve tables were conſtructed.

The eaſtern nations divide the day and night in a very ſingular manner; the origin of which is not eaſily diſcovered.

discovered. The Chinese have five watches in the night, which are announced by a certain number of strokes on a bell or drum. They begin by giving one stroke, which is answered by another; and this is repeated at the distance of a minute or two, until the second watch begin, which is announced by two strokes; and so on throughout the rest of the watches. By the ancient Tartars, Indians, and Persians, the day was divided into eight parts, each of which contained seven hours and a half. The Indians on the coast of Malabar divide the day into six parts, called *najika;* each of these six parts is subdivided into 60 others, called *venaigas;* the venaiga into 60 *birpes;* the birpe into 10 *kenikans;* the kenikan into four *mattires*; the mattire into eight *kaunimas* or *caignodes;* which divisions, according to our mode of computation, stand as follow:

12 Method of computation on the coast of Malabar.

Najika,	Venaiga,	Birpe,	Kenikan,	Mattire,	Caignode.
24 min.	24 sec.	4 sec.	$\frac{2}{5}$ sec.	$\frac{1}{10}$ sec.	$\frac{1}{80}$ sec.

The day of the Chinese is begun at midnight, and ends with the midnight following. It is divided into twelve hours, each distinguished by a particular name and figure. They also divide the natural day into 100 parts, and each of these into 100 minutes; so that the whole contains 10,000 minutes. In the northern parts of Europe, where only two seasons are reckoned in the year, the divisions of the day and night are considerably larger than with us. In Iceland the 24 hours are divided into eight parts; the first of which commences at three in the morning; the second at five; the third at half an hour after eight; the fourth at eleven; the fifth at three in the afternoon; the sixth at six in the evening; the seventh at eight, and the last at midnight. In the eastern part of Turkestan, the day is divided into twelve equal parts, each of which is distinguished by the name of some animal. These are subdivided into eight *keh;* so that the whole 24 hours contain 96 *keh.*

13 Divisions of the hour into minutes, &c.

The modern divisions of the hour in use among us are into minutes, seconds, thirds, fourths, &c. each being a sixtieth part of the former subdivision. By the Chaldæans, Jews, and Arabians, the hour is divided into 1080 scruples; so that one hour contains 60 minutes, and one minute, 18 scruples. The ancient Persians and Arabs were likewise acquainted with this division; but the Jews are so fond of it, that they pretend to have received it in a supernatural manner. "Issachar (say they) ascended into heaven, and brought from thence 1080 parts for the benefit of the nation."

14 Methods of announcing the hours.

The division of the day being ascertained, it soon became an object to indicate in a public manner the expiration of any particular hour or division; as without some general knowledge of this kind, it would be in a great measure impossible to carry on business. The methods of announcing this have been likewise very different. Among the Egyptians it was customary for the priests to proclaim the hours like watchmen among us. The same method was followed at Rome; nor was there any other method of knowing the hours until the year 293 B. C. when Papirius Cursor first set up a sun-dial in the Capitol. A similar method is practised among the Turks, whose priests proclaim from the top of their mosques, the cock-crowing, day-break, mid-day, three o'clock in the afternoon, and twilight, being their appointed times of worship.

15 Invention of instruments for this purpose.

As this mode of proclaiming the hour could not but be very inconvenient, as well as imperfect, the introduction of an instrument which every one could have in his possession, and which might answer the same purpose, must have been considered as a valuable acquisition. One of the first of these was the clepsydra or water-clock *. Various kinds of these were in use among the Egyptians at a very early period. The invention of the instrument is attributed to Thoth or Mercury, and it was afterwards improved by Ctesibius of Alexandria. It was a common measure of time among the Greeks, Indians, and Chaldæans, as well as the Egyptians, but was not introduced into Rome till the time of Scipio Nasica. The Chinese astronomers have long made use of it; and by its means divided the zodiac into twelve parts; but it is a very inaccurate measure of time, varying, not only according to the quantity of water in the vessel, but according to the state of the atmosphere.

* See *Clepsydra.*

The clepsydra was succeeded by the gnomon or sun-dial.—This at first was no more than a stile erected perpendicularly to the horizon; and it was a long time before the principles of it came to be thoroughly understood. The invention is with great probability attributed to the Babylonians, from whom the Jews received it before the time of Ahaz, when we know that a sun-dial was already erected at Jerusalem. The Chinese and Egyptians also were acquainted with the use of the dial at a very early period, and it was considerably improved by Anaximander or Anaximenes; one of whom is for that reason looked upon to be the inventor. Various kinds of dials, however, were invented and made use of in different nations long before their introduction at Rome. The first erected in that city, as has been already mentioned, was that by Papirius Cursor; and 30 years after, Valerius Messala brought one from Sicily, which was used in Rome for no less than 99 years, though constructed for a Sicilian latitude, and consequently incapable of showing the hours exactly in any other place; but at last another was constructed by L. Philippus, capable of measuring time with greater accuracy.

It was long after the invention of dials before mankind began to form any idea of clocks; nor is it well known at what period they were first invented. A clock was sent by Pope Paul I. to Pepin king of France, which at that time was supposed to be the only one in the world. A very curious one was also sent to Charles the Great from the caliph Haroun Alraschid, which the historians of the time speak of with surprise and admiration: but the greatest improvement was that of Mr Huygens, who added the pendulum to it. Still, however, the instruments for dividing time were found to be inaccurate for nice purposes. The expansion of the materials by heat, and their contraction by cold, would cause a very perceptible alteration in the going of an instrument in the same place at different times of the year, and much more if carried from one climate to another. Various methods have been contrived to correct this; which indeed can be done very effectually at land by a certain construction of

of the pendulum; but at ſea, where a pendulum cannot be uſed, the inaccuracy is of conſequence much greater; nor was it thought poſſible to correct the errors ariſing from theſe cauſes in any tolerable degree, until the late invention of Mr Harriſon's time-piece, which may be conſidered as making perhaps as near an approach to perfection as poſſible.

Having thus given an account of the more minute diviſions of time, with the methods of meaſuring them, we muſt now proceed to the larger; which more properly belong to chronology, and which muſt be kept on record, as no inſtrument can be made to point them out. Of theſe the diviſion into weeks of ſeven days is one of the moſt ancient, and probably took place from the creation of the world. Some, indeed, are of opinion, that the week was invented ſome time after for the more convenient notation of time; but whatever may be in this, we are certain that it is of the higheſt antiquity, and even the moſt rude and barbarous nations have made uſe of it. It is ſingular indeed that the Greeks, notwithſtanding their learning, ſhould have been ignorant of this diviſion; and M. Goguet informs us, that they were almoſt the only nation who were ſo. By them the month of 30 days was divided into three times 10, and the days of it named accordingly. Thus the 15th day of the month was called the *ſecond fifth*, or fifth of the ſecond tenth; the 24th was called the *third fourth*, or the fourth day of the third tenth. This method was in uſe in the days of Heſiod, and it was not until ſeveral ages had elapſed, that the uſe of weeks was received into Greece from the Egyptians. The inhabitants of Cathay, in the northern part of China, were likewiſe unacquainted with the week of ſeven days, but divided the year into ſix parts of 60 days each. They had alſo a cycle of 15 days, which they uſed as a week. The week was likewiſe unknown to the ancient Perſians and to the Mexicans; the former having a different name for every day of the month, and the latter making uſe of a cycle of 13 days. By almoſt all other nations the week of ſeven days was adopted.

16 Of weeks.

17 Of holidays.

It is remarkable, that one day in the week has always been accounted as ſacred by every nation. Thus Saturday was conſecrated to pious purpoſes among the Jews, Friday by the Turks, Tueſday by the Africans of Guinea, and Sunday by the Chriſtians. Hence alſo the origin of *Feriæ* or holidays frequently made uſe of in Syſtems of Chronology; and which aroſe from the following circumſtance. In the church of Rome the old eccleſiaſtical year began with Eaſter week; all the days of which were called *Feriæ* or *Feriati*, that is, holy or ſacred days; and in proceſs of time the days of other weeks came to be diſtinguiſhed by the ſame appellation, for the two following reaſons, 1. Becauſe every day ought to be holy in the eſtimation of a Chriſtian. 2. Becauſe all days are holy to eccleſiaſtics, whoſe time ought to be entirely devoted to religious worſhip.—The term *week* is ſometimes uſed to ſignify ſeven years, not only in the prophetical writings, but likewiſe by profane authors: thus Varro, in his book inſcribed *Hebdomades*, informs us, that he had then entered the 12th week of his years.

18 Of months.

The next diviſion of time ſuperior to weeks, is that of *months*. This appears to have been, if not coeval with the creation, at leaſt in uſe before the flood. As this diviſion is naturally pointed out by the revolution of the moon, the months of all nations were originally lunar; until after ſome conſiderable advances had been made in ſcience, the revolutions of that luminary were compared with the ſun, and thus the limits of the month fixed with greater accuracy. The diviſion of the year into 12 months, as being founded on the number of full revolutions of the moon in that time, has alſo been very general; though Sir John Chardin informs us, that the Perſians divided the year into 24 months; and the Mexicans into 18 months of 20 days each. The months generally contained 30 days, or 29 and 30 days alternately; though this rule was far from being without exception. The months of the Latins conſiſted of 16, 18, 22, or 36 days; and Romulus gave his people a year of 10 months and 304 days. The Kamtſchatkadales divide the year into 10 months; reckoning the time proper for labour to be nine months, and the winter ſeaſon, when they are obliged to remain inactive, only as one month.

It has been a very ancient cuſtom to give names to the different months of the year, though this appears to have been more modern than the departure of the Iſraelites out of Egypt, as they would otherwiſe undoubtedly have carried it with them; but for a conſiderable time after their ſettlement in Canaan, they diſtinguiſhed the months only by the names of firſt, ſecond, &c. After their return from the Babyloniſh captivity, they adopted the names given to the months by the Chaldæans. Other nations adopted various names, and arranged the months themſelves according to their fancy. From this laſt circumſtance ariſes the variety in the dates of the months; for as the year has been reckoned from different ſigns in the ecliptic, neither the number nor the quantity of months have been the ſame, and their ſituation has likewiſe been altered by the intercalations neceſſary to be made.

Theſe intercalations became neceſſary on account of the exceſs of the ſolar above the lunar year; and the months compoſed of intercalary days are likewiſe called *emboliſmal*. Theſe emboliſmal months are either *natural* or *civil*. By the former the ſolar and lunar years are adjuſted to one another; and the latter ariſes from the defect of the civil year itſelf. The *adar* of the Jews, which always conſiſts of 30 days, is an example of the natural emboliſmal month.

The Romans had a method of dividing their months into kalends, nones, and ides. The firſt was derived from an old word *calo*, "to call;" becauſe, at every new moon, one of the lower claſs of prieſts aſſembled the people, and called over, or announced, as many days as intervened betwixt that and the nones, in order to notify the difference of time and the return of feſtivals. The 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th of March, May, July, and October, were the nones of theſe months; but in the other months were the 2d. 3d, 4th, and 5th days only. Thus the 5th of January was its nones; the 4th was *pridie nonarum*; the 3d, *tertio nonarum*, &c. The ides contained eight days in every month, and were nine days diſtant from the nones. Thus the 15th day of the four months already mentioned was the

the ides of them; but in the others the 13th was accounted as ſuch; the 12th was *pridie iduum*, and the 11th *tertio iduum*. The ides were ſucceeded by the kalends; the 14th of January, for inſtance, being the 19th kalend of February; the 15th was the 18th kalend; and ſo on till the 31ſt of January, which was *pridie kalendarum;* and February 1ſt was the kalends.

19 Aſtronomical and civil months.

Among the European nations the month is either aſtronomical or civil. The former is meaſured by the motion of the heavenly bodies; the civil conſiſts of a certain number of days ſpecified by the laws, or by the civil inſtitutions of any nation or ſociety. The aſtronomical months, being for the moſt part regulated by the motions of the ſun and moon, are thus divided into ſolar and lunar, of which the former is ſometimes alſo called *civil*. The aſtronomical ſolar month is the time which the ſun takes up in paſſing through a ſign of the ecliptic. The lunar month is periodical, ſynodical, ſidereal, and civil. The ſynodical lunar month is the time that paſſes between any conjunction of the moon with the ſun and the conjunction following. It includes the motion of the ſun eaſtward during that time; ſo that a mean lunation conſiſts of 29d. 12h. 44′ 2″ 8921. The ſidereal lunar month is the time of the mean revolution of the moon with regard to the fixed ſtars. As the equinoctial points go backwards about 4′ in the ſpace of a lunar month, the moon muſt, in conſequence of this retroceſſion, arrive at the equinox ſooner than at any fixed ſtar, and conſequently the mean ſidereal revolution muſt be longer than the mean periodical one. The latter conſiſts of 27d. 7h. 43′ 4″ 6840. The civil lunar month is computed from the moon, to anſwer the ordinary purpoſes of life; and as it would have been inconvenient, in the computation of lunar months, to have reckoned odd parts of days, they have been compoſed of 30 days, or of 29 and 30 alternately, as the neareſt round numbers. When the month is reckoned from the firſt appearance of the moon after her conjunction, it is called the *month of illumination*. The Arabs, Turks, and other nations, who uſe the era of the Hegira, follow this method of computation. As twelve lunar months, however, are 11 days leſs than a ſolar year, Julius Cæſar ordained that the month ſhould be reckoned from the courſe of the ſun and not of the moon; and that they ſhould conſiſt of 30 and 31 days alternately, February only excepted, which was to conſiſt of 28 commonly, and of 29 in leap years.

20 Of years.

The higheſt natural diviſion of time is into years. At firſt, however, it is probable that the courſe of the ſun through the ecliptic would not be obſerved, but that all nations would meaſure their time by the revolutions of the moon. We are certain, at leaſt, that the Egyptian year conſiſted originally of a ſingle lunation; though at length it included two or three months, and was determined by the ſtated returns of the ſeaſons. As the eaſtern nations, however, particularly the Egyptians, Chaldeans, and Indians, applied themſelves in very early periods to aſtronomy, they found, by comparing the motions of the ſun and moon together, that one revolution of the former included nearly 12 of the latter. Hence a year of 12 lunations was formed, in every one of which were reckoned 30 days; and hence alſo the diviſion of the ecliptic into 360 degrees. The luniſolar year, conſiſting of 360 days, was in uſe long before any regular intercalations were made; and hiſtorians inform us, that the year of all ancient nations was luniſolar. Herodotus relates, that the Egyptians firſt divided the year into 12 parts by the aſſiſtance of the ſtars, and that every part conſiſted of 30 days. The Thebans corrected this year by adding five intercalary days to it. The old Chaldean year was alſo reformed by the Medes and Perſians: and ſome of the Chineſe miſſionaries have informed us, that the luniſolar year was alſo corrected in China; and that the ſolar year was aſcertained in that country to very conſiderable exactneſs. The Latin year, before Numa's correction of it, conſiſted of 360 days, of which 304 were divided into ten months; to which were added two private months not mentioned in the kalendar.

21 Explanation of a paſſage in Herodotus.

The imperfection of this method of comparing time is now very evident. The luniſolar year was about $5\frac{1}{4}$ days ſhorter than the true ſolar year, and as much longer than the lunar. Hence the months could not long correſpond with the ſeaſons; and even in ſo ſhort a time as 34 years, the winter months would have changed places with thoſe of ſummer. From this rapid variation, Mr Playfair takes notice, that a paſſage in Herodotus, by which the learned have been exceedingly puzzled, may receive a ſatisfactory ſolution, viz. that "in the time of the ancient Egyptian kings, the ſun had twice ariſen in the place where it had formerly ſet, and twice ſet where it had ariſen." By this he ſuppoſes it is meant, "that the beginning of the year had twice gone through all the ſigns of the ecliptic; and that the ſun had riſen and ſet twice in every day and month in the year." This, which ſome have taken for a proof of moſt extravagant antiquity, he further obſerves, might have happened in 138 years only; as in that period there would be a difference of nearly two years between the ſolar and lunar year. Such evident imperfections could not but produce a reformation everywhere; and accordingly we find that there was no nation which did not adopt the method of adding a few intercalary days at certain intervals. We are ignorant, however, of the perſon who was the firſt inventor of this method. The Theban prieſts attributed the invention to Mercury or Thoth; and it is certain that they were acquainted with the year of 365 days at a very early period. The length of the ſolar year was repreſented by the celebrated golden circle of Oſymandyas of 365 cubits circumference; and on every cubit of which was inſcribed a day of the year, together with the heliacal riſings and ſettings of the ſtars. That monarch is ſuppoſed to have reigned in the 11th or 12th century before the Chriſtian era.

22 Great Egyptian year, or anicular cycle.

The Egyptian ſolar year being almoſt ſix hours ſhorter than the true one, this inaccuracy, in proceſs of time, produced another revolution; ſome circumſtances attending which ſerve to fix the date of the diſcovery of the length of the year, and which, from the above deſcription of the golden circle, we may ſuppoſe to have been made during the reign of Oſymandyas. The inundation of the Nile was annually announced by the heliacal riſing of Sirius, to which the reformers of the kalendar adjuſted the beginning of the year, ſuppoſing that it would remain immoveable. In a number of years, however, it appeared that their ſuppoſi-

tions

tions of this were ill founded. By reason of the inequality above mentioned, the heliacal rising of Sirius gradually advanced nearly at the rate of one day in four years; so that in 1461 years it completed a revolution, by arising on every succeeding day of the year, and returning to the point originally fixed for the beginning of the year. This period, equal to 1460 Julian years, was termed the *great Egyptian year*, or *canicular cycle*. From the accounts we have of the time that the canicular cycle was renewed, the time of its original commencement may be gathered with tolerable certainty. This happened, according to Censorinus, in the 138th year of the Christian era. Reckoning backward therefore from this time for 1460 years, we come to the year B. C. 1322, when the sun was in Cancer, about 14 or 15 days after the summer solstice, which happened on July 5th. The Egyptians used no intercalation till the time of Augustus, when the corrected Julian year was received at Alexandria by his order; but even this order was obeyed only by the Greeks and Romans who resided in that city; the superstitious natives refusing to make any addition to the length of a year which had been so long established among them.

23 Of the time when it commenced.

24 Uncertainty of the time when the true solar year was discovered.

We are not informed at what precise period the true year was observed to consist of nearly six hours more than the 365 days. Though the priests of Thebes claim the merit of the discovery, Herodotus makes no mention of it; neither did Thales, who introduced the year of 365 days into Greece, ever use any intercalation. Plato and Eudoxus are said to have obtained it as a secret from the Egyptians about 80 years after Herodotus, and to have carried it into Greece; which showed, that the knowledge of this form of the year was at that time recent, and only known to a few learned men.

25 Years of the Jews, &c.

The year of the ancient Jews was lunisolar; and we are informed by tradition, that Abraham preserved in his family, and transmitted to posterity, the Chaldean form of the year, consisting of 360 days; which remained the same without any correction until the date of the Era of Nabonassar. The solar year was adopted among them after their return from the Babylonish captivity; but when subjected to the successors of Alexander in Syria, they were obliged to admit the lunar year into their kalendar. In order to adjust this year to the course of the sun, they added at certain periods a month to Adar, formerly mentioned, and called it *Ve Adar*. They composed also a cycle of 19 years, in seven of which they inserted the intercalary month. This correction was intended to regulate the months in such a manner, as to bring the 15th of Nisan to the equinoctial point; and likewise the courses of the seasons and feasts in such a manner, that the corn might be ripe at the passover as the law required.

26 Reformation of the kalendar by Julius Cæsar and Pope Gregor.

We shall not take up the reader's time with any further account of the years made use of by different nations, all of which are resolved at last into the lunisolar; it will be sufficient to mention the improvements in the kalendar made by the two great reformers of it, Julius Cæsar, and Pope Gregory XIII. The institution of the Roman year by Romulus has been already taken notice of; but as this was evidently very imperfect, Numa, on his advancement to the throne, undertook to reform it. With a design to make a complete lunar year of it, he added 50 days to the 304 of Romulus; and from every one of his months, which consisted of 31 and 30 days, he borrowed one day. Of these additional days he composed two months; calling the one January, and the other February. Various other corrections and adjustments were made; but when Julius Cæsar obtained the sovereignty of Rome, he found that the months had considerably receded from the seasons to which Numa had adjusted them. To bring them forward to their places, he formed a year of 15 months, or 445 days; which, on account of its length, and the design with which it was formed, has been called the *year of confusion*. It terminated on the first of January 45 B. C. and from this period the civil year and months were regulated by the course of the sun. The year of Numa being ten days shorter than the solar year, two days were added by Julius to every one of the months of January, August, and December; and one to April, June, September, and November. He ordained likewise, that an intercalary day should be added every fourth year to the month of February, by reckoning the 24th day, or sixth of the kalends of March, twice over. Hence this year was styled *bissextile*, and also *leap year*, from its leaping a day more than a common year.

The Julian year has been used by modern chronologers, as being a measure of time extremely simple and sufficiently accurate. It is still, however, somewhat imperfect, for as the true solar year consists of 365d. 5h. 48′ 45$\frac{1}{2}$″, it appears that in 131 years after the Julian correction, the sun must have arrived one day too soon at the equinoctial point. During Cæsar's reign the vernal equinox had been observed by Sosigenes on the 25th of March; but by the time of the Nicene council it had gone backward to the 21st. The cause of the error was not then known; but in 1582, when the equinox happened on the 11th of March, it was thought proper to give the kalendar its last correction. Pope Gregory XIII. having invited to Rome a considerable number of mathematicians and astronomers, employed ten years in the examination of their several formulæ, and at last gave the preference to that of Alosia and Antoninus Lelius, who were brothers. Ten days were now cut off in the month of October, and the 4th of that month was reckoned the 15th. To prevent the seasons from receding in time to come, he ordained that one day should be added every fourth or bissextile year as before; and that the 1600th year of the Christian era, and every fourth century thereafter, should be a bissextile or leap year. One day therefore is to be intercalated in the years 2000, 2300, 2800, &c. but in the other centuries, as 1700, 1800, 1900, 2100, &c. it is to be suppressed, and these are to be reckoned as common years. Even this correction, however, is not absolutely exact; but the error must be very inconsiderable, and scarce amounting to a day and a half in 5000 years.

27 Commencement of the year.

The commencement of the year has been determined by the date of some memorable event or occurrence, such as the creation of the world, the universal deluge, a conjunction of planets, the incarnation of our Saviour, &c. and of course has been referred to different points in the ecliptic. The Chaldean and the

the Egyptian years were dated from the autumnal equinox. The ecclesiastical year of the Jews began in the spring; but, in civil affairs, they retained the epoch of the Egyptian year. The ancient Chinese reckoned from the new moon nearest the middle of Aquarius; but according to some recent accounts, the beginning of their year was transferred (B. C. 1740) to the new moon nearest to the winter solstice. This likewise is the date of the Japanese year. Diemschid, or Gemschid, king of Persia, observed, on the day of his public entry into Persepolis, that the sun entered into Aries. In commemoration of this fortunate event and coincidence, he ordained the beginning of the year to be removed from the autumnal to the vernal equinox. This epoch was denominated *Neuruz*, viz. new-day; and is still celebrated with great pomp and festivity. (See EPOCHS.) The ancient Swedish year commenced at the winter solstice, or rather at the time of the sun's appearance in the horizon, after an absence of about 40 days. The feast of this epoch was solemnized on the 20th day after the solstice. Some of the Grecian states computed from the vernal, some from the autumnal equinox, and others from the summer tropic. The year of Romulus commenced in March, and that of Numa in January. The Turks and Arabs date the year from the 16th of July: and the American Indians reckon from the first appearance of the new moon of the vernal equinox. The church of Rome has fixed new year's day on the Sunday that corresponds with the full moon of the same season. The Venetians, Florentines, and Pisans in Italy, and the inhabitants of Treves in Germany, begin the year at the vernal equinox. The ancient clergy reckoned from the 25th of March; and this method was observed in Britain, until the introduction of the new style (A. D. 1752); after which our year commenced on the 1st day of January.

28 Of cycles. Besides these natural divisions of time arising immediately from the revolutions of the heavenly bodies, there are others formed from some of the less obvious consequences of these revolutions, which are called *cycles*, from the Greek κυκλος, *a circle*. The most remarkable of these are the following.

1. The *cycle of the sun* is a revolution of 28 years, in which time the days of the months return again to the same days of the week; the sun's place to the same signs and degrees of the ecliptic on the same months and days, so as not to differ one degree in 100 years; and the leap years begin the same course over again with respect to the days of the week on which the days of the month fell. The *cycle of the moon*, commonly called the *golden number*, is a revolution of 19 years; in which time, the conjunctions, oppositions, and other aspects of the moon, are within an hour and a half of being the same as they were on the same days of the months 19 years before. The *indiction* is a revolution of 15 years, used only by the Romans for indicating the times of certain payments made by the subjects to the republic: It was established by Constantine, A. D. 312.

29 Golden number.

30 To find the year of any cycle. The year of our Saviour's birth, according to the vulgar era, was the 9th year of the solar cycle, the first year of the lunar cycle; and the 312th year after his birth was the first year of the Roman indiction. Therefore, to find the year of the solar cycle, add 9 to any given year of Christ, and divide the sum by 28, the quotient is the number of cycles elapsed since his birth, and the remainder is the cycle for the given year: If nothing remains, the cycle is 28. To find the lunar cycle, add one to the given year of Christ, and divide the sum by 19; the quotient is the number of cycles elapsed in the interval, and the remainder is the cycle for the given year: If nothing remains, the cycle is 19. Lastly, subtract 312 from the given year of Christ, and divide the remainder by 15; and what remains after this division is the indiction for the given year: If nothing remains, the indiction is 15.

31 Variation of the golden numbers. Although the above deficiency in the lunar cycle of an hour and a half every 19 years be but small, yet in time it becomes so sensible as to make a whole natural day in 310 years. So that, although the cycle be of use, when the golden numbers are rightly placed against the days of the month in the kalendar, as in the Common Prayer Books, for finding the days of the mean conjunctions or oppositions of the sun and moon, and consequently the time of Easter; it will only serve for 310 years, old style. For as the new and full moons anticipate a day in that time, the golden numbers ought to be placed one day earlier in the kalendar for the next 310 years to come. These numbers were rightly placed against the days of new moon in the kalendar by the council of Nice, A. D. 325: but the anticipation, which has been neglected ever since, is now grown almost into five days: And therefore all the golden numbers ought now to be placed five days higher in the kalendar for the old style, than they were at the time of the said council; or six days lower for the new style, because at present it differs 11 days from the old.

32 To find the golden number. In the first of the following tables, the golden numbers under the months stand against the days of new moon in the left hand column, for the new style; adapted chiefly to the second year after leap-year, as being the nearest mean for all the four; and will serve till the year 1900. Therefore, to find the day of new moon in any month of a given year till that time, look for the golden number of that year under the desired month, and against it you have the day of new moon in the left hand column. Thus, suppose it were required to find the day of new moon in September 1789; the golden number for that year is 4 which I look for under September, and right against it, in the left-hand column, you will find 19, which is the day of new moon in that month. *N. B.* If all the golden numbers, except 17 and 6, were set one day lower in the table, it would serve from the beginning of the year 1900 till the end of the year 2199. The table at the end of this section shows the golden number for 4000 years after the birth of Christ, by looking for the even hundreds of any given year at the left-hand, and for the rest to make up that year at the head of the table; and where the columns meet, you have the golden number (which is the same both in old and new style) for the given year. Thus, suppose the golden number was wanted for the year 1789, look for 1700 at the left hand of the table, and for 89 at the top of it: then guiding your eye downward from 89 to overagainst 1700, you will find 4, which is the golden number for that year.

But because the lunar cycle of 19 years sometimes includes five leap years, and at other times only four, this

this table will ſometimes vary a day from the truth in leap-years after February. And it is impoſſible to have one more correct, unleſs we extend it to four times 19 or 76 years; in which there are 19 leap-years without a remainder. But even then to have it of perpetual uſe, it muſt be adapted to the old ſtyle; becauſe, in every centennial year not diviſible by 4, the regular courſe of leap-years is interrupted in the new; as was the caſe in the year 1800.

33 Dionyſian period, or cycle of Eaſter.

2. The *cycle of Eaſter*, alſo called the *Dionyſian period*, is a revolution of 532 years, found by multiplying the ſolar cycle 28 by the lunar cycle 19. If the new moons did not anticipate upon this cycle, Eaſter-day would always be the Sunday next after the firſt full moon which follows the 21ſt of March. But, on account of the above anticipation, to which no proper regard was had before the late alteration of the ſtyle, the eccleſiaſtic Eaſter has ſeveral times been a week different from the true Eaſter within this laſt century; which inconvenience is now remedied by making the table, which uſed to find Eaſter for ever, in the Common Prayer Book, of no longer uſe than the lunar difference from the new ſtyle will admit of.

The earlieſt Eaſter poſſible is the 22d of March, the lateſt the 25th of April. Within theſe limits are 35 days, and the number belonging to each of them is called the *number of direction*; becauſe thereby the time of Eaſter is found for any given year.

34 Dominical letter.

The firſt ſeven letters of the alphabet are commonly placed in the annual almanacks, to ſhow on what days of the week the days of the months fall throughout the year. And becauſe one of theſe ſeven letters muſt neceſſarily ſtand againſt Sunday, it is printed in a capital form, and called the *dominical letter*; the other ſix being inſerted in ſmall characters, to denote the other ſix days of the week. Now, ſince a common Julian year contains 365 days, if this number be divided by 7 (the number of days in a week) there will remain one day. If there had been no remainder, it is plain the year would conſtantly begin on the ſame day of the week; but ſince one remains, it is plain that the year muſt begin and end on the ſame day of the week; and therefore the next year will begin on the day following. Hence, when January begins on Sunday, A is the dominical or Sunday letter for that year: Then, becauſe the next year begins on Monday, the Sunday will fall on the ſeventh day, to which is annexed the ſeventh letter G, which therefore will be the dominical letter for all that year: and as the third year will begin on Tueſday, the Sunday will fall on the ſixth day; therefore F will be the Sunday letter for that year. Whence it is evident, that the Sunday letters will go annually in a retrograde order thus, G, F, E, D, C, B, A. And, in the courſe of ſeven years, if they were all common ones, the ſame days of the week and dominical letters would return to the ſame days of the months. But becauſe there are 366 days in a leap-year, if this number be divided by 7, there will remain two days over and above the 52 weeks of which the year conſiſts. And therefore, if the leap-year begins on Sunday, it will end on Monday; and the next year will begin on Tueſday, the firſt Sunday whereof muſt fall on the ſixth of January, to which is annexed the letter F, and not G, as in common years. By this means, the leap-year returning every fourth year, the order of the dominical letters is interrupted; and the ſeries cannot return to its firſt ſtate till after four times ſeven, or 28 years; and then the ſame days of the months return in order to the ſame days of the week as before.

TABLE I.

Days.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1	9		9	17	17	6				11		19
2		17			6	14	14	3	11		19	
3	17	6	17	6			3	11		19	8	8
4	6		6	14	14	3			19	8		16
5		14			3	11	11	19	8		16	
6	14	3	14	3			19			16	5	5
7	3		3	11	11	19		8	16			13
8		11			19	8	8	16	5	5	13	
9	11	19	11	19						13		2
10			19	8	8	16	16	5	13		2	10
11	19	8					5	13	2	2	10	
12	8	16	8	16	16	5				10		18
13					5	13	13	2	10		18	7
14	16	5	16	5			2	10	18	18	7	
15	5			13	13	2				7		15
16		13			2	10	10	18	7		15	
17	13	2	13	2			18	7		15	4	4
18	2		2	10	10	18			15			12
19		10			18	7	7	15	4	4	12	
20	10	18	10	18			15			12	1	1
21	18		18	7	7	15		4	12			9
22		7			15	4	4	12	1	1	9	
23	7	15	7	15			12			9	17	17
24			15	4	4	12		1	9			6
25	15	4			12		1	9	17	17	6	
26	4		4	12		1				6		15
27		12		1	1	9	9	17	6		14	
28	12	1	12		9		17	6	14	14	3	3
29	1		1	9		17				3		11
30					17	6	6	14	3		11	
31	9		9				14	3		11		19

TABLE

TABLE II.

TABLE, *showing the Golden Number, (which is the same both in the Old and New Style) from the Christian Era, to A. D.* 400.

Hundreds of Years.			Years less than a hundred.																			
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
			19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
			38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
			57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75
			76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94
			95	96	97	98	99														
0	1900	3800	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
100	2000	3900	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5
200	2100	4000	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
300	2200	&c.	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
400	2300	—	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1
500	2400	—	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6
600	2500	—	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
700	2600	—	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
800	2700	—	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2
900	2800	—	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1000	2900	—	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1100	3000	—	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1200	3100	—	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3
1300	3200	—	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1400	3300	—	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1500	3400	—	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1600	3500	—	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4
1700	3600	—	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1800	3700	—	15	16	17	18	19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

35 Julian period.

From the multiplication of the solar cycle of 28 years into the lunar cycle of 19 years, and the Roman indiction of 15 years, arises the great Julian period, consisting of 7980 years, which had its beginning 764 years before Strauchius's supposed year of the creation (for no later could all the three cycles begin together), and it is not yet completed: And therefore it includes all other cycles, periods, and eras. There is but one year in the whole period that has the same numbers for the three cycles of which it is made up: And therefore, if historians had remarked in their writings the cycles of each year, there had been no dispute about the time of any action recorded by them.

36 To find the year of the Julian period.

The Dionysian or vulgar era of Christ's birth was about the end of the year of the Julian period 4713; and consequently the first year of his age, according to that account, was the 4714th year of the said period. Therefore, if to the current year of Christ we add 4713, the sum will be found to be the Julian period. So the year 1789 will be found to be the 6502d year of that period. Or, to find the year of the Julian period answering to any given year before the first year of Christ, subtract the number of that given year from 4714, and the remainder will be the year of the Julian period. Thus, the year 585 before the first year of Christ (which was the 584th before his birth) was the 4129th year of the said period. Lastly, to find the cycles of the sun, moon, and indiction for any given year of this period, divide the given year by 28, 19, and 15; the three remainders will be the cycles sought, and the quotients the number of cycles run since the beginning of the period. So in the above 4714th year of the Julian period, the cycle of the sun was 10, the cycle of the moon 2, and the cycle of indiction 4; the solar cycle having run through 168 courses, the lunar 248, and the indiction 314.

37 Year of Christ's birth when settled.

The vulgar era of Christ's birth was never settled till the year 527, when Dionysius Exiguus, a Roman abbot, fixed it to the end of the 4713th year of the Julian period, which was four years too late; for our Saviour was born before the death of Herod, who sought to kill him as soon as he heard of his birth. And according to the testimony of Josephus (*B.* xvii. *ch.* 8.), there was an eclipse of the moon in the time of Herod's last illness; which eclipse appears by our astronomical tables to have been in the year of the Julian period 4710, March 13. at three hours past midnight, at Jerusalem. Now, as our Saviour must have been born some months before Herod's death, since in the interval he was carried into Egypt, the latest time in which we can fix the

the true era of his birth is about the end of the 4709th year of the Julian period.

38 Eras or Epochs.

As there are certain fixed points in the heavens from which aſtronomers begin their computations, ſo there are certain points of time from which hiſtorians begin to reckon; and theſe points or roots of time are called *eras* or *epochs*. The moſt remarkable eras are, thoſe of the Creation, the Greek Olympiads, the building of Rome, the era of Nabonaſſar, the death of Alexander, the birth of Chriſt, the Arabian Hegira, and the Perſian Jeſdegird: All which, together with ſeveral others of leſs note, have their beginnings fixed by chronologers to the years of the Julian period, to the age of the world at thoſe times, and to the years before and after the year of Chriſt's birth.

39 Hiſtoric chronology.

HAVING thus treated as fully as our limits will admit, of the various diviſions of time, we muſt now conſider the ſecond part of chronology, viz. that which more immediately relates to hiſtory, and which has already been obſerved to have the four following foundations: 1. Aſtronomical obſervations, particularly of eclipſes. 2. The teſtimonies of credible authors. 3. Epochs in hiſtory univerſally allowed to be true. 4. Ancient medals, coins, monuments, and inſcriptions. We ſhall conſider theſe four principal parts in the order they here ſtand.

40 Of eclipſes of the ſun and moon.

I. It is with great reaſon that the eclipſes of the ſun and moon, and the aſpects of the other planets, have been called public and celeſtial characters of the times, as their calculations afford chronologers infallible proofs of the preciſe epochs in which a great number of the moſt ſignal events in hiſtory have occurred. So that in chronological matters we cannot make any great progreſs, if we are ignorant of the uſe of aſtronomic tables, and the calculation of eclipſes. The ancients regarded the latter as prognoſtics of the fall of empires, of the loſs of battles, of the death of monarchs, &c. And it is to this ſuperſtition, to this wretched ignorance, that we happily owe the vaſt labour that hiſtorians have taken to record ſo great a number of them. The moſt able chronologers have collected them with ſtill greater labour. Calviſius, for example, founds his chronology on 144 eclipſes of the ſun, and 127 of the moon, that he ſays he had calculated. The grand conjunction of the two ſuperior planets, Saturn and Jupiter, which, according to Kepler, occurs once in 800 years in the ſame point of the zodiac, and which has happened only eight times ſince the creation (the laſt time in the month of December 1603), may alſo furniſh chronology with inconteſtable proofs. The ſame may be ſaid of the tranſit of Venus over the ſun, which has been obſerved in our days, and all the other uncommon poſitions of the planets. But among theſe celeſtial and natural characters of times, there are alſo ſome that are named *civil* or *artificial*, and which, nevertheleſs, depend on aſtronomic calculation.

Such are the ſolar and lunar cycles; the Roman indiction; the feaſt of Eaſter; the biſſextile year; the jubilees; the ſabbatic years; the combats and Olympic games of the Greeks, and Hegira of the Mahometans, &c. And to theſe may be added the periods, eras, epochs, and years of different nations, ancient and modern. We ſhall only remark on this occaſion, that the period or era of the Jews commences with the creation of the world; that of the ancient Romans with the foundation of the city of Rome; that of the Greeks at the eſtabliſhment of the Olympic games; that of Nabonaſſar, with the advancement of the firſt king of Babylon to the throne; the Yezdegerdic years, with the laſt king of the Perſians of that name; the Hegira of the Turks, with the flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, &c. The year of the birth of Chriſt was the 4713th year of the Julian period, according to the common method of reckoning. Aſtronomical chronology teaches us to calculate the preciſe year of the Julian period in which each of theſe epochs happened.

41 Of the teſtimony of authors.

II. The teſtimony of authors is the ſecond principal part of hiſtoric chronology. Though no man whatever has a right to pretend to infallibility, or to be regarded as a ſacred oracle, it would, however, be making a very unjuſt judgment of mankind, to treat them all as dupes or impoſtors; and it would be an injury offered to public integrity, were we to doubt the veracity of authors univerſally eſteemed, and of facts that are in themſelves highly worthy of belief. It would be even a kind of infatuation to doubt that there have been ſuch cities as Athens, Sparta, Rome, Carthage, &c. or that Xerxes reigned in Perſia, and Auguſtus in Rome: whether Hannibal ever was in Italy; or that the emperor Conſtantine built Conſtantinople, &c. The unanimous teſtimony of the moſt reſpectable hiſtorians will not admit any doubt of theſe matters. When an hiſtorian is allowed to be completely able to judge of an event, and to have no intent of deceiving by his relation, his teſtimony is unexceptionable. But to avoid the danger of adopting error for truth, and to be ſatisfied of a fact that appears doubtful in hiſtory, we may make uſe of the four following rules, as they are founded in reaſon.

1. We ought to pay a particular regard to the teſtimonies of thoſe who wrote at the ſame time the events happened, and who have not been contradicted by any cotemporary author of known authority. Who can doubt, for example, of the truth of the facts related by Admiral Anſon, in the hiſtory of his voyage round the world? The admiral ſaw all the facts there mentioned with his own eyes, and publiſhed his book when two hundred companions of his voyage were ſtill living in London, and could have contradicted him immediately, if he had given any falſe or exaggerated relations.

2. After the cotemporary authors, we ſhould give more credit to thoſe who lived near the time the events happened than thoſe who lived at a diſtance.

3. Thoſe doubtful hiſtories, which are related by authors that are but little known, can have no weight, if they are at variance with reaſon, or eſtabliſhed tradition.

4. We muſt diſtruſt the truth of a hiſtory that is related by modern authors, when they do not agree among themſelves in ſeveral circumſtances, nor with ancient hiſtorians, who are to be regarded as original ſources. We ſhould eſpecially doubt the truth of thoſe brilliant portraits, that are drawn at pleaſure by ſuch as never knew the perſons they are intended for, and even made ſeveral centuries after their deceaſe.

The

The moſt pure and moſt fruitful ſource of ancient hiſtory is doubtleſs to be found in the Holy Bible. Let us here for a moment ceaſe to regard it as divine, and let us preſume to conſider it as a common hiſtory. Now, when we regard the writers of the books of the Old Teſtament, and conſider them ſometimes as authors, ſometimes as ocular witneſſes, and ſometimes as reſpectable hiſtorians; whether we reflect on the ſimplicity of the narration, and the air of truth that is there conſtantly viſible; or, when we conſider the care that the people, the governments, and the learned men of all ages, have taken to preſerve the true text of the Bible; or that we have regard to the happy conformity of the chronology of the holy ſcriptures with that of profane hiſtory; or, if we obſerve the admirable harmony that is between theſe books and the moſt reſpectable hiſtorians, as Joſephus and others: and laſtly, when we conſider that the books of the holy ſcripture furniſh us alone with an accurate hiſtory of the world from the creation, through the line of patriarchs, judges, kings, and princes of the Hebrews; and that we may, by its aid, form an almoſt entire ſeries of events down to the birth of Chriſt, or the time of Auguſtus, which comprehends a ſpace of about 4000 years, ſome ſmall interruptions excepted, and which are eaſily ſupplied by profane hiſtory; when all theſe reflections are juſtly made, we muſt conſtantly allow that the ſcriptures form a book which merits the firſt rank among all the ſources of ancient hiſtory. It has been objected, that this book contains contradictions; but the moſt able interpreters have reconciled theſe ſeeming contradictions. It has been ſaid, that the chronology of the Hebrew text and the Vulgate do not agree with the chronology of the verſion of the Septuagint; but the ſoundeſt critics have ſhown that they may be made to agree. It has been obſerved, moreover, that the Scriptures abound with miracles and prodigies; but they are miracles that have really happened: and what ancient hiſtory is there that is not filled with miracles and other marvellous events? And do we for that reject their authority? Cannot the true God be ſuppoſed to have performed thoſe miracles which Pagan hiſtorians have attributed to their falſe divinities? Muſt we pay no regard to the writings of Livy, becauſe his hiſtory contains many fabulous relations?

42 Epochs. III. The *epochs* form the third principal part of chronology. Theſe are thoſe fixed points in hiſtory that have never been conteſted, and of which there can, in fact, be no doubt. Chronologers fix on the events that are to ſerve as epochs, in a manner quite arbitrary; but this is of little conſequence, provided the dates of theſe epochs agree, and that there is no contradiction in the facts themſelves. When we come to treat expreſsly on hiſtory, we ſhall mention, in our progreſs, all the principal epochs.

43 Medals, &c. IV. Medals, monuments, and inſcriptions, form the fourth and laſt principal part of chronology. It is ſcarce more than 150 years ſince cloſe application has been made to the ſtudy of theſe; and we owe to the celebrated Spanheim the greateſt obligations, for the progreſs that is made in this method: his excellent work, *De præſtantia et uſu numiſmatum antiquorum*, has ſhown the great advantages of it; and it is evident that theſe monuments are the moſt authentic witneſſes that can be produced. It is by the aid of medals that M. Vaillant has compoſed his judicious hiſtory of the kings of Syria, from the time of Alexander the Great to that of Pompey: they have been, moreover, of the greateſt ſervice in elucidating all ancient hiſtory, eſpecially that of the Romans; and even ſometimes that of the middle age. Their uſe is more fully ſpoken of in the article MEDALS. What we here ſay of medals, is to be underſtood equally, in its full force, of ancient inſcriptions, and of all other authentic documents that have come down to us.

Every reader, endowed with a juſt diſcernment, will readily allow that theſe four parts of chronology afford clear lights, and are excellent guides to conduct us through the thick darkneſs of antiquity. That impartiality, however, which directs us to give a faithful relation of that which is true and falſe, of the certainty and uncertainty of all the ſciences, obliges us here freely to confeſs, that theſe guides are not infallible, nor the proofs that they afford mathematical demonſtrations. In fact, with regard to hiſtory in general, and ancient hiſtory in particular, ſomething muſt be always left to conjecture and hiſtoric faith. It would be an offence againſt common probity were we to ſuffer ourſelves to paſs over in ſilence thoſe objections which authors of the greateſt reputation have made againſt the certainty of chronology. We ſhall extract them from their own works; and we hope that there is no magiſtrate, theologian, or public profeſſor in Europe, who would be mean enough to accuſe us of a crime, for not unworthily diſguiſing the truth.

1. The prodigious difference there is between the Septuagint Bible and the Vulgate, in point of chronology, occaſions an embarraſſment, which is the more difficult to avoid, as we cannot poſitively ſay on which ſide the error lies. The Greek Bible counts, for example, from the creation of the world to the birth of Abraham, 1500 years more than the Hebrew or Latin Bibles, &c. 2. How difficult is it to aſcertain the years of the Judges of the Jewiſh nation, in the Bible? What darkneſs is ſpread over the ſucceſſion of the kings of Judah and Iſrael? The calculation of time is there ſo inaccurate, that the Scripture never marks if they are current or complete years. For we cannot ſuppoſe that a patriarch, judge, or king, lived exactly 60, 90, 100, or 969 years, without any odd months or days. 3. The different names that the Aſſyrians, Egyptians, Perſians, and Greeks, have given to the ſame prince, have contributed not a little to embarraſs all ancient chronology. Three or four princes have borne the name of Aſſuerus, though they had alſo other names. If we did not know that Nabucodonoſor, Nabucodroſor, and Nabucolaſſar, were the ſame name, or the name of the ſame man, we ſhould ſcarcely believe it. Sargon is Sennacherib; Ozias is Azarias; Sedecias is Mathanias; Joachas is alſo called Sellum; Aſaraddon, which is pronounced indifferently Eſarhaddon and Aſarhaddon, is called Aſenaphar by the Cuthæans; and by an oddity of which we do not know the origin, Sardanapalus is called by the Greeks Tenos Concoleros. 4. There remain to us but few monuments of the firſt monarchs of the

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the world. Numberless books have been lost, and those which have come down to us are mutilated or altered by transcribers. The Greeks began to write very late. Herodotus, their first historian, was of a credulous disposition, and believed all the fables that were related by the Egyptian priests. The Greeks were in general vain, partial, and held no nation in esteem but their own. The Romans were still more infatuated with notions of their own merit and grandeur: their historians were altogether as unjust as was their senate, toward other nations that were frequently far more respectable. 5. The eras, the years, the periods, and epochs, were not the same in each nation; and they, moreover, began at different seasons of the year. All this has thrown so much obscurity over chronology, that it appears to be beyond all human capacity totally to disperse it.

Christianity itself had subsisted near 1200 years, before they knew precisely how many years had passed since the birth of our Saviour. They saw clearly that the vulgar era was defective, but it was a long time before they could comprehend that it required four whole years to make up the true period. Abbé Denis the Little, who in the year 532 was the first among the Christians to form the era of that grand epoch, and to count the years from that time, in order to make their chronology altogether Christian, erred in his calculation, and led all Europe into his error. They count 132 contrary opinions of different authors concerning the year in which the Messiah appeared on the earth. M. Vallemont names 64 of them, and all celebrated writers. Among all these authors, however, there is none that reckon more than 7000, nor less than 3700 years. But even this difference is enormous. The most moderate fix the birth of Christ in the 4000th year of the world. The reasons, however, on which they found their opinion, appear to be sufficiently arbitrary.

Be these matters, however, as they may, the wisdom of Providence has so disposed all things, that there remain sufficient lights to enable us nearly to connect the series of events: for in the first 3000 years of the world, where profane history is defective, we have the chronology of the Bible to direct us; and after that period, where we find more obscurity in the chronology of the Holy Scriptures, we have, on the other hand, greater lights from profane authors. It is at this period that begins the time which Varro calls *historic*; as, since the time of the Olympiads, the truth of such events as have happened shines clear in history. Chronology, therefore, draws its principal lights from history; and, in return, serves it as a guide. Referring the reader, therefore, to the article HISTORY, and the *Chart* thereto annexed, we shall conclude the present article with

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE *of Remarkable Events, Discoveries, and Inventions, from the Creation to the year* 1804.

Bef. Christ.

4008 The Creation of the world and Adam and Eve.

4007 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.

3017 Enoch, for his piety, is translated to heaven.

2352 The old world is destroyed by a deluge which continued 377 days.

2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.

2237 About this time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the more tractable into the east, and there either he or one of his successors to have founded the Chinese monarchy.

2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.

2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, down to the conquest of Cambyses, in 525 before Christ.

2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.

1985 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran, to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.

1961 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness by fire from heaven.

1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.

1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.

1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.

1635 Joseph dies in Egypt.

1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high priest of the Israelites.

1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.

1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens in Greece.

1555 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children, which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and sets up the Tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.

1515 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences.

1503 The deluge of Deucalion.

1496 The council of Amphictyons established at Thermopylæ.

1493 Cadmus carried the Phenician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.

1490 Sparta built by Lacedæmon.

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1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1480 Troy built by Dardanus.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 110.
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from an accidental burning of the woods.
1344 The kingdom of Mycenæ begins.
1325 Isthmian games instituted at Corinth.
The Egyptian canicular year began July 20th.
1307 The Olympic games instituted by Pelops.
1300 The Lupercalia instituted.
1294 The first colony came from Italy to Sicily.
1264 The second colony came from Italy to Sicily.
1252 The city of Tyre built.
1243 A colony of Arcadians conducted by Evander into Italy.
1233 Carthage founded by the Tyrians.
1225 The Argonautic expedition.
1204 The rape of Helen by Paris, which gave rise to the Trojan war, ending with the destruction of the city in 1184.
1176 Salamis in Cyprus built by Teucer.
1152 Ascanius builds Alba Longa.
1130 The kingdom of Sicyon ended.
1124 Thebes built by the Bœotians.
1115 The mariner's compass known in China.
1104 The expedition of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus; the migration of the Dorians thither; and the end of the kingdom of Mycenæ.
1102 The kingdom of Sparta commenced.
1070 The kingdom of Athens ended.
1051 David besieged and took Jerusalem.
1044 Migration of the Ionian colonies.
1008 The Temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
996 Solomon prepared a fleet on the Red Sea to send to Ophir.
986 Samos and Utica in Africa built.
979 The kingdom of Israel divided.
974 Jerusalem taken and plundered by Shishak king of Egypt.
911 The prophet Elijah flourished.
894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
884 Olympic games restored by Iphitus and Lycurgus.
873 The art of sculpture in marble found out.
869 Scales and measures invented by Phidon.
864 The city of Carthage, in Africa, enlarged by Queen Dido.
821 Nineveh taken by Arbaces.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
801 The city of Capua in Campania built.
799 The kingdom of Lydia began.
786 The ships called *Triremes* invented by the Corinthians.
779 The race of kings in Corinth ended.
776 The era of the Olympiads began.
760 The Ephori established at Sparta.
758 Syracuse built by Archias of Corinth.
754 The government of Athens changed.
753 Era of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
747 The era of Nabonassar commenced on the 26th of February; the first day of Thoth.
746 The government of Corinth changed into a republic.
743 The first war between the Messenians and Spartans.
742 Mycænæ reduced by the Spartans.
724 A colony of the Messenians settled at Rhegium in Italy.
720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished by Salmanazer king of Assyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity.
The first eclipse of the moon on record.
713 Gela in Sicily built.
703 Corcyra, now Corfu, founded by the Corinthians.
702 Ecbatan in Media built by Deioces.
685 The second Messenian war under Aristomenes.
670 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
666 The city of Alba destroyed.
648 Cyrene in Africa founded.
634 Cyaxares besieges Nineveh, but is obliged to raise the siege by an incursion of the Scythians, who remained masters of Asia for 28 years.
624 Draco published his inhuman laws at Athens.
610 Pharaoh Necho attempted to make a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, but was not able to accomplish it.
607 By order of the same monarch, some Phenicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
606 The first captivity of the Jews by Nebuchadnezzar. Nineveh destroyed by Cyaxares.
600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that an only Supreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
Maps, globes, and the signs of the zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
598 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
594 Solon made Archon at Athens.
591 The Pythian games instituted in Greece, and tragedy first acted.
588 The first irruption of the Gauls into Italy.
586 The city of Jerusalem taken after a siege of 18 months.
582 The last captivity of the Jews by Nebuchadnezzar.
581 The Isthmian games restored.
580 Money first coined at Rome.
571 Tyre taken by Nebuchadnezzar after a siege of 13 years.
566 The first census at Rome, when the number of citizens was found to be 84,000.
562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
559 Cyrus the first king of Persia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon finished; that city being

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ing taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, gives an edict for the return of the Jews.
534 The foundation of the temple laid by the Jews.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
520 The second edict to rebuild Jerusalem.
515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
510 Hippias banished from Athens.
509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 461 years.
508 The first alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.
507 The second census at Rome, 130,000 citizens.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
498 The first dictator appointed at Rome.
497 The Saturnalia instituted at Rome.
The number of citizens 150,700.
493 Tribunes created at Rome: or, in 488.
490 The battle of Marathon, September 28.
486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.
483 Questors created at Rome.
481 Xerxes, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
480 The defence of Thermopylæ by Leonidas, and the sea-fight at Salamis.
476 The number of Roman citizens reduced to 103,000.
469 The third Messenian war.
466 The number of Roman citizens increased to 124,214.
458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years, before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
456 The Ludi Seculares first celebrated at Rome.
454 The Romans sent to Athens for Solon's laws.
451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
449 The Decemvirs banished.
445 Military tribunes, with consular power, created at Rome.
443 Censors created at Rome.
441 The battering ram invented by Artemones.
437 The Metonic cycle began July 15th.
431 The Peloponnesian war begun, and lasted 27 years.
430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
A plague over all the known world.
Malachi the last of the prophets.
405 The Athenians entirely defeated by Lysander, which occasions the loss of the city, and ruin of the Athenian power.
401 The retreat of the 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon. The 30 tyrants expelled from Athens, and democratic government restored.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, a state of rewards and punishments; for which and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
399 The feast of Lectisternium instituted. Catapultæ invented by Dionysius.
394 The Corinthian war begun.
390 Rome burnt by the Gauls.
387 The peace of Antalcidas between the Greeks and Persians.
The number of Roman citizens amounted to 152,583.
384 Dionysius begins the Punic war.
379 The Bœotian war commences.
377 A general conspiracy of the Greek states against the Lacedemonians.
373 A great earthquake in Peloponnesus.
371 The Lacedemonians defeated by Epaminondas at Leuctra.
367 Prætors established in Rome. The Licinian law passed.
363 Epaminondas killed at the battle of Mantinea.
359 The obliquity of the ecliptic observed to be 23° 49′ 10″.
358 The Social war began.
357 Dionysius expelled from Syracuse.
A transit of the moon over Mars observed.
356 The Sacred war begun in Greece.
Birth of Alexander the Great.
345 Dionysius II. expelled from Syracuse.
Commencement of the Syracusan era.
338 Philip of Macedon gains the battle of Chæronæa, and thus attains to the sovereignty of Greece.
335 Thebes taken and rased by Alexander the Great.
334 The Persians defeated at Granicus, May 22.
333 They are again defeated at Issus in Cilicia, October.
332 Alexander takes Tyre, and marches to Jerusalem.
331 Alexandria built.
Darius entirely defeated at Arbela.
330 Alexander takes Babylon, and the principal cities of the Persian empire.
The Calippic period commences.
328 Alexander passes Mount Caucasus, and marches into India.
327 He defeats Porus, an Indian prince, and founds several cities.
326 The famous sedition of Corcyra.
324 Alexander the Great dies at Babylon.
323 His family exterminated, and his dominions parted by his officers.
315 Rhodes almost destroyed by an inundation.
311 The Appian way, aqueducts, &c. constructed at Rome.
308 The cities of Greece recovered their liberties for a short time.
307 Antioch, Seleucia, Laodicea, and other cities, founded by Seleucus.
301 Antigonus defeated and killed at Ipsus.
299 The first barbers came from Sicily to Rome.
294 The number of effective men in Rome amounts to 270,000.
293 The first sun-dial erected at Rome by Papirius Cursor.

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285 Dionyſius of Alexandria began his aſtronomical era on Monday June 26. being the firſt who found the exact ſolar year to conſiſt of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.
The watch tower of Pharos at Alexandria built.
Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs 72 interpreters to tranſlate the Old Teſtament into the Greek language, which is called the *Septuagint*.
284 The foundation of the Achæan republic laid.
283 The college and library founded at Alexandria.
282 The Tarentine war begins.
280 Pyrrhus invades Italy.
279 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 278,222.
269 The firſt coining of ſilver at Rome.
265 The number of Roman citizens augmented to 292,224.
264 The firſt Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles compoſed.
262 A tranſit of Mercury over the bull's horn; the planet being in 23° of ♉, and the ſun in 29° 30′ ♈.
260 Provincial queſtors eſtabliſhed at Rome.
The Romans firſt concern themſelves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at ſea.
255 Regulus, the Roman conſul, defeated and taken priſoner by the Carthaginians under Xantippus.
252 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 297,897.
247 Another cenſus. The number of citizens 251,212.
246 The records of China deſtroyed.
241 Concluſion of the firſt Punic war.
240 Comedies firſt acted at Rome.
237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, cauſes his ſon Hannibal, at nine years old, to ſwear eternal enmity to the Romans.
236 The Tartars expelled from China.
235 Rome at peace with other nations. The temple of Janus ſhut.
231 Corſica and Sardinia ſubdued by the Romans.
The firſt divorce at Rome.
230 The obliquity of the ecliptic obſerved by Eratoſthenes to be 23° 51′ 20″.
224 The Coloſſus at Rhodes overturned by an earthquake.
219 The art of ſurgery introduced at Rome.
218 Commencement of the ſecond Punic war.
Hannibal paſſes the Alps, and invades Italy.
216 The Romans defeated at Cannæ, May 21ſt.
214 Syracuſe beſieged by Marcellus.
209 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 227,107.
208 Aſdrubal invades Italy; but is defeated and killed.
206 Gold firſt coined at Rome.
202 Hannibal defeated by Scipio at Zama.
201 Concluſion of the ſecond Punic war.
194 Sparta and Hither Spain ſubdued by the Romans.
192 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 243,704.
191 Antiochus defeated by the Romans at Thermopylæ.
190 The firſt Roman army enters Aſia, and from the ſpoils of Antiochus brings the Aſiatic luxury firſt to Rome.
188 The Spartans obliged to renounce the inſtitutions of Lycurgus.
179 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 273,244.
173 The Jewiſh high-prieſthood ſold by Antiochus Epiphanes.
170 Paper invented in China.
The temple of Jeruſalem plundered by Antiochus.
169 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 212,805.
168 Macedon reduced to the form of a Roman province.
The firſt library erected at Rome.
165 The temple of Jeruſalem purified by Judas Maccabeus.
164 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 327,032.
162 Hipparchus began his aſtronomical obſervations at Rhodes.
161 Philoſophers and rhetoricians baniſhed from Rome.
150 The third Punic war commenced.
146 Corinth deſtroyed.
Carthage, the rival to Rome, is raſed to the ground by the Romans.
A remarkable comet appeared in Greece.
143 Hipparchus began his new cycle of the moon, conſiſting of 111,035 days.
141 The Numantine war commenced.
135 The hiſtory of the Apocrypha ends.
133 Numantia deſtroyed by Scipio.
124 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 390,736.
105 The Cimbri and Teutones defeated the Romans.
102 The Teutones and Ambrones defeated by Marius.
88 Rome beſieged by the chiefs of the Marian faction.
82 Sylla created perpetual dictator at Rome.
69 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 450,000.
66 Catiline's conſpiracy.
55 Julius Cæſar makes his firſt expedition into Britain.
Craſſus defeated and killed by the Parthians.
51 Gaul reduced to a Roman province.
50 A cenſus at Rome. The number of citizens 320,000.
48 The battle of Pharſalia, between Cæſar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, conſiſting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himſelf.
The ſolar year introduced by Cæſar.
44 Cæſar, the greateſt of the Roman conquerors, after having fought 50 pitched battles, and ſlain 1,192,000 men, is killed in the ſenate-houſe by conſpirators.
42 The republicans defeated at Philippi.
31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony

Before Christ.

Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.

30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

29 A census at Rome. The number of citizens 4,101,017.

27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.

The Pantheon at Rome built.

19 Rome at the height of its glory.

The temple of Jerusalem rebuilt by Herod.

Agrippa constructed the magnificent aqueducts at Rome.

8 A census at Rome. The number of citizens 4,233,000.

5 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and

JESUS CHRIST is born, on Monday, December 25.

After Christ.

1 The vulgar Christian era commenced from January 1. the Saviour of the world being then five years of age.

8 Jesus Christ disputes with the doctors in the temple.

14 A census at Rome, 4,370,000 citizens.

16 Mathematicians and magicians expelled from Rome.

17 Twelve cities in Asia destroyed by an earthquake.

27 Pilate made governor of Judea.

29 Jesus baptized in Jordan by John.

33 He is crucified at Jerusalem.

35 St Paul converted.

39 St Matthew writes his gospel.

Pontius Pilate kills himself.

A conjunction of Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars.

40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.

43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

44 St Mark writes his gospel.

50 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.

51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.

52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.

55 St Luke writes his gospel.

56 Rotterdam built.

59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.

——————— persecutes the Druids in Britain.

60 Christianity introduced into Britain.

61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.

62 St Paul is sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.

63 The Acts of the Apostles written.

A great earthquake in Asia.

64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.

After Christ.

65 Many prodigies seen about Jerusalem.

66 St Peter and St Paul put to death.

70 While the factious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus the Roman general takes Jerusalem, which is rased to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.

73 The philosophers banished from Rome by Vespasian.

79 The cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.

80 The Capitol and Pantheon at Rome destroyed by fire.

83 The philosophers expelled Rome by Domitian.

85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.

86 The Capitoline games instituted by Domitian.

88 The Secular games celebrated at Rome.

93 The empire of the Huns in Tartary destroyed by the Chinese.

The Evangelist John banished to Patmos.

94 The second persecution of the Christians, under Domitian.

96 St John the Evangelist wrote his Revelation—his Gospel in 97.

103 Dacia reduced to a Roman province.

105 A great earthquake in Asia and Greece.

107 The third persecution of the Christians, under Trajan.

114 Armenia reduced to a Roman province.

A great earthquake in China.

115 Assyria subdued by Trajan.

An insurrection of the Jews, who murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.

A violent earthquake at Antioch.

120 Nicomedia and other cities swallowed up by an earthquake.

121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 134, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick.

130 Jerusalem rebuilt by Adrian.

132 The second Jewish war commenced.

135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.

139 Justin writes his first apology for the Christians.

141 A number of heresies appear about this time.

146 The worship of Serapis introduced at Rome.

152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.

An inundation of the Tiber, and an earthquake at Rhodes.

163 The fourth persecution of the Christians, under Marcus Aurelius Antoninus.

166 The Romans sent ambassadors to China.

After Christ.

168 A plague over the whole world.
188 The Capitol at Rome deſtroyed by lightning.
191 A great part of Rome deſtroyed by fire.
203 The fifth perſecution of the Chriſtians, under Severus.
205 An earthquake in Wales.
209 Severus's wall in Britain built.
218 Two comets appeared at Rome. The courſe of the moſt remarkable from eaſt to weſt.
222 About this time the Roman empire begins to decline. The barbarians begin their irruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to moleſt the empire.
225 Mathematicians allowed to teach publicly at Rome.
236 The ſixth perſecution of the Chriſtians under Maximin.
241 The Franks firſt mentioned in hiſtory.
250 The ſeventh perſecution, under Decius.
252 A dreadful peſtilence broke out in Ethiopia, and ſpread over the whole world.
The eighth perſecution, under Gallus.
253 Europe ravaged by the Scythians and Goths.
258 The ninth perſecution, under Valerian.
260 Valerian is taken priſoner by Sapor king of Perſia, and flayed alive.
The Scythians ravaged the Roman empire.
The temple of Diana at Epheſus burnt.
261 A great plague throughout the Roman empire.
262 Earthquakes in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and three days of darkneſs.
273 The Romans took Palmyra.
274 Silk firſt brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
276 Wine firſt made in Britain.
277 The Franks ſettled in Gaul.
284 The Diocleſian era commenced Auguſt 29th, or September 17th.
287 Carauſius proclaimed emperor of Britain.
289 A great comet viſible in Meſopotamia for 29 days.
291 Two emperors and two Cæſars march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
297 Alexandria deſtroyed by Diocleſian.
303 The tenth perſecution under Diocleſian.
306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.
308 Cardinals firſt appointed.
312 Peſtilence all over the Eaſt.
Cycle of indiction began.
313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
314 Three biſhops, or fathers, are ſent from Britain to aſſiſt at the council of Arles.
315 Crucifixion aboliſhed.
321 Obſervation of Sunday enjoined.
323 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, againſt Arius, the founder of Arianiſm, where was compoſed the famous Nicene Creed, which we attribute to them.
328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thereafter called Conſtantinople.
330 A dreadful perſecution of the Chriſtians in Perſia, which laſts 40 years.
333 Conſtantine orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.
334 Three hundred thouſand Sarmatians revolted from their maſters.
341 The goſpel propagated in Ethiopia by Frumentius.
344 Neocæſarea ruined by an earthquake.
351 The heathens firſt called Pagans.
358 A hundred and fifty cities in Aſia and Greece overturned by an earthquake.
360 The firſt monaſtery founded near Poictiers in France, by Martin.
363 The Roman emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.
364 The Roman empire is divided into the Eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and Weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital), each being now under the government of different emperors.
373 The Bible tranſlated into the Gothic language.
376 The Goths ſettled in Thrace.
379 The cycle of Theophilus commenced.
390 A fiery column ſeen in the air for 30 days.
400 Bells invented by Biſhop Paulinus of Campania.
401 Europe overrun by the Goths, under Alaric.
404 Another irruption of the Goths.
The kingdom of Caledonia, or Scotland, revives under Fergus.
406 Third irruption of the Goths.
The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ſpread into France and Spain, by a conceſſion of Honorius, emperor of the Weſt.
408 The Chriſtian religion propagated in Perſia.
409 Rome taken and plundered by the Goths, Auguſt 24.
412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
413 The kingdom of Burgundy begun in Alſace.
415 The kingdom of Thouloufe founded by the Viſigoths.
417 The Alans extirpated by the Goths.
419 Many cities in Paleſtine deſtroyed by an earthquake.
420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
421 The Salique law promulgated.
426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return: adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their own valour.
432 The goſpel preached in Ireland by St Patrick.
444 All Europe ravaged by the Huns.
446 The Britons, now left to themſelves, are greatly haraſſed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans (which they entitle, *The Groans of the Britons*), but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.
447 Attila (ſurnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravage the Roman empire.
449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, againſt the Scots and Picts.

After Christ.

452 The city of Venice founded.
455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
476 The western empire is finished, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed.
480 A great earthquake at Constantinople, which lasted 40 days.
493 Italy reduced by Theodoric king of the Goths.
496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
506 The Jews talmud published.
508 Prince Arthur begins to reign over the Britons.
510 Paris made the capital of the French dominions.
514 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet is burnt by a speculum of brass made by Proclus.
516 The computing of time by the Christian era is introduced by Dionysius the monk.
517 Five years drought and famine in Palestine.
519 A bearded comet appears.
529 The codex of Justinian, the eastern emperor, is published.
534 The kingdom of the Vandals in Africa comes to an end, after having continued 105 years.
536 The manufacture of silk introduced at Constantinople by two Indian monks.
540 Antioch destroyed by the Persians.
541 Basilius the last consul elected at Rome.
542 Antioch rebuilt.
An earthquake all over the world.
550 An earthquake in Palestine and Syria.
The kingdom of Poland founded.
551 An earthquake in Greece, attended with a great commotion in the sea.
553 The empire of the Goths in Italy destroyed by Narses.
A great earthquake at Constantinople.
557 Another violent earthquake at Constantinople, Rome, &c.
A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
568 The Lombards founded a kingdom in Italy.
569 The Turks first mentioned in history.
The exarchate of Ravenna begins.
575 The first monarchy founded in Bavaria.
580 Antioch destroyed by an earthquake.
581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
584 The origin of fiefs in France.
588 The city of Paris destroyed by fire.
589 Rome overflowed by the Tiber.
593 The Gascons establish themselves in the country called by their name.
596 John of Constantinople assumes the title of universal bishop.
597 Augustine the monk comes into England with forty monks.
599 A dreadful pestilence in Africa.
604 St Paul's church in London founded.
605 The use of bells introduced into churches.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East.
622 Mahomet, the false prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina in Arabia, in the 44th year of his age, and 10th of his ministry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called *hegira*, i. e. "the Flight."
628 An academy founded at Canterbury.
632 The era of Jesdegird commenced June 16th.
637 Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
641 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
643 The temple of Jerusalem converted into a Mahometan mosque.
653 The Saracens now extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.
They take Rhodes, and destroy the famous Colossus.
England invaded by the Danes.
660 Organs first used in churches.
663 Glass invented by a bishop, and brought into England by a Benedictine monk.
669 Sicily invaded, and Syracuse destroyed by the Saracens.
685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and drove into Wales and Cornwall.
698 The Saracens take Carthage, and expel the Romans from Africa.
700 Cracow built, and first prince of Poland elected.
704 The first province given to the Pope.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
714 France governed by Charles Martel.
718 The kingdom of the Asturias in Spain founded by Pelagio.
719 Christianity promulgated in Germany.
726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.
727 Tax of Peter's pence begun by Ina king of Wessex.
732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens near Tours.
735 Institution of the office of Pope's nuncio.
746 Three years pestilence in Europe and Asia.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.
749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
The empire of the Saracens divided into three.
752 The exarchate of Ravenna abolished by Astolphus king of the Lombards.
755 Commencement of the Pope's temporal dominion.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.

After Christ.

762 Burials, which formerly used to be in highways, permitted in towns.
792 An academy founded in Paris.
794 The Huns extirpated by Charlemagne.
797 Seventeen days of unusual darkness.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western empire; gives the present names to the winds and months; endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed in military enterprises.
801 A great earthquake in France, Germany, and Italy.
807 Jan. 31. Jupiter eclipsed by the moon. March 17. A large spot seen on the sun for eight days.
808 The first descent of the Normans on France.
825 The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Benimula to be 23° 55′.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.
The kingdoms of Navarre and Arragon founded.
832 Painters banished out of the eastern empire.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fish.
840 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth, which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
842 Germany separated from the empire of the Franks.
856 An earthquake over the greatest part of the known world.
861 Ruric the first prince of Russia began to reign.
864 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
867 Christianity propagated in Bulgaria.
868 Egypt becomes independent on the caliphs of Bagdad.
872 Bells and clocks first used in Constantinople.
873 France distressed by locusts and pestilence.
874 Iceland peopled by the Norwegians.
Scotland invaded by the Danes.
875 A bearded comet appears in France.
878 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; in 890 erects county-courts, having founded the university of Oxford in 886.
880 The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Albategni to be 23° 35′.
889 The Hungarians settled near the Danube.
891 The first land-tax in England.
895 The monastery of Cluny founded.
905 A very remarkable comet appeared in China.
Rome taken by the Normans.
911 The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Thebit to be 23° 33′ 30″.
912 The Normans establish themselves in Normandy.
913 The Danes become masters of England.
915 The university of Cambridge founded.
923 Fiefs established in France.
925 Sigefroi elected first marquis of Brandenburg.
928 The marquisate of Misnia established.
937 The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.
941 Arithmetic brought into Europe.
961 Candia recovered from the Saracens.
967 Antioch recovered from the Saracens.
969 The race of Abbas extinguished in Egypt.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.
977 Greece, Macedon, and Thrace, ravaged by the Bulgarians for ten years.
The Bohemians subdued by Otho.
979 Coronation oath first used in England.
Juries first instituted in ditto.
985 The Danes under Sueno invade England and Scotland.
987 The Carlovingian race in France ended.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia; letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.
993 A great eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
995 England invaded by the Danes and Norwegians.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleslaus the first king of Poland.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Aboul Wafi and Abu Hamed to be 23° 35′.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Deptford, 1588.
1002 The emperor Henry assumed the title of king of the Romans.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
1006 A plague in Egypt for three years.
1007 A great eruption of Vesuvius.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Albatrunius to be 23° 35′.
1014 Sueno the Dane becomes master of England.
Sept. 28. Almost all Flanders laid under water by a storm.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
1017 Rain of the colour of blood for three days in Aquitain.
1022 A new species of music invented by Aretin.
1035 Togrul-Beg, or Tangrolipix, the Turkish sultan, establishes himself in Korasan.
The kingdoms of Castile and Arragon began.
1040 The Danes, after several engagements with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.
Smyrna destroyed by an earthquake.
1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
1043 The Turks become formidable and take possession of Persia.
The Russians come from Scythia, and land in Thrace.
1054 Leo IX. the first pope that kept up an army.
1055 The Turks take Bagdad, and overturn the empire of the Saracens.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunsinnan, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.

After Christ.

1061 Surnames appointed to be taken in Scotland by a parliament held in Forfar.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066 The conquest of England by William (surnamed the bastard) duke of Normandy, in the battle of Hastings, where Harold is slain.
1070 The feudal law introduced into England.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to the pope towards the end of January.
1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
An earthquake in England.
Asia Minor, having been two years under the power of Soliman, is from this time called Turkey.
1080 Doomsday-book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
The tower of London built by ditto, to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon or English language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
1086 The order of Carthusians established by Bruno.
1090 The dynasty of Bathineens or Assassins begins in Irak, and continues for 117 years.
1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
1098 The order of St Benedict instituted.
1099 Jerusalem taken by the crusaders; Godfrey elected king of it; and the order of knights of St John instituted.
1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
Learning revived at Cambridge.
Writing on paper made of cotton common about this time.
1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the Sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
1119 Bohemia erected into a kingdom.
1132 The kingdom of Portugal began.
1137 The pandect of Justinian found in the ruins of Amalphi.
1141 The factions of the Guelphs and Gibellines prevailed about this time.
1143 The Koran translated into Latin.
1144 The Peripatetic philosophy introduced into Germany.
1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1154 Christianity introduced into Finland.
1156 The city of Moscow in Russia founded.
The order of the Carmelites instituted.
1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
1171 The dynasty of the Fatemites ended in Egypt; the sovereigns of the country henceforth called Sultans.
1172 Henry II. king of England (and first of the Plantagenets), takes possession of Ireland; which from that period has been governed by an English viceroy or lord-lieutenant.
1176 England is divided by Henry into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
1179 The university of Padua founded.
1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.
1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
1183 Seven thousand Albigenses massacred by the inhabitants of Berry.
1186 A conjunction of all the planets at sunrise September 16. The sun in 30° ♍; Jupiter in 2° 3′ ♎; Venus in 3° 49′; Saturn in 8° 6′; Mercury in 4° 10′; Mars, 9° 8′; tail of the Dragon, 18° 23′ ♎.
1187 Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
1194 *Dieu et mon Droit*, first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
1195 Denmark and Norway laid waste by a dreadful tempest.
1198 Institution of the order of the Holy Trinity.
1200 Chimneys were not known in England.
Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
University of Salamanca in Spain founded.
1204 Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.
The inquisition established.
The empire of Trebizond established.
1208 London incorporated, and obtained their first charter, for electing their lord mayor and other magistrates, from King John.
The order of *Fratres Minores* established.
The pope excommunicates King John.
1209 The works of Aristotle imported from Constantinople into Europe.
The silk manufacture imported from Greece into Venice.
1210 The works of Aristotle condemned to be burnt at Paris.
The emperor Otho excommunicated by the pope.
Violent persecution of the Albigenses.
1215 Magna Charta is signed by King John and the barons of England.
Court of common pleas established.
Orders of the Dominicans and Knights Hospitallers founded.
The doctrine of transubstantiation introduced.
1216 King Alexander and the whole kingdom of Scotland excommunicated by the pope's legate.

After Christ.

1220 Aſtronomy and geography brought into Europe by the Moors.
1222 A great earthquake in Germany.
1223 A comet of extraordinary magnitude appeared in Denmark.
1226 A league formed againſt the Albigenſes by the French king and many prelates and lords.
1227 The Tartars under Jenghiz-khan emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, overrun all the Saracen empire, and carry death and deſolation wherever they march.
1228 The univerſity of Thoulouſe founded.
1230 The kingdom of Denmark diſtreſſed by peſtilence.
The kingdoms of Leon and Caſtile united.
Pruſſia ſubdued by the Teutonic knights.
Univerſity of Naples founded.
1231 The Almageſt of Ptolemy tranſlated into Latin.
1233 The Inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.
The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.
1238 The univerſity of Vienna founded.
1239 A writing of this year's date on paper made of rags ſtill extant.
1241 The Hanſeatic league formed.
Tin mines diſcovered in Germany.
1245 A clear red ſtar, like Mars, appears in Capricorn.
1250 Painting revived in Florence by Cimabue.
1251 Wales ſubdued, and Magna Charta confirmed.
1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonſo king of Caſtile.
1256 The order of the Auguſtines eſtabliſhed.
1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.
1260 The ſect of Flagellantes appeared in Italy.
1263 Acho king of Norway invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde; but they are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the weſtern iſles.
1264 The commons of England firſt ſummoned to parliament about this time.
1268 The Tartars invade China.
1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
The obliquity of the ecliptic obſerved by Cozah Naſirodni to be 23° 30′.
Weſtminſter abbey rebuilt, and conſecrated in the preſence of Henry III.
1272 The academy of Florence founded.
1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.
The obliquity of the ecliptic obſerved by Cheouking in China to be 23° 33′ 39″.
1274 The firſt commercial treaty betwixt England and Flanders.
1279 King Edward renounced his right to Normandy.
The mortmain act paſſed in England.
1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
A great peſtilence in Denmark.
8000 French murdered at the Sicilian veſpers.
Academy de la Cruſca founded.
1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.
1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.
1290 The univerſity of Liſbon founded.
1291 Ptolemais taken by the Turks. End of the cruſades.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1294 Parliament eſtabliſhed in Paris.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver-hafted knives, ſpoons, and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow-candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
The Scots defeated by the Engliſh at Falkirk.
1299 An earthquake in Germany
Spectacles invented by a monk of Piſa.
The year of jubilee inſtituted by Boniface VIII.
1302 The mariner's compaſs invented, or improved, by Giovia of Naples.
The univerſity of Avignon founded.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
Coal firſt uſed in England.
1308 The popes removed to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
The knights of St John take poſſeſſion of the iſle of Rhodes.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave and ſeparate.
A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1315 Germany afflicted with famine and peſtilence.
1319 The univerſity of Dublin founded.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom; 1344 ditto in England.
An earthquake in England.
1323 A great eruption of Mount Ætna.
1325 The firſt treaty of commerce betwixt England and Venice.
1330 Gunpowder invented by a monk of Cologne.
1332 The pope accuſed of hereſy.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettled at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with an aſtronomical exactneſs.
Europe infeſted by locuſts.
1340 Heralds college inſtituted in England.
Copper money firſt uſed in Scotland and Ireland.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patents uſed by Edward III.
1345 Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which gained him the battle of Creſſy.
1347 The battle of Durham, in which David, king of Scots, is taken priſoner.

After Christ.

1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
1353 Asia and Africa desolated by locusts.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which King John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals first brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
Univerfity of Cologne founded.
Tamerlane began to reign in Perfia.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Englifh in favour of Edward III. to his people.
The military order of Janizaries eftablifhed among the Turks.
1365 The univerfities of Vienna and Geneva founded.
1369 John Wickliffe an Englifhman begins to call in queftion the doctrines of the church of Rome about this time, whofe followers are called Lollards.
1370 The office of grand vifier eftablifhed.
1377 Inundation of the fea in Flanders.
1378 Greenland difcovered by a Venetian.
1381 Bills of exchange firft ufed in England.
1384 The firft act of navigation in England; no goods to be exported or imported by Englifhmen in foreign bottoms.
1383 A company of linen weavers from the Netherlands eftablifhed in London.
Windfor caftle built by Edward III.
1387 The firft lord high admiral of England inftituted.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotfpur and the earl of Douglas.
Bombs invented at Venloo.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amufement.
1399 Weftminfter abbey rebuilt and enlarged.—Weftminfter hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inftituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725, confifting of 84 knights.
1402 Tamerlane defeats and takes prifoner Bajazet the Turkifh fultan.
1405 The Canary iflands difcovered by Bathencourt a Norman.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
Painting in oil-colours invented at Bruges by John Van-eyck.
1411 The univerfity of St Andrew's in Scotland founded.
1412 Algebra brought from Arabia into Europe.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1420 The ifland of Madeira difcovered by the Portuguefe.
1421 The revenue of England amounted to 55,754l.
1428 The fiege of Orleans, the firft blow to the Englifh power in France.
1431 A great earthquake at Lifbon.
1432 Great inundations in Germany.
1427 The obliquity of the ecliptic obferved by Ulug Beg to be 23° 30′ 17″.
1440 Printing invented by L. Kofter at Haerlem in Holland; brought into England by W. Caxton, a mercer of London, 1471.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The fea breaks in at Dort in Holland and drowns 100,000 people.
1453 Conftantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eaftern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conftantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerfity of Glafgow in Scotland founded.
1457 Glafs firft manufactured in England.
1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
The obliquity of the ecliptic obferved by Purbachius and Regiomontanus to be 23° 29′.
1473 The ftudy of the Greek language introduced into France.
1477 The univerfity of Aberdeen in Scotland founded.
1479 Union of the kingdoms of Arragon and Caftile.
1482 The coaft of Guinea difcovered by the Portuguefe.
A court of inquifition erected in Seville.
1485 Richard III. king of England, and laft of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bofworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which put an end to the civil wars between the houfes of York and Lancafter, after a conteft of 30 years, and the lofs of 100,000 men.
1487 Henry eftablifhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firft ftanding army.
1489 Maps and fea charts firft brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
1490 William Groceyn introduces the ftudy of the Greek language into England.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely fubdued by Ferdinand, and become fubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obferved by the Spaniards, whofe clergy ufe the inquifition in all its tortures; and in 1609, near one million of the Moors were driven from Spain to the oppofite coaft of Africa, from whence they originally came.
1492 America firft difcovered by Columbus, a Genoefe in the fervice of Spain.
The Moors expelled from Granada, which they had poffeffed upwards of 800 years.
1495 The venereal difeafe introduced into Europe.
1496 The Jews and Moors banifhed out of Portugal.
1497 The Portuguefe firft fail to the Eaft Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America difcovered by Americus Vefpufius, from whom unjuftly it has its name.
1499 North America difcovered, for Henry VII. by Cabot, a Venetian.
1508 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into fix circles, and adds four more in 1512.
Brazil difcovered by the Portuguefe. Florida difcovered by John Cabot an Englifhman.
Painting in chiaro-obfcuro difcovered.
A great plague in England.
1505 Shillings firft coined in England.

After Christ.

1507 The island of Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1510 The obliquity of the eliptic observed by Wernenus to be 23° 28′ 30″.
1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. king of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1514 Cannon bullets of stone still in use.
1515 The first Polyglot Bible printed at Alcala.
The kingdom of Navarre annexed to that of Castile by Ferdinand.
1516 The kingdom of Algiers seized by Barbarossa.
1517 Martin Luther began the reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
The kingdom of the Mamelukes in Egypt overthrown by the Turks.
1518 Discovery of New Spain, and the Straits of Magellan.
1521 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from his Holiness.
1522 Rhodes taken by the Turks.
The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
1526 The inquisition established in Portugal.
Lutheranism established in Germany.
1527 Rome taken and plundered by the Imperial army.
1528 Popery abolished in Sweden.
1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the reformers protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
1530 Union of the Protestants at Smallcalde, December 22d.
Secretary of State's office established in England.
1531 A great earthquake at Lisbon.
1532 The Court of Session instituted in Scotland.
1533 Insurrection of the Anabaptists in Westphalia.
1534 The reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
Barbarossa seized on the kingdom of Tunis.
1535 The reformation introduced into Ireland.
The society of Jesuits formed.
1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised; the present translation finished in 1611.
About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
Six hundred and forty-five religious houses suppressed in England and Wales.
1540 The variation of the compass discovered by Sebastian Cabot.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Copernicus to be 23° 28′ 8″.
Society of Jesuits established, September 27.
1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by Queen Eliz. 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr Lee, of St John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
Iron cannon and mortars made in England.
1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1547 First law in England establishing the interest of money at 10 per cent.
1548 The reformation gained ground in Poland.
1549 Lords lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
1550 Horse guards instituted in England.
The bank of Venice established about this time.
1552 Books of geography and astronomy destroyed in England, as being infected with magic.
The book of Common Prayer established in England by act of parliament.
1554 The kingdom of Astracan conquered by the Russians.
1555 The Russian company established in England.
1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
1560 The reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
1561 Livonia ceded to Poland.
1563 Knives first made in England.
1565 Revolt of the Low Countries.
Malta attacked by the Turks.
1566 The 39 articles of the church of England established.
1568 Queen Mary imprisoned in England.
Liberty of professing the reformed religion granted to the Low Countries.
1569 Royal exchange first built.
1571 The island of Cyprus taken by the Turks.
They are defeated at Lepanto.
1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
A new star in Cassiopeia observed by Cornelius Gemma. It appeared in November, and disappeared in March.
1576 The profession of the Protestant religion authorised in France. This toleration followed by a civil war.
1578 The first treaty of alliance betwixt England and the States General, January 7.
1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
English East India company incorporated—established 1600.
——— Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
Parochial register first appointed in England.
The kingdom of Portugal seized by Philip of Spain.
1581 Copper first used in France.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
The first proposal of settling a colony in America.
1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants.

After Christ.

1588 Duelling with ſmall ſwords introduced into England.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increaſed to 1000 in 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
Teleſcopes invented by Janſen, a ſpectacle-maker in Germany.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1593 A great plague in London.
1594 The Jeſuits expelled from France.
The obliquity of the ecliptic obſerved by Byrgius to be 23° 30′.
1595 The ſame obſerved by Tycho-Brahe to be 23° 29′ 25″.
1596 A great earthquake at Japan.
1597 Watches firſt brought into England from Germany.
1598 The edict of Nantes by Henry IV. of France.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland as her ſucceſſor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1605 The Gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter; being a project to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.
1606 Oaths of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in Britain.
1608 Colonies ſent from Britain to Virginia.
1609 The independency of the United States acknowledged by Spain.
1610 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Jupiter, by the teleſcope, lately invented in Germany.
Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravaillac, a prieſt.
Thermometers invented by Drebel, a Dutchman.
1611 Baronets firſt created in Britain by James I. May 22.
An earthquake in Conſtantinople; 200,000 perſons died there of the plague.
1612 The north-weſt paſſage to China attempted in vain by the Britiſh.
1614 Napier of Marcheſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the new river to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, confirms the doctrine of the circulation of the blood, which had been firſt broached by Servetus, a French phyſician, in 1553.
1620 The broad ſilk manufacture from raw ſilk, introduced into England.
Barbadoes diſcovered by Sir William Courteen.
Navarre united to France.
Copper-money firſt introduced in England.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
The two parties of Whigs and Tories formed in Britain.
1622 The Palatinate reduced by the Imperialiſts.
1623 The Knights of Nova Scotia inſtituted.
1624 Maſſacre of the Engliſh at Amboyna.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles I.
1625 The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Britiſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1631 The tranſit of Mercury over the ſun's diſk, firſt obſerved by Gaſſendi.
A great eruption of Veſuvius.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1633 Galileo condemned by the inquiſition at Rome.
Louiſiana diſcovered by the French.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by Lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1636 A tranſit of Mercury over the ſun's diſk obſerved by Caſſini.
1639 A tranſit of Venus over the ſun's diſk, firſt obſerved by Mr Horrox, November 24. O. S. 3 h. 15′ P. M.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects; on which their army, under General Leſley, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the malecontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh Proteſtants were killed.
The independency of Portugal recovered by John duke of Braganza.
1642 King Charles impeaches five refractory members, which begins the civil wars in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by parliament.
Barometers invented by Torricelli.
1648 A new ſtar obſerved in the tail of the Whale by Fabricius.
1649 Charles I. beheaded by Cromwell at Whitehall, January 30. aged 49.
Pendulums firſt applied to clocks by Huygens.
1651 The ſect called *Quakers* appeared in England.
1652 The Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope eſtabliſhed.
1653 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
The air-pump is invented by Otto Guericke of Magdeburg.
1655 The Engliſh under Admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
One of Saturn's ſatellites obſerved by Huygens.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the protectorſhip by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrendered their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1661 The obliquity of the ecliptic obſerved by Hevelius to be 23° 29′ 7″.
1662 The royal ſociety eſtabliſhed at London by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted: 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
Pruſſia declared independent of Poland.
1664 The New Netherlands in North America conquered from the Swedes and Dutch by the Engliſh.

After Christ.

1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 persons.
The magic lantern invented by Kircher.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2. and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
1668 ——— ditto, Aix-la-Chapelle.
St James's Park planted and made a thoroughfare for public use by Charles II.
1669 The island of Candia taken by the Turks.
1670 The English Hudson's Bay company incorporated.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Mengoli to be 23° 28′ 24″.
1672 Louis XIV. overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Richer to be 23° 28′ 54″.
1677 The micrometer invented by Kircher.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act passed.
A strange darkness at noonday, Jan. 12.
1680 A great comet appeared, and from its nearness to our earth alarmed the inhabitants. It continued visible from Nov. 3. to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgmore, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantes is revoked by Louis XIV. and the Protestants are greatly distressed.
1686 The Newtonian philosophy published.
1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Louis XIV.
1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France, December 23.
King William and Queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 13.
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by General Mackay at the battle of Killycrankie; upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
Smyrna destroyed by an earthquake.
1689 The land tax passed in England.
The toleration act passed in ditto.
William Fuller, who pretended to prove the prince of Wales spurious, was voted by the commons to be a notorious cheat, impostor, and false accuser.
Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oaths to William.
1689 Episcopacy abolished in Scotland.
1690 The battle of the Boyne gained by William against James, in Ireland.
1691 The war in Ireland finished by the surrender of Limeric to William.
The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Flamstead to be 23° 28′ 32″.
1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by Admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
The massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, Jan. 31. O. S.
Earthquakes in England and Jamaica, September 8.
Hanover made an electorate of the empire.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French against the confederates in the battle of Turin.
Bank of England established by King William.
The first public lottery was drawn this year.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp-duties instituted in England.
1697 The peace of Ryswick.
1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien in America, and called it *Caledonia*.
1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
1701 King James II. dies at St Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
Prussia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts established.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by Queen Anne, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor and states general, renews the war against France and Spain.
The French sent colonies to the Mississippi.
1703 The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Bianchini to be 23° 28′ 25″.
1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and allies against the French.
The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.
1706 The treaty of union betwixt England and Scotland, signed July 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
1707 The first British parliament.
The allies defeated at Almanza.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by General Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Moscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Poltowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother the late pretender.
The cathedral church of St Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The English South Sea company began.

After Christ.

1712 Duke of Hamilton and Lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-park.

1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca in Europe were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.

1714 Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.

Interest reduced to five per cent.

1715 Louis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson Louis XV.

The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriffmuir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels dispersed.

The obliquity of the ecliptic observed by Louville to be 23° 28′ 24″.

1716 The Pretender married the princess of Sobieska, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late king of Poland.

An act passed for septennial parliaments.

1718 Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.

1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.

Lomb's silk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby: takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the rest; and in twenty-four-hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine silk-thread.

1720 The South-sea scheme in England begun April 7. was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.

A great earthquake in China.

1724 An earthquake in Denmark.

1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.

Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.

Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.

The aberration of the fixed stars discovered and accounted for by Dr Bradley.

1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling.

Several public-spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia in North America.

1733 The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay.

1739 Captain Porteous having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.

A transit of Mercury observed by Cassini.

1737 A dreadful hurricane at the mouth of the Ganges, October 10.

1738 Westminster bridge, consisting of 15 arches, begun; finished in 1750 at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.

The order of St Januarius established at Naples.

1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain, July 21. and war declared, Oct. 23.

The empire of Indostan ruined by Kouli Khan.

An intense frost in Britain.

1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies in favour of the queen of Hungary.

1744 A dreadful plague in Sicily.

1744 War declared against France.—Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.

1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.

The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, April 16. 1746.

1746 British Linen Company erected.

Lima destroyed by an earthquake.

1747 Kouli Khan murdered.

1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.

1749 The interest on the British funds reduced to three per cent.

British herring-fishery incorporated.

The colony of Nova Scotia founded.

1750 Earthquake in England.

1751 Frederic prince of Wales, father to his present majesty, died.

Antiquarian Society at London incorporated.

1752 The new stile introduced into Great Britain; the 3d of September being counted the 14th.

1753 The British Museum erected at Montague-house.

Society of arts, manufactures, and commerce, instituted in London.

1754 A dreadful eruption of Mount Ætna.

A great earthquake at Constantinople, Cairo, &c. Sept. 2.

1755 Quito in Peru destroyed by an earthquake, April 28.

Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, Nov. 1.

1756 146 Englishmen are confined in the Black Hole at Calcutta in the East Indies by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.

Marine society established at London.

The king of Prussia commenced hostilities in the month of August in Saxony. Defeats the Austrians at Lo.

1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.

The king of Prussia invades Bohemia. Defeats the Austrians at Reichenberg, April 21. and at Prague, May 6. Repulsed by Count Daun at Kolin, June 18.

The allies defeated by the French at Hastenbeck, July 26.

Convention of Closter-Seven, Sept. 8.

The king of Prussia defeats the French and Austrians at Rosbach, Nov. 5. The Prussians defeated near Breslaw, Nov. 22. The Austrians defeated at Lissa, Dec. 5.

1758 Senegal taken by the British, May 1. They take Louisbourg, July 27.

The king of Prussia defeats the Russians at Zorndorf, Aug. 25. Is defeated by Count Daun at Hoch-kirchen, Oct. 14.

Goree taken by Commodore Keppel, Dec. 29.

Attempt to assassinate the king of Portugal, Dec. 3.

1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the British.

The French defeated by Prince Ferdinand at Bergen, April 13.

Guadaloupe taken by the British, May 1.

King of Prussia defeated by the Russians at Cunersdorf, Aug. 12.

After Christ.

1759 The French fleet defeated by Admiral Hawke, Nov. 20.
Balbec and Tripoli destroyed by an earthquake, Dec. 5.
1760 King George II. dies, Oct. 25. in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who, on the 22d September 1761, married the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Blackfriars bridge, consisting of 9 arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be discharged by a toll.
1761 A transit of Venus over the sun, June 6.
Earthquakes in Syria, Oct. 13.
The king of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Torgau, Nov. 3.
Pondicherry taken by Col. Coote, Jan 15.
Belleisle surrendered to the British, Feb. 4.
1762 War declared against Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.
George Augustus Frederic, prince of Wales, born, August. 12.
Martinico surrendered to the British, Feb. 4.
Havannah surrendered to ditto, Aug. 12.
Manilla taken by ditto, Oct. 6.
1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10th; which confirms to Great Britain the extensive province of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
The Jesuits expelled from France.
1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr Harrison for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece
Famine and pestilence in Italy.
An earthquake at Lisbon.
1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
1766 April 21st, a spot or macula of the sun, more than thrice the bigness of our earth, passed the sun's centre.
The American stamp-act repealed, March 18.
A great earthquake at Constantinople.
The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.
1767 The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Venice, and Genoa, April 2d.
Martinico almost destroyed by an earthquake.
The Protestants tolerated in Poland, Nov. 2d.
1768 Academy of painting established in London.
The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.
1769 Paoli fled from Corsica, June 13. The island then reduced by the French.
1770 An earthquake at St Domingo.
1771 Dr Solander and Mr Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, Lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
An emigration of 500,000 Tourgouths from the coasts of the Caspian sea to the frontiers of China.
1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution from aristocracy to a limited monarchy.
The Pretender marries a princess of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas late earl of Aylesbury.
The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of a great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole; but having made 81 degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orixa, and Bahar, containing 15 millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad; upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.
The war between the Russians and the Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are everywhere unsuccessful.
The society of Jesuits suppressed by the pope's bull, Aug. 25.
1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Russians and the Turks.
The British parliament having passed an act laying a duty of 3d. per pound upon all teas imported into America, the colonists, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of the British parliament to tax them.
The American colonies send deputies to Philadelphia, who assume the title of *The Congress of the Thirteen United Provinces*, and all the powers of government.
1775 The American war commences. Action at Bunker's Hill, June 7.
The Spaniards land near Algiers, and are defeated, July 8.
1776 The congress declare the United States of America independent of the crown and parliament of Great Britain.
The Americans receive a dreadful defeat at Long Island, Aug. 27.
1777 Philadelphia taken by the British, Oct. 3.
General Burgoyne with his army surrenders to the Americans.
1778 A most extraordinary eruption of Vesuvius, August 8.
The siege of Gibraltar begun by the Spaniards, July 8.

After Christ.

1780 Jan. 14th, 6h. A. M. the thermometer suspended in the open air at Glasgow, stood at 46° below 0.
The Spanish fleet defeated by Admiral Rodney, Jan. 16th.
Charlestown surrendered to the British, May 12th.
A dreadful insurrection in London, and riots in many other places of the kingdom.
A great number of British ships taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain.
Lord Cornwallis defeats the Americans at Camden.
A dreadful hurricane in the Leeward islands, Oct. 9th.
An extraordinary storm of wind in England.
War declared against the Dutch, Dec. 20.

1781 A terrible engagement between the Dutch and British fleets near the Dogger bank, August 5th.
Lord Cornwallis with his army surrenders to the united forces of France and America, Oct. 18th.

1782 Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards, February 4th.
The French fleet under De Grasse defeated and almost destroyed by Admiral Rodney, April 12th.
The Spanish floating batteries before Gibraltar entirely destroyed, Sept. 12.

1783 Preliminaries of a general peace signed. America declared independent, Jan. 20th.
A dreadful earthquake, attended with many extraordinary circumstances, in Italy and Sicily.
The sun obscured by a kind of fog during the whole summer.
A volcanic eruption in Iceland surpassing any thing recorded in history. The lava spouted up in three places to a great height in the air, and continued flowing for two months; during which time it covered a tract of ground to a great extent, and in some places more than 100 feet deep.
A large meteor appears to the northward of Shetland, and takes its direction southward, with a velocity little inferior to that of the earth in its annual course round the sun. Its track observed for more than 1000 miles.
Algiers bombarded by the Spaniards.
A great tumult at Philadelphia between the inhabitants and French soldiery.
An extraordinary aurora borealis seen at London.
Bednore taken by the English.
Magazine at Bencoolen blown up.
Bottles made of the lava of volcanoes.
Byrne, the Irish giant, eight feet four inches, dies by intemperance.
Famine in the Carnatic.
Charles Gustavus prince of Sweden dies.
A father kills three of his children with the thigh-bone of a horse, after hearing a sermon on the happiness of those who die young.
Sir Eyre Coote defeats Hyder Ally.
Cremnitz in Hungary destroyed by lightning.
Dartmouth East Indiaman lost.

1783 Definitive treaties between Britain and France, Spain and America, concluded.
The East India house robbed.
Thanks to General Elliot voted by the house of commons.
Embargo on salt in Ireland taken off.
A forest in Poland suddenly disappears.
Island of Formosa destroyed by an earthquake.
Gold and silver lace prohibited in Denmark.
A conspiracy against the Grand Signior discovered.
Grosvenor Indiaman lost.
Mangalore surrenders to the British.
Five meteors or fire-balls seen at different places in England.
Serious mutinies at Portsmouth, Jersey, Guernsey, Dublin, &c.
A plague breaks out at Constantinople.
Powder mills at Ewell blown up.
A man in Moscow has 84 children alive out of 87 by three wives.
Queen Charlotte delivered of a princess.

1784 General Cornwallis made constable of the Tower.
Sluices at Lillo opened by the Dutch.
Great earthquakes in Iceland, Grenoble, &c.
Fort Frederick at Grenada blown up.
Commodore Lindsay visited by the king and queen of Naples.
Pennsylvania in extreme distress.
A general thanksgiving for peace with America, &c.
Allan Ramsay, Esq. son of the celebrated poet of the same name, dies at Dover.
St Augustine in Florida declared a free port.
A gang of desperate robbers apprehended at Glasgow.
A volcano discovered in the moon.

1785 Melancholy fate of two aëronauts.
A singular calamity at Barbadoes, by the sinking of the surface in different places.
A new comet discovered.
The queen of France is delivered of a son.
A remarkable accident happens at the court of king's bench.
A dreadful inundation happens at Vienna in Germany.

1786 The Halsewell East Indiaman struck on the rocks of Purbeck, and about 100 of the crew perished, Jan. 6th.
Joiner's works performed by a blind man in such a masterly manner as to astonish the ablest judges, at Hermanstadt in Transilvania.
The king of Prussia makes a handsome provision during life for the widow and children of Colonel Vantroscke, a deserving officer. April.
The west tower of Hereford church, 125 feet high, built in the 12th century, fell down on the evening of 17th April, but none of the people then in the church-yard received any injury.
M. Blanchard ascends in a balloon 96 miles in as many minutes. Writes a letter in the air, dated April 18th, to the editors of the Paris Journal.

1786 To the number of 6398 boys and girls clothed, educated, and supported by voluntary contributions, assemble under the dome of St Paul's cathedral.

A small prayer-book composed by Queen Elizabeth, and in her own hand-writing, sold in London for 100 guineas, June 7th.

The prince of Wales orders his whole stud to be disposed of by auction, to enable him to liquidate his debts.

1787 The king of Prussia establishes a court of honour for the purpose of suppressing duelling.

A meeting of notables convened by the king of France for reforming abuses relating to the subject of finance, January 10th.

Two ships sailed from Gravesend with black people on board, for a new settlement at Sierra Leone, January 9th.

The king of Poland has an interview with her imperial majesty at Kiow, March 7th.

Nine ships sailed for Botany Bay from Spithead with convicts, 21st.

A motion in parliament for repealing the test and corporation acts, 28th.

M. de Calonne is dismissed from office, April 10th.

Mr Hastings impeached at the bar of the house of lords, May 10th.

——— petitions to be admitted to bail, 22d.

The sum of 161,000l. voted for the liquidation of the prince of Wales's debts, 24th.

The Hartwell East Indiaman lost off the island of Bona Vista, 24th.

Two satellites belonging to Georgium Sidus discovered by Dr Herschel, June 7th.

The Russian ambassador at Constantinople imprisoned, August 16th.

The Prussian troops under the duke of Brunswick take possession of Utrecht, Sept. 17th.

Twenty-three sail of the line put into commission, and seventeen new admirals appointed, Sept. 24th.

The Prussians gain possession of Amsterdam, October 11th.

A most remarkable aurora borealis appears, 13th.

Lord George Gordon apprehended and committed to Newgate, December 7th.

1788 Died at Brvngwyn in Radnorshire six persons during the month of January, whose united ages made up 644 years.

A new copper coinage of halfpence begins to circulate in Britain, July 19th.

William Brodie and George Smith tried for breaking into the general excise office for Scotland, and sentenced to be executed, September 1st.

A dreadful hurricane at Martinico laid many parishes waste, and deprived multitudes of their existence, August 14th.

The king of France abolished the torture, and ordained that every accused person shall have counsel immediately assigned him, October 18th. He ordered also, that a majority of one may acquit the accused, while three are required to condemn.

An iron barge built by John Wilkison, Esq. at Wilby wharf Shrewsbury, was launched, drawing only eight inches water, and moving very easily on that element, November 7th.

His Britannic majesty is seized with a severe indisposition, October 17th.

A new comet in the constellation of Ursa Major, discovered by M. Messier astronomer at Paris, November 26th.

1789 Coins bearing date 1057 were found beneath the foundation of the old market-house at Farnham.

Another satellite discovered by Dr Herschel belonging to Saturn.

Earthquake at Comrie, November 3d.

Foundation stone of that magnificent structure, the university of Edinburgh, laid by the Right Honourable Francis Lord Napier, grand master-mason of Scotland, November 16th.

Phipps (father and son) hanged for forgery, September 5th.

Revolution of France is begun and gradually advanced.

General Washington makes a splendid entrance into the city of Philadelphia, where a sumptuous entertainment is provided for him by the joyful citizens, April 22d.

An excellent and cheap dye invented in Germany.

Dr Withers sentenced to 12 months imprisonment, to pay a fine of 50l. and to find security for five years, himself in 500l. and two others in 250l. each, for defaming the character of Mrs Fitzherbert, November 21st.

The sum of 261l. 3s. voted to Brook Watson, Esq. to defray the expences of a new invented method of cultivating hemp, December 14th.

1790 Exile of the duke de Orleans.

Bed of justice instituted in France.

Calamitous state of affairs in that country.

The archbishop of Toulouse dismissed from office.

A convention signed at the Escurial between his Britannic majesty and the king of Spain, October 28th.

A memorial of the court of Spain delivered to Mr Fitzherbert, June 13th.

M. Montmorin's letter to the national assembly of France.

Louis XVI. delivers a speech to the national assembly.

A blackbird's nest with four eggs found December 25th, near Nuneham in Oxfordshire.

1791 Serious riots at Paris.

The Tiers Etat constitute themselves a national assembly.

Paris is surrounded by the military at the desire of the king.

Prisons set open by the mob, and a great famine in Paris, whether real or artificial is involved in obscurity.

M. Necker is dismissed from office, and the Bastile demolished.

M. La Fayette appointed commander in chief of the national guard.

M. Necker is recalled with every demonstration of joy.

After Christ.

1791 A moſt horrid inſurrection takes place on the 5th of October.
The royal family comes from Verſailles to Paris.
The abolition of orders decreed by the aſſembly.
The iſland of Corſica united to France.
The unpopular and oppreſſive tax on ſalt abolished.
M. Necker again reſigns, about which time a riot breaks out at Paris, and a ſerious mutiny in the harbour of Breſt.
Foreign powers combine againſt France.
The king of France flies, is apprehended, and returns.
The city of Paris put under martial law.
The Netherlands revolt from Germany.
Peace is concluded between Auſtria and Pruſſia, and between Pruſſia and Sweden.
The grand vizier is diſgraced, and dies.
A peace concluded between Ruſſia and Conſtantinople.
A convention is entered into with Spain relative to Nootka Sound.
War carried on in India with Tippoo Saib.
The Britiſh parliament is diſſolved, and the new parliament is ſoon after opened by a ſpeech from the throne.
A bill is preſented in the Britiſh parliament for the relief of Proteſtant Catholics.
The French conſtitution ſettled by the aſſembly, and preſented to the king, September 3d.
Accepted of by the king, 13th.
1792 Waſhington's ſpeech to both houſes of congreſs, October 25th.
A treaty between Britain and Pruſſia relative to the marriage of the duke of York with Frederica Charlotte.
Guſtavus III. of Sweden is aſſaſſinated by Ankarſtrom.
General Dillon is inhumanly murdered by his own ſoldiers.
M. Rochambeau reſigns the command of the French army in the north, and is ſucceeded by M. Luckner.
Horrible outrages are committed in Paris on the 20th June.
The French arms are victorious in the Netherlands.
A petition is preſented to the aſſembly, praying for the depoſition of Louis XVI.
The palace is abandoned by the royal family of France, and attacked by the federates, at which time the Swiſs guards are maſſacred.
Louis is depoſed, and he and his family impriſoned.
War proclaimed by the aſſembly of France againſt the king of Hungary and Bohemia, April 20th.
The king of the French writes a confidential letter to the king of Great Britain.
A manifeſto againſt the French revolution by the emperor of Germany and the king of Pruſſia.
The French national aſſembly proceeds to the trial of the king. He is condemned and executed, Jan. 21. after which M. Chauvelin is diſmiſſed from London.
Dumourier arreſts the commiſſioners ſent to bring him to the bar of the convention, and ſends them as priſoners to the Auſtrians. He finally abandons the cauſe of France as hopeleſs and deſperate. He is ſucceeded by General Dampier.
The Briſſotine party is denounced by the people of Paris.
Marat is committed to the Abbey, but ſoon releaſed, and aſſaſſinated at laſt by a female from Normandy.
An expedition is undertaken againſt Dunkirk, which is rendered abortive.
General Cuſtine, the queen, the deputies of the Gironde, Manuel, Houchard, Bailly, Barnave, Rabaut, the duke of Orleans and Madame Roland, are condemned and executed.
Earl Moira makes an unſucceſsful deſcent on the coaſt of France.
Toulon ſurrenders to the Britiſh, but is retaken by the French.
1794 Earl Stanhope moves that the French republic be acknowledged by Britain.
Mr Adam propoſes to amend the criminal law of Scotland, which gives riſe to intereſting debates.
The firſt reading of a bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus act is proteſted againſt, May 22.
Proteſt againſt the vote of thanks to Lord Hood, June 17.
The king of Pruſſia withdraws from the coalition.
A bill is brought into parliament for the abolition of the ſlave-trade, and rejected by the lords.
General Fitzpatrick moves for an inquiry into the reaſons of M. la Fayette's impriſonment.
A motion for peace with France is made by the duke of Bedford and Mr Fox.
Thanks are voted by both houſes to Lord Howe, Sir Charles Grey, and Sir John Jervis.
That valuable inſtrument the *telegraph* is invented by the French.
The bold eloquence of Billaud Varennes, and Tallien, opens the eyes of France reſpecting the ambitious views of that ſanguinary monſter Maximilian Robeſpierre, who is condemned and executed (28th June), with about 20 of his diabolical coadjutors.
General Clairfait is defeated, and Louvain and Namur are taken by the French.
A treaty is entered into between Sweden and Denmark, and neutral powers oblige Britain to indemnify them for their loſſes.
1795 La Pique of 38 guns captured by Vice-admiral Caldwell, Jan. 4.
Admiral Hothman captures two French ſhips, Ca-ira of 80, and the Cenſeur of 74 guns, March 16.
Warren Haſtings acquitted of the ſerious charges preferred againſt him, by a majority of the houſe of peers, April 25.
The Boyne of 98 guns is blown up at Spithead, but

but not so much damage done to adjacent vessels as there was reason to dread, all her guns being loaded, May 4.

Captain Anthony James Pye Molloy dismissed from the command of the Cæsar of 74 guns, for neglect of duty.

Some ships of war belonging to the French taken by the fleet under the command of Admiral Bridport, 23d June.

Leopold brother to the emperor of Germany died August 10.

La Minerve of 42 guns captured by Captain Towry, June 24.

The beautiful church of St Paul's, Covent-garden, totally consumed by fire, Sept. 19.

A shock of an earthquake felt through most of the town of Birmingham, Nov. 23.

1796 A stone was thrown at his Britannic majesty's carriage on his way from Pall-mall to Buckingham-house, which broke a window and greatly alarmed Lady Harrington, Feb. 1. A reward of 1000l. was offered for the apprehension of the criminal, but without effect.

Admiral Cornwallis is tried on board the Orion, for acting contrary to orders received from the admiralty, and acquitted, April 17.

Sir Sidney Smith taken by the French at Havre, April.

L'Unité, a French frigate of 38 guns, taken by Captain Cole, and La Virginie of 44 by Sir Edward Pellew, April 13. and 20.

Crossfield, for attempting to assassinate his majesty, was tried and acquitted, May 20.

Two houses fell down in Clare-market, in the ruins of which 17 persons were unfortunately buried, June 27.

The Amphion frigate of 32 guns blown up at Plymouth, when about 260 lives were lost, Sept. 22.

The empress Catharine II. of Russia died at her palace of an apoplectic fit, Nov. 17.

1797 Part of a French fleet came to anchor in Bantry bay, having on board an army of 25,000 men, under the command of General Hoche; but afterwards weighed and stood out to sea, January 2.

The steeple of a church near Norwich fell down while the bell was ringing for public worship, Jan. 8.

The city of Savannah nearly consumed to ashes by fire.

Sir John Jervis, with a fleet of 15 sail, engages a Spanish fleet of 27 sail of the line, which he defeats, taking the Salvador del Mundo and San Josef of 112 guns each, the San Nicolas of 80 and San Ysidro of 74 guns, February 14.

The island of Trinidad surrenders to the British forces under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie.

Alarming symptoms of a mutiny appear among the seamen of the British fleet, May 7.

The nuptial ceremonies are solemnized between the prince of Wirtemberg Stutgard and Charlotte Augusta Matilda, eldest daughter of his Britannic majesty George III. May 18.

Lord Malmsbury appointed minister plenipotentiary from the court of Britain to France for negotiating a treaty of peace, July 1.

About 30 French war vessels of different dimensions taken or destroyed by the squadron under Sir J. B. Warren, between 17th July and 6th of September.

A desperate engagement off Camperdown between Admirals Duncan and De Winter, when the latter is totally defeated by the former, with the loss of 11 ships.

1798 A powder-mill belonging to Mr Harvey is blown up, which demolishes several adjacent buildings, and kills three of the workmen, April 25.

L'Hercule a French ship of 74 guns, captured by the Mars, April 21.

Rebels in the Curragh of Kildare, Ireland, lay down their arms, May 29.

Wexford rebels defeated with great loss and slaughter, June 10.

Proposals of the Irish rebels rejected by General Lake, June 22.

The Princess Amelia East Indiaman accidentally burnt on the coast of Malabar, and 40 of her crew perished, April 5.

An engagement at Castlebar between General Lake and a party of French landed in Ireland, August 27.

A dreadful engagement between the British fleet under the command of Sir Horatio Nelson, and the French fleet commanded by Admiral Bruys, off the mouth of the Nile, when nine sail of the line belonging to the French were taken, three burnt, one sunk, and four escaped, Aug. 1.

The yellow-fever, which carried off 3000 people in New-York, in a few months, happily ceased to rage, Nov. 15.

1799 A dreadful shock of an earthquake was felt at Guernsey on the night of the 6th.

A desperate battle fought between the Archduke Charles and General Jourdan at Stockash, March 25.

Three frigates captured by the Centaur, J. Wood commander, June 19.

Mantua surrenders to the Austrians, June 30.

The British forces destined to invade Holland begin to disembark, 27th August.

Seven ships of war, and 13 Indiamen and transports, taken in the Nieuve Diep by Admiral Mitchell, August 27.

Seringapatam surrenders to the British forces, when Tippoo Sultan is slain, 4th May.

British and Russian forces obliged to evacuate Holland, November.

1800 A convention between the ambassadors of the Ottoman Porte and General Desaix, signed at El Arisch, 24th January, by which the French troops were permitted to return to their own country.

After Christ.

His Britannic majesty shot at in the theatre, May 16th, by a maniac of the name of Hadfield.

The Queen Charlotte of 100 guns is burnt off Leghorn, and the gallant crew perish, 17th March.

The French ship of war Guillaume Tell of 86 guns and 1000 men surrenders to the Lion, Penelope, and Foudroyant, March 30.

Unsuccessful expedition against Ferrol, August.

His Britannic majesty's ship Marlborough of 74 guns, was completely wrecked off Belleisle, 4th November.

1801 An embargo laid on all Russian, Danish, and Swedish vessels in the ports of Great Britain, 14th January.

The united parliament of Great Britain and Ireland met for the first time, January 22.

The Invincible of 74 guns ran aground on the coast of Norfolk, and was totally lost, when about 400 souls perished, March.

A dreadful engagement off Copenhagen, between the Danish line and the British fleet under Admiral Parker; in which 943 of the British were killed and wounded, April 2.

Aboukir surrenders to the British under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who received a mortal wound on the 21st March, of which that great officer died on the 28th.

In an engagement between a French and British squadron in the bay of Algeziras, the Hannibal unfortunately fell into the hands of the enemy by taking the ground. The British squadron rendered useless two of 84, one of 74 guns, and a large frigate, July 5.

A cessation of arms by sea and land between Britain and the French republic, resulting from the signing of preliminaries of peace by Lord Hawkesbury, and M. Otto, October 1.

Alexandria surrenders to General Hutchinson on the 2d September.

The Swiftsure captured by Admiral Gantheaume, who treated the crew with the utmost humanity and tenderness.

1802 Mr Moore arrived with the definitive treaty of peace signed at Amiens on the 27th March, at four in the afternoon.

A dreadful fire broke out (May 13.) in the town of Bedford, which destroyed 72 houses, and deprived about 700 persons of their all.

A decision obliging booksellers to publish no books without the name of the printer at the beginning and end of them, was ratified, 20th October.

1803 A serious rebellion suppressed in China, occasioned by the efforts of Ong Fong, a daring chief, at the head of 50,000 men.

1804 Active measures taken in Dublin to secure the country against invasion.

Duke D'Enghien and other emigrants seized, sent to France, and executed, March 15.

Mr Addington's administration dissolved, and a new ministry appointed, with Mr Pitt at its head.

Coronation of Bonaparte as emperor of France.

1805 Impeachment of Lord Melville, June 26.

Bonaparte crowned king of Italy.

Capitulation of General Mack, Oct. 20.

Austrians and Russians defeated at Austerlitz, December 2.

The combined French and Spanish fleets defeated by the British fleet under Lord Nelson at Trafalgar, Oct. 21.

1806 Death of Mr Pitt, January 23.

Acquittal of Lord Melville, June 12.

The Prussians defeated by the French at Jena, October 14.

The Cape of Good Hope taken from the Dutch by the British, January 9.

Buenos Ayres taken by Sir Home Popham, 27th June.

Death of Mr Fox, September 7.

1807 Dissolution of the Whig ministry, duke of Portland appointed first lord of the treasury, 25th March.

Battle of Eylau between the Russians and the French, February 7.

Siege of Copenhagen and surrender of the Danish fleet, September 5.

Portuguese court sail for the Brazils, and the French occupy Portugal, November 29.

Local militia established in Britain, April.

1808 Ferdinand signs a forced renunciation of the Spanish crown at Bayonne, May 5.

1809 French defeated at Vimiera, August 21.

Colonel Wardle brings charges of mismanaging the army against the duke of York, January 27.

French defeated at Talavera, July 27.

Austria declares war against France, April 6.

Battle of Aspern between the Austrians and French, May 21.

Austrians defeated at Wagram, July 6.

Peace signed between France and Austria, October 15.

King of Sweden deposed, March 13.

The Walcheren expedition sails, July 28.

Mr Maddison succeeds Mr Jefferson as president of the United States, March.

Duel between Lord Castlereagh and Mr Canning, September 22.

Marriage of Bonaparte with the archduchess Maria Louisa, March 11.

In the course of this year revolutionary movements began in the Caraccas, and in the other Spanish American colonies.

George the Third affected by a mental disease, November 1.

1811 French defeated by the British at Barrosa, March 5.

Batavia taken by the British, August 26.

1812 United States declare war against Britain, June 12.

French defeated at Salamanca, July 22.

Russians defeated by the French at Smolensk, August 16.

Russians defeated again at Moskwa, Sept. 7.

Napoleon quitted Moscow, October 19.

1813 French defeated at Vittoria, June 20.

——— defeated at Leipsic, October 16.

After Christ.

1814 The allied sovereigns enter Paris, March 31.
General peace concluded, 30th May.
Peace concluded between the United States and Great Britain, 24th December.
1815 Bonaparte lands in France from Elba, March 1.
The French defeated by the British and Prussians at Waterloo, June 18.
1816 The fortifications of Algiers destroyed by a British squadron under the command of Lord Exmouth, August 28.
1817 Death of the Princess Charlotte of Wales, November 6.
1818 Evacuation of France by the foreign troops, November 4.
Death of her majesty Queen Charlotte, Nov. 7.
1820 Death of George the Third, January 29.
A revolution effected in the Spanish government by the army, March 27.
A revolution effected in Naples, July 10.
A revolution effected in Portugal, October 1.

After Christ.

Chronometer.

CHRONOMETER, in general, denotes any instrument or machine used in measuring time; such are dials, clocks, watches, &c. See DIAL, &c.

The term *chronometer*, however, is generally used in a more limited sense, for a kind of clock so contrived as to measure a small portion of time with great exactness, even to the sixteenth part of a second. Of such a one there is a description in Desagulier's experimental philosophy, invented by the late ingenious Mr George Graham; which must be allowed to be of great use for measuring small portions of time in astronomical observations, the time of the fall of bodies, the velocity of running waters, &c. But long spaces of time cannot be measured by it with sufficient exactness, unless its pendulum be made to vibrate in a cycloid; because otherwise it is liable to err considerably, as all clocks are which have short pendulums that swing in large arches of a circle.

There have been several machines contrived for measuring time, under the name of *chronometers*, upon principles very different from those on which clocks and watches are constructed.

Plate CXXXVII. Vol. V. fig. 1. represents an air-chronometer, which is constructed in the following manner: Provide a glass tube of about an inch in diameter, and three or four feet long: the diameter of the inside of this tube must be precisely equal in every part: at the bottom must be a small hole, closely covered with a valve. In the tube place a piston, E, fig. 2. which is made to fit it exactly, and must be oiled, that it may move in the tube with the greatest freedom; in this piston there is a cock that shuts quite close; and from the top of it there goes a cord F, which passes through the handle G. The cock of the piston being closed, it is to be let down to the bottom of the tube, and being then drawn up to the top the air will then rush in by the valve at the bottom of the tube, and support the piston. You are then to turn the cock, so as to make a very small vent; and the air passing slowly through that vent, the piston will gradually descend and show the hour, either by lines cut in the tube with a diamond, or marked with paint, or by small slips of paper painted on the glass. If this chronometer should go too fast or too slow, it may be easily regulated by altering the position of the cock in the piston, as it is on that the whole depends.

If, instead of marking the tube, you would have the time shown by a dial, it may be easily effected by placing an axis, to which the hand of the dial is fixed directly over the tube, and winding the string to which the piston is joined round that axis; for then, as the piston descends, the axis will gradually turn the hand, and show the hour; but it must be observed, that as the descent of the piston is not constantly regular, on account of the decrease of resistance from the quantity of the subjacent air as the piston descends, the axis therefore must not be a regular cylinder, but conical like the fusee of a watch, as in fig. 3. by which means the motion of the hand of the dial will be constant and regular.

Chronometer.

Fig. 4. represents a lamp-chronometer. It consists of a chamber lamp A, which is a cylindrical vessel about three inches high, and one inch diameter, placed in the stand B. The inside of this vessel must be everywhere exactly of the same diameter. To the stand B is fixed the handle C, which supports the frame DEFG, about 12 inches high, and four wide. This frame is to be covered with oiled paper, and divided into twelve equal parts by horizontal lines; at the end of which are wrote the numbers for the hours, from 1 to 12, and between the horizontal lines are diagonals that are divided into halves, quarters, &c. On the handle B, and close to the glass, is fixed the style or gnomon H. Now, as the distance of the style from the flame of the lamp is only half an inch, if the distance of the frame from the style is only six inches, then, while the float that contains the light descends by the decrease of the oil one inch, the shadow of the style on the frame will ascend 12 inches, that is, its whole length, and show by its progression, the regular increase of the hours, with their several divisions. It is absolutely necessary, however, that the oil used in this lamp be always of the same sort and quite pure, and that the wick also be constantly of the same size and substance, as it is on these circumstances, and the uniform figure of the vessel, that the regular progress of the shadow depends.

CHRONOMETER, among musicians, an instrument invented by, *Loulie*, a French musician, for the purpose of measuring time by means of a pendulum. The form of the instrument, as described by him, is that of an Ionic pilaster, and is thus described by Malcolm in his Treatise of Music, p. 407.—"The chronometer consists of a large ruler or board, six feet or 72 inches long, to be set on end; it is divided into its inches, and the numbers set so as to count upwards; and at every division there is a small round hole, through whose centre the line of division runs. At the top of this ruler, about an inch above the division 72, and perpendicular to the ruler, is inserted a small piece of

wood, in the upper side of which there is a groove, hollowed along from the end that stands out to that which is fixed in the ruler, and near each end of it a hole is made: through these holes a pendulum cord is drawn, which runs in the groove: at that end of the cord which comes through the hole farthest from the ruler, the ball is hung: and at the other end there is a small wooden pin, which can be put in any of the holes of the ruler: when the pin is in the uppermost hole at 72, then the pendulum from the top to the centre of the ball must be exactly 72 inches; and therefore, whatever hole of the ruler it is put in, the pendulum will be just so many inches as that figure at the hole denotes. The manner of using the machine is this: The composer lengthens or shortens his pendulum, till one vibration be equal to the designed length of his bar, and then the pin stands at a certain division, which marks the length of the pendulum; and this number being set with the cliff at the beginning of the song, is a direction for others how to use the chronometer in measuring the time according to the composer's design: for with the number is set the note, crotchet, or minim, whose value he would have the vibration to be; which in brisk duple time is best, a minim or half bar; or even a whole bar, when that is but a minim; and in slow time a crotchet. In triple time, it would do well to be the third part, or half, or fourth part of a bar; and in the simple triples that are allegro, let it be a whole bar. And if, in every time that is allegro, the vibration is applied to a whole or half bar, practice will teach us to subdivide it justly and equally. Observe, that, to make this machine of universal use, some canonical measure of the divisions must be agreed upon, that the figure may give a certain direction for the length of the pendulum.

CHROSTASIMA, in *Natural History*, a genus of pellucid gems, comprehending all those which appear of one simple and permanent colour in all lights; such are the diamond, carbuncle, ruby, garnet, amethyst, sapphire, beryl, emerald, and the topaz. See DIAMOND, CARBUNCLE, &c.

CHRYSA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Mysia, on the sinus Adramyttenus; extinct in Pliny's time: it had a temple of Apollo Smintheus, (Homer, Strabo). The country of the fair Chryseis, who gave first rise to the quarrel between Agamemnon and Achilles.

CHRYSALIS, or AURELIA, in *Natural History*, a state of rest and seeming insensibility, which butterflies, moths, and several others kinds of insects, must pass through, before they arrive at their winged or most perfect state.

In this state, no creatures afford so beautiful a variety as the butterfly kinds, and they all pass through this middle state without one exception. The figure of the aurelia or chrysalis generally approaches to that of a cone; or at least the hinder part of it is in this shape; and the creature, while in this state, seems to have neither legs nor wings, nor to have any power of walking. It seems indeed to have hardly so much as life. It takes no nourishment in this state, nor has it any organs for taking any; and indeed its posterior part is all that seems animated, this having a power of giving itself some motions. The external covering of the chrysalis is cartilaginous, and considerably large, and is usually smooth and glossy: but some few of them have a few hairs; some are also as hairy as the caterpillars from which they are produced; and others are rough, and, as it were, shagreened all over.

In all these there may be distinguished two sides; the one of which is the back, the other the belly, of the animal. On the anterior part of the latter, there may always be distinguished certain little elevations running in ridges, and resembling the fillets wound about mummies: the part whence these have their origin, is esteemed the head of the animal. The other side, or back, is smooth, and of a rounded figure in most of the chrysalises; but some have ridges on the anterior part, and sides of this part; and these usually terminate in a point, and make an angular appearance on the chrysalis.

From this difference is drawn the first general distinction of these bodies. They are by this divided into two classes; the round and the angular kinds. The first are, by the French naturalists, called *feves*; from the common custom of calling the chrysalis of the silkworm, which is round, by this name.

There is something more regular in this distinction than might at first be conceived; for the division is continued from the fly-state: the rounded chrysalises being almost all produced by the *phalenæ* or moths; and the angular ones by the *papilios*, or day-flies. There are several subordinate distinctions of these kinds; but, in general, they are less different from one another than the caterpillars from whence they are produced.

The head of those of the first class usually terminates itself by two angular parts, which stand separate one from the other, and resemble a pair of horns. On the back, eminences and marks are discovered, which imagination may form into eyes, nose, chin, and other parts of the human face.

There is a great variety and a great deal of beauty in the figures and arrangement of the eminences and spots on the other parts of the body of the chrysalises of different kinds. It is a general observation that those chrysalises which are terminated by a single horn, afford day-butterflies of the kind of those which have buttoned antennæ, and whose wings, in a state of rest, cover the under part of their body, and which use all their six legs in walking, those of many other kinds using only four of them. Those chrysalises which are terminated by two angular bodies, and which are covered with a great number of spines, and have the figure of a human face on their back in the greatest perfection, afford butterflies of the day kind; and of that class the characters of which are, their walking on four legs, and using the other two, that is, the anterior part, in the manner of arms or hands. The chrysalises which have two angular bodies on their heads, but shorter than those of the preceding, and whose back shows but a faint sketch of the human face, and which have fewer spines, and those less sharp, always turn to that sort of butterfly, the upper wings of which are divided into segments, one of which is so long as to represent a tail, and whose under wings are folded over the upper part of the back. A careful observation will establish many more rules of this kind, which are not so perfect as to be free from all exceptions; yet are of great use, as they teach us in general

Chryſalis. ral what ſort of fly we are to expect from the chryſalis, of which we know not the caterpillar, and therefore can only judge from appearances.

Theſe are the principal differences of the angular chryſaliſes; the round ones alſo have their different marks not leſs regular than thoſe.

The greater number of the round chryſaliſes have the hinder part of their body of the figure of a cone; but the upper end, which ought to be its circular plane baſe, is uſually bent and rounded into a ſort of knee: this is uſually called the head of the chryſalis; but there are alſo ſome of this kind, the head of which is terminated by a nearly plane ſurface: ſome of the creeping ten-legged caterpillars give chryſaliſes of this kind, which have each of them two eminences that ſeem to bring them towards the angular kind.

Among the angular chryſaliſes there are ſome whoſe colours ſeem as worthy our obſervation as the ſhapes of the others. Many of them appear ſuperbly clothed in gold. Theſe elegant ſpecies have obtained the name of *chryſalis* and *aurelia*, which are derived from Greek and Latin words, ſignifying gold; and from theſe all other bodies of the ſame kind have been called by the ſame names, though leſs, or not at all, entitled to them. As ſome kinds are thus gilded all over, ſo others are ornamented with this gay appearance in a more ſparing manner, having only a few ſpots of it in different places on their back and belly. Theſe obvious marks, however, are not to be depended upon as certain characters of diſtinction; for accidents in the formation of the chryſalis may alter them; and thoſe which naturally would have been gilded all over, may be ſometimes only ſo in part; and either theſe or the others may, by accident, be ſo formed, as to ſhow nothing of this kind at all, but be only of a duſky brown. Thoſe, however, which have neither ſilver nor gold to recommend them to your eyes, do not want other colours, and thoſe beautifully variegated. Some of them are all over of an elegant green, as in the chryſalis of the fennel caterpillar; others of an elegant yellow; and ſome of a bright greeniſh tinge, variegated with ſpots of a ſhining black; we have a very beautiful inſtance of this laſt kind in the chryſalis of the elegant cabbage-caterpillar. The general colour of the chryſalis of the common butterflies, however, is brown.

Some are alſo of a fine deep black; and of theſe many are ſo ſmooth and gloſſy, that they are equal to the fineſt Indian japan. The common caterpillar of the fig-tree gives an inſtance of one of theſe moſt beautiful gloſſy ones; the caterpillar of the vine affords another of theſe fine black chryſaliſes.

The rounded chryſaliſes do not afford any thing of that variety of colouring ſo remarkably beautiful in the angular ones; they are uſually of a duſky yellow, in different ſhades, and are often variouſly ſpotted with black; but theſe, as well as all other chryſaliſes before they arrive at their fixed colour, paſs through ſeveral other temporary ones; ſome being of a different colour when firſt produced from the caterpillar, from what they are a few days afterwards; and ſome varying ſo greatly, though only in degree, as not to be diſtinguiſhable, even by the moſt converſant eye, from what they were when firſt produced. The green rough caterpillar of the cabbage has a chryſalis which is green at firſt; and from that gradually goes through all the ſhades of green to a faint yellow, which is its laſting colour; and one of the oak caterpillars yields a chryſalis beautifully ſpotted with red at its firſt appearance; but theſe ſpots change to brown for their fixed colour: the third day from their formation uſually fixes their laſting colours; and if they are obſerved to turn black in any part after this time, it is a ſign that they are dead or dying. Chryſalis.

The ſeveral ſpecies of inſects, as a fly, ſpider, and an ant, do not differ more evidently from one another in regard to appearance, than do a caterpillar, its chryſalis, and a butterfly produced from it; yet it is certain, that theſe are all the product of the ſame individual egg; and nothing is more certain, than that the creature which was for a while a caterpillar, is after a certain time, a chryſalis, and then a butterfly. Theſe great changes produced in ſo ſudden a manner, ſeem like the *metamorphoſes* recorded in the fables of the ancients; and indeed it is not improbable that thoſe fables firſt took their origin from ſuch changes.

The parts being diſtinguiſhable in the chryſalis, we eaſily find the difference of the ſpecies of the fly that is to proceed from it. The naked eye ſhows whether it be one of thoſe that have, or of thoſe that have not, a trunk; and the aſſiſtance of a microſcope ſhows the antennæ ſo diſtinctly, that we are able to diſcern whether it belongs to the day or night claſs; and often to what genus, if not the very ſpecies: nay, in the plumoſe horned kinds, we may ſee, by the antennæ, whether a male or female phalæna is to be produced from the chryſalis; the horns of the female being in this ſtate evidently narrower, and appearing leſs elevated above the common ſurface of the body, than thoſe of the male.

All theſe parts of the chryſalis, however, though ſeen very diſtinctly, are laid cloſe to one another, and ſeem to form only one maſs; each of them is covered with its own peculiar membrane in this ſtate, and all are ſurrounded together by a common one; and it is only through theſe that we ſee them; or rather we ſee on theſe the figures of all the parts moulded within, and therefore it requires attention to diſtinguiſh them. The chryſalis is ſoft when firſt produced, and is wetted on the front with a viſcous liquor; its ſkin, though very tender at firſt, dries and hardens by degrees; but this viſcous liquor, which ſurrounds the wings, legs, &c. hardens almoſt immediately; and in conſequence faſtens all thoſe limbs, &c. into a maſs, which were before looſe from one another: this liquor, as it hardens, loſes its tranſparence, and becomes brown; ſo that it is only while it is yet moiſt that theſe parts are to be ſeen diſtinct.

It is evident, from the whole, that the chryſalis is no other than a butterfly, the parts of which are hid under certain membranes which faſten them together; and when the limbs are arrived at their due ſtrength, they become able to break through theſe membranes, and then expand and arrange themſelves in their proper order.

The firſt metamorphoſis, therefore, differs nothing from the ſecond, except that the butterfly comes from the

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the body of the caterpillar in a weak state, with limbs unable to perform their offices, whereas it comes from the chrysalis perfect.

Hist. of Insects, vol. i. p. 2.—28.

M. Reaumur has given us many curious observations on the structure and uses of the several coverings that attend the varieties of the caterpillar kind in this state.

The creatures in general remain wholly immoveable in this state, and seem to have no business in it but a patient attendance on the time when they are to become butterflies; and this is a change that can happen to them, only as their parts, before extremely soft and weak, are capable of hardening and becoming firm by degrees, by the transpiration of that abundant humidity which before kept them soft: and this is proved by an experiment of M. Reaumur, who, inclosing some chrysalises in a glass tube, found, after some time, a small quantity of water at the bottom of it; which could have come there no other way, but from the body of the inclosed animal. This transpiration depends greatly on the temperature of the air; it is increased by heat, and diminished by cold; but it has also its peculiarities in regard to the several species of butterfly to which the chrysalis belongs.

According to these observations, the time of the duration of the animal in the chrysalis state must be, in different species, very different; and there is indeed this wide difference in the extremes, that some species remain only eight days in this state, and others eight months.

We know that the caterpillar changes its skin four or five times during its living in that state; and that all these skins are at first produced with it from the egg, lying closely over one another. It parts with, or throws off, all these one by one, as the butterfly, which is the real animal, all this time within, grows more and more perfect in the several first changes. When it throws off one, it appears in another skin exactly of the same form; but at its final change from this appearance, that is, when it throws off the last skin, as the creature within is now arrived at such a degree of perfection as to need no farther taking of nourishment, there is no farther need of teeth, or any of the other parts of a caterpillar. The creature, in this last change, proceeds in the very same manner as in all the former, the skin opening at the back, and the animal making its way out in this shape. If a caterpillar, when about to throw off this last skin, be thrown into spirits of wine, and left there for a few days, the membranes within will harden, and the creature may be afterwards carefully opened, and the chrysalis taken out, in which the form of the tender butterfly may be traced in all its lineaments, and its eyes, legs, &c. evidently seen. It is not necessary, however, to seize upon this exact time for proving the existence of the chrysalis or butterfly in the caterpillar: for if one of these animals be thrown into spirit of wine, or into vinegar, some days before that time, and left there for the flesh to harden, it may afterwards be dissected, and all the lineaments of the butterfly traced out in it; the wings, legs, antennæ, &c. being as evident here, and as large, as in the chrysalis.

It is very plain from this, that the change of the caterpillar into chrysalis is not the work of a moment; but is carrying on for a long time before, even from the very hatching of the creature from the egg. The parts of the butterfly, however, are not disposed exactly in the same manner while in the body of the caterpillar, as when left naked in the form of the chrysalis: for the wings are proportionally longer and narrower, being wound up into the form of a cord; and the antennæ are rolled up on the head; the trunk is also twisted up and laid upon the head; but this in a very different manner from what it is in the perfect animal, and very different from that in which it lies within the chrysalis; so that the first formation of the butterfly in the caterpillar, by time arrives at a proper change of the disposition of its parts, in order to its being a chrysalis. The very eggs, hereafter to be deposited by the butterfly, are also to be found, not only in the chrysalis, but in the caterpillar itself, arranged in their natural, regular order. They are indeed in this state very small and transparent; but after the change into the chrysalis, they have their proper colour.

As soon as the several parts of the butterfly, therefore, are arrived at a state proper for being exposed to the more open air, they are thrown out from the body of the caterpillar surrounded only with their membranes; and as soon as they are arrived after this at a proper degree of strength and solidity, they labour to break through these thinner coverings, and to appear in their proper and natural form. The time of their duration in this state of chrysalis is very uncertain, some remaining in it only a few days, others several months, and some almost a year in appearance. But there is a fallacy in this that many are not aware of. It is natural to think, that as soon as the creature has inclosed itself in its shell, be that of what matter it will, it undergoes its change into the chrysalis state. And this is the case with the generality: yet there are some which are eight or nine months in the shell before they become chrysalises, so that their duration in the real chrysalis state is much shorter than it naturally appears to be. M. Reaumur carefully watched the auriculated caterpillar of the oak in its several changes, and particularly from its chrysalis, which is of this last kind, into the fly; and has given an account of the method of this, as an instance of the general course of nature in these operations.

The membranes which envelope the creature in this chrysalis state are at first tough and firm, and immediately touch the several parts of the inclosed animal; but by degrees, as these parts harden, they become covered, some with hairs, and others with scales. These, as they continue to grow, by degrees fall off the several particular membranes which cover the parts on which they are placed, to a greater distance, and by degrees loosen them from the limbs. This is one reason why those membranes dry and become brittle.

The middle of the upper part of the CORSELET is usually marked with a line which runs in a longitudinal direction; and this part is always more elevated than the rest, even in the conic kinds, which are no otherwise angular. This line is in some very bold and plain; in others, it is so faint as not to be distinguishable without glasses; but it is always in the midst of that line that the shell begins to open. The motion of the head

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head of the butterfly backwards firſt occaſions this crack; and a few repetitions of the ſame motion open it the whole length of the line.

The clearing itſelf, however, entirely is a work of more time in this caſe, than is the paſſing of the chryſalis out of the body of the caterpillar. In that caſe there is a crack ſufficiently large in the ſkin of the back, and the whole chryſalis being looſe comes out at once. But in this caſe, every particular limb, and part of the body, has its ſeparate caſe; and theſe are almoſt inconceiveably thin and tender, yet it is neceſſary that every part be drawn out of them before it appear naked to the open air. As ſoon as all this is effected, and the animal is at full liberty, it either continues ſome time upon the remains of its covering, or creeps a little way diſtant from it, and there reſts. The wings are what we principally admire in this creature. Theſe are at this time ſo extremely folded up, and placed in ſo narrow a compaſs, that the creature ſeems to have none at all; but they by degrees expand and unfold themſelves; and finally, in a quarter of an hour, or half an hour at the utmoſt, they appear at their full ſize, and in all their beauty. The manner of this ſudden unfolding of the wings is this: the ſmall figure they make when the creature firſt comes out of its membranes, does not prevent the obſerving that they are at that time conſiderably thick. This is owing to its being a large wing folded up in the niceſt manner, and with folds ſo arranged as to be by no means ſenſible to the eye, for the wing is never ſeen to unfold; but, when obſerved in the moſt accurate manner, ſeems to grow under the eye to this extent. When the creature is firſt produced from the ſhell, it is everywhere moiſt and tender; even its wings have no ſtrength or ſtiffneſs till they expand themſelves; but they then dry by degrees, and, with the other parts, become rigid and firm. But if any accident prevents the wings from expanding at their proper time, that is, as ſoon as the creature is out of its ſhell, they never afterwards are able to extend themſelves; but the creature continues to wear them in their contracted and wholly uſeleſs ſtate; and very often, when the wings are in part extended before ſuch an accident happens, it ſtops them in a partial extenſion, and the creature muſt be contented to paſs its whole life with them in that manner.

M. Reaumur has proved, that heat and cold make great differences in the time of hatching the butterfly from its chryſalis ſtate: and this he particularly tried with great accuracy and attention, by putting them in veſſels in warm rooms, and in ice-houſes; and it ſeemed wholly owing to the haſtening or retarding the evaporation of the abundant humidity of the animal in the chryſalis ſtate, that it ſooner or later appeared in the butterfly form. He varniſhed over ſome chryſaliſes, in order to try what would be the effect of thus wholly preventing their tranſpiration; and the conſequence was, that the butterfly came forth from theſe two months later than their natural time. Thus was the duration of the animal in this ſtate lengthened; that is, its exiſtence was lengthened: but without any advantage to the creature, ſince it was in the time of its ſtate of inaction, and probably of inſenſibility.

Though this was of no conſequence, M. Reaumur deduces a hint from it that ſeems to be of ſome uſe. He obſerves, that hen's eggs, of which we make ſo many uſes, and eat in ſo many forms, are properly a ſort of chryſalis of the animal; their germ, after they are impregnated by the cock, containing the young animal alive; and waiting only a due degree of warmth to be hatched, and appear in its proper form. Eggs tranſpire notwithſtanding the hardneſs of their ſhells; and when they have been long kept, there is a road found near one of their ends, between the ſhell and the internal membrane, which is a mark of their being ſtale, and is the effect of an evaporation of part of their humidity: and the ſame varniſh which had been uſed to the chryſalis, being tried on eggs, was found to preſerve them for two years, as freſh as if laid but the ſame day, and ſuch as the niceſt palate could not diſtinguiſh from thoſe that were ſo. See EGGS.

Chryſanthemum || Chryſogonum.

It is not yet known how much farther this uſeful ſpeculation might be carried, and whether it might not be of great uſe even to human life, to invent ſomething that ſhould act in the manner of this varniſh, by being rubbed over the body, as the *athletæ* did of old, and the ſavages of the Weſt Indies do at this time, without knowing why. But to return to the inſects which are the ſubjects of this article; their third ſtate, that in which they are winged, is always very ſhort, and ſeems deſtined for no other action but the propagation of the ſpecies. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

CHRYSANTHEMUM, CORN-MARYGOLD: A genus of the polygamia ſuperflua order, belonging to the ſyngeneſia claſs of plants. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHRYSES, the prieſt of Apollo, father of Aſtynome, called from him *Chryſeis*. When Lyrneſſus was taken, and the ſpoils divided among the conquerors, Chryſeis fell to the ſhare of Agamemnon. Chryſes upon this went to the Grecian camp to ſolicit his daughter's reſtoration; and when his prayers were fruitleſs, he implored the aid of Apollo, who viſited the Greeks with a plague, and obliged them to reſtore Chryſeis.

CHRYSIPPUS, a Stoic philoſopher, born at Solos in Cilicia, was diſciple to Cleanthus, Zeno's ſucceſſor. He wrote many books, ſeveral of which related to logic. None of the philoſophers ſpoke in ſtronger terms of the fatal neceſſity of every thing, nor more pompouſly of the liberty of man, than the Stoics, Chryſippus in particular. He was ſo conſiderable among them, as to eſtabliſh it into a proverb, that if it had not been for Chryſippus, the porch had never been. Yet the Stoics complained, as Cicero relates, that he had collected ſo many arguments in favour of the ſceptical hypotheſis, that he could not anſwer them himſelf; and thus had furniſhed Carneades, their antagoniſt, with weapons againſt them. There is an apophthegm of this philoſopher preſerved, which does him honour. Being told that ſome perſons ſpoke ill of him, "It is no matter (ſaid he), I will live ſo that they ſhall not be believed."

CHRYSIS, or GOLDEN-FLY. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

CHRYSITRIX. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHRYSOBOLANUS, COCOA PLUM. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHRYSOCOMA, GOLDY-LOCKS. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHRYSOGONUM. See BOTANY *Index*.

CHRYSOLARUS,

Chrysolarus || Chrysoprasus.

CHRYSOLARUS, Emanuel, one of those learned men in the 14th century who brought the Greek literature into the west. He was a man of rank; and descended from an ancient family, said to have removed with Constantine from Rome to Byzantium. He was sent into Europe by the emperor of the east to implore the assistance of Christian princes. He afterwards taught at Florence, Venice, Pavia, and Rome; and died at Constantinople, in 1415, aged 47. He wrote a Greek grammar, and some other small pieces.

CHRYSOLITE, or Yellowish-green Topaz; a precious stone of a grass-green colour, found in the East Indies, Brazil, Bohemia, Saxony, Spain, in Auvergne and Bourbon in France, and in Derbyshire in England. Some are likewise found with volcanic lavas, as in the Vivarais, where some large lumps have been seen of 20 or 30 pounds weight; but it is remarkable, that some of these chrysolites are partly decomposed into an argillaceous substance. All chrysolites, however, are far from being of the same kind. The oriental is the same with the peridot, and differs only by its green hue from the sapphires, topazes, and rubies of the same denomination. This becomes electric by being rubbed; has a prismatic form of six, or sometimes of five, striated faces; and does not lose its colour or transparency in the fire, which the common chrysolite often does; becoming either opaque, or melting entirely in a strong heat. The instant it melts, it emits a phosphoric light like the basis of alum and gypseous spar: with borax it produces a thin colourless glass. Its specific gravity is between 3.600 and 3.700; according to Brisson it is 2.7821, or 2.6923; and that of the Spanish chrysolite 3.0989.

The substance of this precious stone is lamellated in the direction of the axis of its primitive form; but the chrysolite from Saxony is foliated in a perpendicular direction to the same axis. The chrysolite of the ancients was the same gem which is now called *topaz*, and the name, of itself, indicates that it ought to be so.—Pliny says that the colour of the chrysolite is yellow like gold.

Chrysolite-Paste, a kind of glass made in imitation of natural chrysolite, by mixing two ounces of prepared crystal with ten ounces of red lead, adding 12 grains of crocus martis made with vinegar; and then baking the whole for 24 hours, or longer, in a well luted cucurbit.

CHRYSOMELA, a genus of insects belonging to the order of coleoptera. See Entomology *Index*.

CHRYSOPHYLLUM, or Bully-tree. See Botany *Index*.

CHRYSOPLENIUM. See Botany *Index*.

CHRYSOPRASUS, or Chrysoprasius, the 10th of the precious stones mentioned in the Revelation, as forming the foundation of the heavenly Jerusalem. The chrysoprasius is by mineralogists reckoned to be a variety of the chrysolite, and by Cronstedt called the *yellowish green and cloudy topaz*. He conjectures that it may perhaps be the substance which serves as a matrix to the chrysolite; as those that he had seen were like the clear-veined quartz, called in Sweden *milk crystal*, which is the first degree of crystallization.

The chrysoprasus, according to M. Magellan, is of a green colour, deeper than the chrysolite, but with a yellowish tinge inclining to blue like the green leek. M. Achard says that it is never found crystallized, and that it is semi-transparent. By others it is reckoned among the quartz, and its colour is supposed to be owing to the mixture of cobalt, as it gives a fine blue glass when melted with borax, or with fixed alkali. M. Achard, however, found the glass of a deep yellow when the fusion was made with borax; and that it really contains some calx of copper instead of cobalt. M. Dutens says, that some gold has been found in this kind of stone; but this last belongs in all probability, says M. Magellan, to another class of substances, viz. the vitreous spars.

To the latter belongs most probably the aventurine, whose colour is generally a yellow brown red; though sometimes it inclines more to the yellow, or greenish, than to the red. These stones are not quite transparent: some indeed shine with such a brilliancy, as to render them of considerable value, but they are very rare. The common aventurine is but an artificial glass of various colours, with which powder of gold has been mixed; and these imitated aventurines so frequently excel the native ones in splendour, that the esteem of the latter is now much lowered. With regard to the chrysoprasus, its name, from πρασον, shows it to be of a greenish blue colour, like the leaves of a leek; it only differs from the chrysolite in its bluish hue.

Chrysostom.

CHRYSOSTOM, St John, a celebrated patriarch of Constantinople, and one of the most admired fathers of the Christian church, was born of a noble family at Antioch, about the year 347. He studied rhetoric under Libavius, and philosophy under Andragathus, after which he spent some time in solitude in the mountains near Antioch; but the austerities he endured having impaired his health, he returned to Antioch, where he was ordained deacon by Meletius. Flavian, Meletius's successor, raised him to the office of presbyter five years after: when he distinguished himself so greatly by his eloquence, that he obtained the surname of *Golden Mouth*. Nectarius patriarch of Constantinople dying in 397, St Chrysostom, whose fame was spread throughout the whole empire, was chosen in his room by the unanimous consent of both the clergy and the people. The emperor Arcadius confirmed this election, and caused him to leave Antioch privately, where the people were very unwilling to part with him. He was ordained bishop on the 26th of February 398; when he obtained an order from the emperor against the Eunomians and Montanists; reformed the abuses which subsisted amongst his clergy; retrenched a great part of the expences in which his predecessors had lived, in order to enable him to feed the poor and build hospitals, and preached with the utmost zeal against the pride, luxury, and avarice of the great. But his pious liberty of speech procured him many powerful enemies. He differed with Theophilus of Alexandria, who got him deposed and banished; but he was soon recalled. After this, declaiming against the dedication of a statue erected to the empress, she banished him into Cucusus in Armenia, a most barren inhospitable place; afterwards, as they were removing him from Petyus, the soldiers treated him so roughly, that he died by the way, A. D. 407. The best edition of his works is that published at Paris in 1718, by Montfaucon.

CHRYSTAL,

Chrystal || Church.

CHRYSTAL. See CRYSTAL.

CHUB, or CHUBB, in *Ichthyology*. See CYPRINUS, ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

The resorts of this fish are easily found, for they are generally holes overshadowed by trees, and this fish will be seen floating in such almost on the surface of the water in a hot day in great numbers. They are but a poor fish for the table, and are very full of bones; but they entertain the angler very much, and are of the number of those that are easily taken.

CHUBB, THOMAS a noted polemical writer, born at East Harnham, a village near Salisbury, in 1679. He was put apprentice to a glover at Salisbury, and afterwards entered into partnership with a tallow chandler. Being a man of strong natural parts, he employed all his leisure in reading; and though a stranger to the learned languages, became tolerably versed in geography, mathematics, and other branches of science. His favourite study was divinity; and he formed a little society for the purpose of debating upon religious subjects, about the time that the Trinitarian controversy was so warmly agitated between Clarke and Waterland. This subject, therefore, falling under the cognizance of Chubb's theological assembly, he at their request drew up and arranged his sentiments on it, in a kind of dissertation; which was afterwards published under the title of *The Supremacy of the Father asserted*, &c. In this piece Mr Chubb showed great talents in reasoning, and acquired so much reputation, that the late Sir Joseph Jekyll, master of the rolls, took him into his family to enjoy his conversation: but though he is said to have been tempted to remain with him by the offer of a genteel allowance, he did not continue with him many years; but chose to return to his friends at Salisbury. He published afterwards a 4to volume of tracts, which Mr Pope informs his friend Gay, he "read through with admiration of the writer, though not always with approbation of his doctrine." He died a single man in the 68th year of his age, and left behind him two vols. of posthumous tracts, in which he appears to have had little or no belief in revelation. But however licentious his way of thinking may be deemed, nothing irregular or immoral has been fairly imputed to him in his life and actions.

CHUDLEIGH, LADY MARY, was born in 1656, and married to Sir George Chudleigh, Baronet, by whom she had several children: her poems and essays have been much admired for delicacy of style. She died in 1710; and is said to have written several dramatic pieces, which, though not printed, are preserved in the family.

CHUPMESSAHITES, a sect among the Mahometans, who believe that Jesus Christ is God, and the true Messiah, the Redeemer of the world; but without rendering him any public or declared worship. The word in the Turkish language signifies *Protector of the Christians*. Recaut says that there is abundance of these Chupmessahites among the people of fashion in Turkey, and some even in the seraglio.

CHURCH, has different significations, according to the different subjects to which it is applied.

1. It is understood of the collective body of Christians, or all those over the face of the whole earth who profess to believe in Christ, and acknowledge him to be the Saviour of mankind. This is what the ancient writers call the *catholic* or *universal church*. Sometimes the word church is considered in a more extensive sense, and divided into several branches; as the church militant, is the assembly of the faithful on the earth; the church triumphant, that of the faithful already in glory; to which the Papists add the church patient; which, according to their doctrines, is that of the faithful in purgatory.

2. Church is applied to any particular congregation of Christians, who associate together and concur in the participation of all the institutions of Jesus Christ, with their proper pastors and ministers. Thus we read of the church of Antioch, the church of Alexandria, the church of Thessalonica, and the like.

3. Church denotes a particular sect of Christians distinguished by particular doctrines and ceremonies. In this sense, we speak of the Romish church, the Greek church, the Reformed church, the church of England, &c.

The Latin or Western church, comprehends all the churches of Italy, France, Spain, Africa, the north, and all other countries whither the Romans carried their language. Great Britain, part of the Netherlands of Germany, and of the North, have been separated from hence ever since the time of Henry VIII.; and constitute what we call the Reformed Church, and what the Romanists call the Western schism.

The Greek or Eastern church, comprehends the churches of all the countries anciently subject to the Greek or eastern empire, and through which their language was carried; that is, all the space extended from Greece to Mesopotamia and Persia, and thence into Egypt. This church has been divided from the Roman ever since the time of the emperor Phocas.

The Gallican church, denotes the church of France, under the government and direction of their respective bishops and pastors. This church has always enjoyed certain franchises and immunities; not as grants from popes, but as derived to her from her first original, and which she has taken care never to relinquish. These liberties depend upon two maxims; the first, that the pope has no authority or right to command or order any thing, either in general or in particular, in which the temporalties and civil rights of the kingdom are concerned; the second, that, notwithstanding the pope's supremacy is owned in cases purely spiritual, yet in France his power is limited and regular by the decrees and canons of ancient councils received in that realm.

4. The word *church* is used to signify the body of ecclesiastics, or the clergy, in contradistinction to the laity. See CLERGY.

5. Church is used for the place where a particular congregation or society of Christians assemble for the celebration of divine service. In this sense churches are variously denominated, according to their rank, degree, discipline, &c. as Metropolitan church, Patriarchal church, Cathedral church, Parochial church, Collegiate church, &c. See METROPOLIS, PATRIARCH, &c.

In ecclesiastical writers we meet with *grand church*, for the chief church of a place; particularly in the Greek liturgy, for the church of St Sophia at Constantinople, the see of the patriarch, founded by Constantine,

ſtantine, and conſecrated under Juſtinian. It was at that time ſo magnificent, that Juſtinian is ſaid to have cried out in the conſecration thereof, Ενικησα σε, Σολομον; *I have outdone thee, Solomon.* The dome, which is ſaid to have been the firſt that was built, is 330 feet diameter.

The firſt church publicly built by the Chriſtians, ſome authors maintain to be that of St Saviour at Rome founded by Conſtantine; others contend, that ſeveral churches abroad, called by the name of *St Peter Vivus*, were built in honour of that apoſtle during his lifetime.

CHURCH, with regard to architecture, Daviler defines a large oblong edifice, in form of a ſhip, with nave, choir, aiſles, chapel, belfry, &c. See each part under its proper head.

CHURCH, Simple, is that which has only a nave and a choir.

CHURCH with Aiſles, that which has a row of porticoes, in form of vaulted galleries, with chapels in its circumference.

CHURCH in a Greek croſs, that where the length of the traverſe part is equal to that of the nave; ſo called becauſe moſt of the Greek churches are built in this form.

CHURCH in a Latin croſs, that whoſe nave is longer than the croſs part, as in moſt of the Gothic churches.

CHURCH in Rotundo, that whoſe plan is a perfect circle, in imitation of the Pantheon.

For the form of the ancient Greek churches, when they had all their parts, it was as follows: firſt was a porch, or portico, called the *vaunt-nave*, προναος; this was adorned with columns on the outſide, and on the inſide ſurrounded with a wall; in the middle whereof was a door, through which they paſſed into a ſecond portico. The firſt of theſe porticoes was deſtined for the *energumeni*, and penitents in the firſt ſtage of their repentance; the ſecond was much longer, deſtined for penitents of the ſecond claſs, and the catechumens, and hence called ναρθης, *ferula*, becauſe thoſe placed in it began to be ſubject to the diſcipline of the church. Theſe two porticoes took up about one third of the ſpace of the church. From the ſecond portico they paſſed into the nave, ναος, which took up near another third of the church. In the middle, or at one ſide of the nave, was the ambo, where the deacons and prieſts read the goſpel and preached. The nave was deſtined for the reception of the people, who here aſſiſted at prayers.

Near the entrance of this was the baptiſtery or font. Beyond the nave was the choir, χορος, ſet with ſeats, and round: the firſt ſeat on the right, next the ſanctuary, being for the chantor, or *choragus*.

From the choir they aſcended by ſteps to the ſanctuary, which was entered at three doors. The ſanctuary had three upſides in its length; a great one in the middle, under which was the altar, crowned with a baldachin, ſupported by four columns. Under each of the ſmall upſides, was a kind of table or cupboard, in manner of a beaufet.

Though, of the Greek churches now remaining, few have all the parts above deſcribed, moſt of them having been reduced to ruins or converted into moſques.

HIGH Church was a denomination originally given to thoſe otherwiſe called *Nonjurors*, who refuſed to acknowledge the title of William III. to the crown of Great Britain, under a notion that James II. though excluded, was ſtill their rightful ſovereign. This appellation was given them, becauſe they entertained high notions of the dignity and power of the church, and the extent of its prerogatives and juriſdiction. And thoſe, on the contrary, were called *low-church-men*, who diſapproved of the ſucceſſion and obſtinacy of the nonjurors, diſtinguiſhing themſelves by their moderation towards diſſenters, and were leſs ardent in extending the limits of church authority. The denomination of *high-church-men* is now more generally applied to all who form pompous and ambitious conceptions of the authority and juriſdiction of the church, and who would raiſe it to an abſolute independence on all human power.

CHURCH-Ale. See *WHITSUN-Ale.*

CHURCH Reeves, the ſame with *CHURCH-Wardens.*

CHURCH-Scot, or *Churcheſſet*, a payment or contribution, by the Latin writers frequently called *primitiæ ſeminum*; being, at firſt, a certain meaſure of wheat, paid to the prieſt on St Martin's day, as the firſt fruits of harveſt. This was enjoined by the laws of King Malcolm IV. and Canute, c. 10. But after this, *Church ſcot* came to ſignify a reſerve of corn-rent paid to the ſecular prieſts, or to the religious; and ſometimes was taken in ſo general a ſenſe as to include poultry, or any other proviſion that was paid in kind to the religious. See TITHE.

CHURCH-Wardens (*eccleſiæ guardiani*), in the Engliſh eccleſiaſtical polity, are the guardians or keepers of the church, and repreſentatives of the body of the pariſh. They are ſometimes appointed by the miniſter, ſometimes by the pariſh, ſometimes by both together, as cuſtom directs. They are taken, in favour of the church, to be, for ſome purpoſes, a kind of corporation at the common law; that is, they are enabled, by that name, to have a property in goods and chattels, and to bring actions for them, for the uſe and profit of the pariſh. Yet they may not waſte the church goods, but may be removed by the pariſh, and then called to account by actions at common law: but there is no method of calling them to account but by firſt removing them; for none can legally do it but thoſe who are put in their place. As to lands, or other real property, as the church, churchyard, &c. they have no ſort of intereſt therein; but if any damage is done thereto, the parſon only or vicar ſhall have the action. Their office alſo is to repair the church, and make rates and levies for that purpoſe: but theſe are recoverable only in the eccleſiaſtical courts. They are alſo joined with the overſeers in the care and maintenance of the poor. They are to levy a ſhilling forfeiture on all ſuch as do not repair to church on Sundays and holidays; and are empowered to keep all perſons orderly while there; to which end it has been held that a church-warden may juſtify the pulling off a man's hat, without being guilty of either an aſſault or a treſpaſs. There are alſo a multitude of other petty parochial powers committed to their charge by divers acts of parliament.

CHURCHILL, SIR WINSTON, the father of the great duke of Marlborough, was deſcended from an ancient and honourable family in Dorſetſhire. He was born at Wotton Glanville in that county in 1610; and

and educated at St John's college at Oxford. He engaged in the cause of his unfortunate sovereign Cha. I. for which he suffered severely in his fortune; and having married, while young, Elizabeth, the daughter of Sir John Drake of Ashe in Devonshire, she was forced to seek a refuge in her father's house, when Mr Churchill's misfortunes left him none that he could call his own; and there most of his children were born. After the restoration, he was elected a burgess to serve in parliament for the borough of Weymouth; and, in 1669, his majesty was pleased to confer on him the honour of knighthood. The next year he was made one of the commissioners of claims in Ireland; and upon his return from thence, was constituted one of the clerks comptrollers of the green cloth: but writing a kind of political essay upon the History of England, which gave great offence to the parliament, he was, in 1678, dismissed from his post. He was, however, soon restored to it again; and lived to see his eldest surviving son raised to the peerage, and the rest of his children in a fair way to promotion. He died in 1688.

CHURCHILL, *John*, duke of Marlborough, and prince of the holy Roman empire, a most renowned general and statesman, was born at Ashe in Devonshire in 1650. He was eldest son of Sir Winston Churchill who carried him to court while very young, and where he was particularly favoured by James duke of York, afterwards King James II. when only twelve years of age. In 1666, he was made an ensign of the guards during the first Dutch war; and afterwards improved himself greatly in the military art at Tangier. In 1672, Mr Churchill attended the duke of Monmouth, who commanded a body of auxiliaries in the French service, and was soon after made a captain in the duke's own regiment. At the siege of Nimeguen, which happened in that campaign, he distinguished himself so much that he was taken notice of by the celebrated Marshal Turenne, who bestowed on him the name of the *handsome Englishman*.—In 1673, he was at the siege of Maestricht, where he gained such applause, that the king of France made him a public acknowledgement of his service; and the duke of Monmouth, who had the direction of the attack, told King Charles II. that he owed his life to Mr Churchill's bravery. In 1681, he married Sarah, daughter and co-heiress (with her sister the countess of Tyrconnel) of Richard Jennings, Esq. of Sandrich, in Hertfordshire. The duke of York recommended him in a very particular manner to the king; who, in 1682, created him baron of Evemouth in the county of Berwick, in Scotland, and made him colonel of the third troop of guards. A little after King James's accession, he was created Baron Churchill of Sandrich in the county of Hertford, and made brigadier-general of his majesty's army in the west; where, when the duke of Monmouth came to surprise the king's army while the earl of Feversham and the majority of the officers were in their beds, he kept the enemy in play, till the king's forces had formed themselves, and thereby saved the whole army. When James showed an intention of establishing the Catholic religion in Britain, Lord Churchill, notwithstanding the great obligations he owed him, thought it his duty to abandon the royal cause; but even then did not leave him without acquainting him by letter with the reason of his so doing. Lord Churchill was graciously received by the prince of Orange; and was by him employed first to re-assemble the troop of guards at London, and afterwards to reduce some lately raised regiments, and to new-model the army; for which purpose he was invested with the rank and title of lieutenant-general. In 1689, he was sworn one of the privy council, and one of the gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber; and on the 9th of April following, was raised to the dignity of earl of Marlborough in the county of Wilts. He assisted at the coronation of their majesties; and was soon after made commander in chief of the English forces sent over to Holland; and here he first laid the foundation of that fame which was afterwards spread over all Europe. In 1690, he was made general of the forces sent to Ireland; where he made the strong garrisons of Cork and Kinsale prisoners of war. The year following, King William showed the good opinion he had of his conduct, by sending him to Flanders to put all things in readiness, and to draw the army together before his arrival. In 1692, he was dismissed from all his employments; and, not long after, was with some other peers committed to the Tower on an accusation of high treason; which, however, was afterwards found to be a false and malicious report, the authors of which were punished. Marlborough was soon restored to favour, and in 1698 was appointed governor to the earl of Gloucester; with this extraordinary compliment from King William, "My lord, make him but what you are, and my nephew will be all I wish to see him." The same day he was again sworn one of the privy council; and in July following was declared one of the lords justices of England, for the administration of the government, in which great trust he was three times successively in the king's absence. In 1701 he was appointed general of the foot, commander in chief of the English forces, and ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary at the Hague. Upon the accession of Queen Anne to the throne, he was elected into the order of the Garter, declared captain-general of all her majesty's forces, and sent ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Holland. After several conferences about a war, he put himself at the head of the army, where all the other generals had orders to obey him. His exploits in the field have been taken notice of under the article BRITAIN, N° 344—370: we shall therefore only take notice in this place of the rewards and honours conferred upon him for these exploits. After his first campaign he was created marquis of Blandford and duke of Marlborough, with a pension of 5000l. out of the post office, to devolve, for ever upon those enjoying the title of duke of Marlborough. In 1703, he met Charles III. late emperor, going to Spain, who presented him with a sword set with diamonds. In 1704, having forced the enemy's lines at Schellenberg, he received a letter of thanks from the emperor Leopold, written with his own hand; an honour seldom done to any but sovereign princes. After the battle of Blenheim, he received congratulatory letters from most of the potentates in Europe, particularly from the states-general, and from the emperor, who desired him to accept of the dignity of a prince of the empire, which with the queen's leave was conferred upon him

Churchill. by the title of *Prince of Mildenheim in the province of Suabia.* After the campaign was ended, he visited the court of Prussia, where he laid such schemes as suspended the disputes with the Dutch about King William's estate; which wise conduct caused the whole confederacy to acknowledge that he had done the greatest service possible to the common cause. Upon his return to England, the queen, to perpetuate his memory, granted the interest of the crown in the honour and manor of Woodstock and hundred of Wotton to him and his heirs for ever. In 1705 he made a tour to Vienna, upon the invitation of the emperor Joseph; who highly caressed him, and made him a grant of the lordship of Mildenheim. After the campaign of 1708, the speaker of the house of commons was sent to Brussels on purpose to compliment him; and on his return to England he was again complimented in the house of lords by Lord Chancellor Cowper. All his services, however, and all the honours conferred upon him, were not sufficient to preserve him from being disgraced. After the change of the ministry in 1710, his interest daily declined; and in 1712, on the first day of the new year, he was removed from all his places. Finding all arts used to render him obnoxious in his native country, he visited his principality of Mildenheim, and several towns in Germany; after which he returned to England, and arrived there on the day of the queen's death. After being welcomed by the nobility and foreign ministers, he attended on King George I. in his public entry through London, who appointed him captain-general, colonel of the first regiment of foot-guards, one of the commissioners for the government of Chelsea hospital, and master-general of the ordnance. Some years before his death, he retired from public business. He died at Windsor-lodge in 1722, aged 73; leaving behind him a very numerous posterity, allied to the noblest and greatest families in these kingdoms. Upon his demise all parties united in doing honour, or rather justice, to his merit, and his corpse was interred the 9th of August following, with all the solemnity due to a person who had deserved so highly of his country, in Westminster-abbey. The noble pile near Woodstock, which bears the name of Blenheim-house, may be justly styled his monument: but without pretending to the gift of prophecy, one may venture to foretel, that his glory will long survive that structure; and that so long as our histories remain, or indeed the histories of Europe, his memory will live and be the boast of Britain, which by his labours was raised to be the first of nations, as during the age in which he lived he was deservedly esteemed the first of men. If he had foibles, as these are inseparable from human nature, they were so hidden by the glare of his virtues as to be scarcely perceived, or were willingly forgotten. A certain parasite, who thought to please Lord Bolingbroke by ridiculing the avarice of the duke, was stopt short by his lordship; who said, "He was so very great a man, that I forgot he had that vice."

Out of a variety of anecdotes and testimonies concerning this illustrious personage, collected in the new edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, the following selection may serve to illustrate more particularly his disposition and manners.

One of the first things which he did, when very young, was to purchase a box to put his money in; an indication this of the economical, not to say avaricious, temper that accompanied him through life. Dr Joseph Warton relates, that, on the evening of an important battle, the duke was heard to chide his servant for having been so extravagant as to light four candles in his tent when Prince Eugene came to confer with him. Mr Tyers, on the other hand, mentioned a circumstance, which, if well founded, redounds to his grace's generosity; though in a different respect it is much to his discredit: It is, that during the rebellion in 1715, he sent 10,000l. to the earl of Mar. We consider the story only as a traditional report, which has not in itself any great degree of probability; and therefore we are by no means convinced of its truth. The late Mr Richardson junior, the painter, hath recorded a pleasing instance of the duke's calmness of disposition; for which, indeed, he was always remarkable. "The duke of Marlborough (says the writer), riding out once with Commissary Marriot, near the commissary's house in the country, it began to rain, and the duke called for his cloak; Marriot having his put on by his servant immediately. The duke's servant not bringing the cloak, he called for it again; but the man was still puzzling about the straps and buckles. At last, it raining now very hard, the duke called again, and asked him, "what he was about that he did not bring his cloak?" 'You must stay (grumbles the fellow), if it rains cats and dogs, till I can get at it.' The duke only turned to Marriot and said, "I would not be of that fellow's temper." The duke of Marlborough (adds Mr Richardson) did by nature and constitution, what Seneca judged by philosophy ought to be done. *Quid est quare ego servi mei hilarius responsum, et contumaciorem vultum, flagellis et compedibus expiem?*

Dr Swift, in one of his letters to Stella, relates the following particulars concerning the duke of Marlborough. "I was early this morning with Secretary St John, and gave him a memorial to get the queen's letter for the first-fruits, who has promised to do it in a very few days. He told me 'he had been with the duke of Marlborough, who was lamenting his former wrong steps in joining with the Whigs, and said he was worn out with age, fatigue, and misfortunes.' I swear it pitied me; and I really think they will not do well in too much mortifying that man, although indeed it is his own fault. He is covetous as hell, and ambitious as the prince of it: he would fain have been general for life, and has broken all endeavours for peace, to keep his greatness and get money. He told the queen 'he was neither covetous nor ambitious.' She said, 'if she could conveniently have turned about, she would have laughed, and could hardly forbear it in his face.' He fell in with all the abominable measures of the late ministry, because they gratified him for their own designs. Yet he has been a successful general, and I hope he will continue his command."

Various characters have been drawn of the duke of Marlborough; most of which we shall omit, as either already sufficiently known, or as not meriting particular notice. That which is given of him by Dr Swift, in his "History of the four last years of the queen," has all the malignity and meanness of a party pamphlet. It is even so foolish as to insinuate, that the duke's

Churchill. duke's military accomplishments were problematical, and that he was destitute of personal courage. Mr Macpherson's character of his grace is very elaborately composed, and displays no small degree of ability and penetration; though it is not, perhaps, entirely free from prejudice. The historian considers it as a fact, that Lord Churchill, at the time of the revolution, had a design of placing his unfortunate master King James II. a prisoner in the hands of his rival the prince of Orange. But this story must be regarded as wholly unworthy of credit. It is founded upon suggestions and informations so groundless and even ridiculous, that it cannot deserve a formal refutation. On the other hand, Mr Macpherson has done justice to the duke of Marlborough's prosecution of the war in Flanders, and hath shown that he conducted it upon the principles of sound wisdom and good policy.

There are two testimonies to the honour of the duke's memory, by two celebrated noble writers, which cannot be passed over. One is by Lord Bolingbroke, in his letters on the Study and Use of History. Speaking of the consternation raised among the allies of the grand confederacy by the death of King William, and of the joy which that event gave to the French, his lordship observes, that "a short time showed how vain the fears of some and the hopes of others were. By his death, the duke of Marlborough was raised to the head of the army, and indeed of the confederacy: where he, a new, a private man, a subject, acquired, by merit and by management, a more deciding influence than high birth, confirmed authority, and even the crown of Great Britain, had given to King William. Not only all the parts of that vast machine, the grand alliance, were kept more compact and entire, but a more rapid and vigorous motion was given to the whole: and instead of languishing out disastrous campaigns, we saw every scene of the war full of action. All those wherein he appeared, and many of those wherein he was not then an actor, but abettor however of their action, were crowned with the most triumphant success. I take, with pleasure, this opportunity of doing justice to that great man, whose faults I knew, whose virtues I admired; and whose memory, as the greatest general, and as the greatest minister, that our country, or perhaps any other, has produced, I honour."

The other testimony to the duke's accomplishments is by the earl of Chesterfield, in his Letters to his Son. "Of all the men (says his lordship) that ever I knew in my life (and I knew him extremely well), the late duke of Marlborough possessed the graces in the highest degree, not to say engrossed them: and indeed he got the most by them; for I will venture (contrary to the custom of profound historians, who always assign deep causes for great events) to ascribe the better half of the duke of Marlborough's greatness and riches to those graces. He was eminently illiterate; wrote bad English, and spelled it still worse. He had no share of what is commonly called *parts*; that is, he had no brightness, nothing shining in his genius. He had had, most undoubtedly, an excellent good plain understanding, with sound judgment. But these alone would probably have raised him but something higher than they found him, which was page to King James II.'s queen. There the graces protected and promoted him: for while he was an ensign of the guards, the duchess of Cleveland, then favourite mistress to King Charles II. struck by those very graces, gave him 5000l.; with which he immediately bought an annuity for his life of 500l. of my grandfather Halifax; which was the foundation of his subsequent fortune. His figure was beautiful; but his manner was irresistible by either man or woman. It was by this engaging graceful manner that he was enabled, during all his wars, to connect the various and jarring powers of the grand alliance, and to carry them on to the main object of the war, notwithstanding their private and separate views, jealousies, and wrongheadedness. Whatever court he went to (and he was often obliged to go himself to some testy and refractory ones,) he as constantly prevailed, and brought them into his measures. The pensionary Heinsius, a venerable old minister, grown gray in business, and who had governed the republic of the United Provinces for more than 40 years, was absolutely governed by the duke of Marlborough, as that republic feels to this day. He was always cool; and nobody ever observed the least variation in his countenance: he could refuse more gracefully than other people could grant; and those who went away from him the most dissatisfied as to the substance of their business, were yet personally charmed with him, and in some degree comforted by his manner. With all his gentleness and gracefulness, no man living was more conscious of his situation, nor maintained his dignity better."

A perusal of the above passage will convince us of the frivolous turn of the earl of Chesterfield's mind. His lordship, in his zeal to exalt the duke of Marlborough's external accomplishments, either forgets or depreciates the far greater talents of which he was possessed. There is an observation upon the subject in the British Biography, with which we entirely concur. "That the duke of Marlborough (says the writer) was eminently distinguished for the gracefulness of his manners, cannot be questioned; but the earl of Chesterfield appears to have attributed too much to their influence, when he ascribes—the better half of the duke of Marlborough's greatness and riches to those graces. That the uncommon gracefulness of his manners facilitated his advancement, and contributed to the success of his negociations, may readily be admitted; but surely it must have been to much higher qualities that he owed the esteem of King William and of Prince Eugene, his reputation throughout all Europe, and his many victories and conquests. It was not by a polite exterior that he obtained his laurels at Schellenberg, at Oudenarde, at Ramillies, and at Blenheim."

How much the duke of Marlborough has been celebrated by our poets, is well known by Addison's "Campaign;" and by Philips's "Blenheim." Mr Addison, in his Rosamond, has properly assumed another and voluntary occasion of paying a fine compliment to his grace's military exploits, and the glory by which they would be followed. Upon the duke's removal from his places, an ode was inscribed to him by Mr Somerville, animated with all the zeal of whiggish enthusiasm, and containing some passages that are truly poetical. Another ode, not much inferior in spirit, was

Churchill. was addressed to his grace, on occasion of his embarking for Ostend in the year 1712.

The duke of Marlborough's Scots title of Baron Eyemouth, being to heirs male, died with himself; but his English title going to his daughters and their heirs-male, went into the Spencer family, who retain their own surname of Spencer.

CHURCHILL, *Charles*, a celebrated satirist, the son of Mr Charles Churchill, curate and lecturer of St John's, Westminster, was educated at Westminster school, and received some applause for his abilities from his tutors in that famous seminary. His capacity, however, was greater than his application, so that he acquired the character of a boy that could do good if he would. As the slightest accounts of persons so noted are agreeable, it may not be amiss to observe, that having one day got an exercise to make, and from idleness or attention having failed to bring it at the time appointed, his master thought proper to chastise him with some severity, and even reproached his stupidity: what the fear of stripes could not effect, the fear of shame soon produced, and he brought his exercise the next day, finished in such a manner, that he received the public thanks of all the masters. Still, however, his progress in the learned languages was but slow; nor is it to be wondered at, if we consider how difficult it was for a strong imagination, such as he was possessed of, to conform and walk tamely forward in the trammels of a school education; minds like his are ever starting aside after new pursuits; desirous of embracing a multiplicity of amusing objects; eager to come at an end, without the painful investigation of the means. In short, for want of proper skill in these languages, he was rejected from Oxford, whither his father had sent him; and probably this might have given occasion to the frequent invectives we find in his works against that most respectable university. Upon his return from thence, he again applied to his studies in Westminster school, where, at 17 years of age, he contracted an intimacy with a lady, to whom he was married, and their mutual regard for each other continued for several years. At the usual age of going into orders, Mr Churchill was ordained by the late bishop of London, and obtained a small curacy in Wales of 30l. a-year. Thither he carried his wife; they took a small house; and he passed through the duties of his station with assiduity and cheerfulness. Happy had it been for him had he continued there to enjoy the fruits of piety, peace, and simplicity of manners. He was beloved and esteemed by his parishioners; and though his sermons were rather above the level of his audience, they were commended and followed. But endeavouring to advance his fortune, by keeping a cyder cellar, it involved him in difficulties which obliged him to leave Wales and come to London. His father dying soon after, he stepped into the church in which he had officiated; and in order to improve his income, which scarcely produced 100l. a-year, he taught young ladies to read and write English at a boarding school, kept by Mrs Dennis, where he behaved with that decency and decorum which became his profession. His method of living, however, bearing no proportion to his income, he contracted several debts in the city; which being unable to pay, a jail, the terror of indigent genius, seemed ready to complete his misfortunes; but from this state of wretchedness he was relieved by the benevolence of Mr Lloyd, father to the poet of that name. Meanwhile, Mr Lloyd, the son, wrote a poetical epistle called the *Actor*, which being read and approved by the public, gave the author a distinguished place among the writers of his age. This induced Mr Churchill to write the *Rosciad*. It first came out without the author's name; but the justness of the remarks, and the severity of the satire, soon excited public curiosity. Though he never disowned his having written that piece, and even openly gloried in it; yet the public, unwilling to give so much merit to one alone, ascribed it to a combination of wits; nor were Messrs Lloyd, Thornton, or Colman, left unnamed upon this occasion. This misplaced praise soon induced Mr Churchill to throw off the mask, and the second edition appeared with his name at full length. As the Rosciad was the first of this poet's performances, so many are of opinion that it is the best. In it we find a very close and minute discussion of the particular merit of each performer; their defects pointed out with candour, and their merits praised without adulation. This poem, however, seems to be one of those few works which are injured by succeeding editions; when he became popular, his judgment became intoxicated with applause; and we find, in the later editions, men blamed whose merit was incontestable, and others praised that were at that time in no degree of esteem with the judicious. His next performance was his *Apology to the Critical Reviewers*. This work is not without its peculiar merit; and as it was written against a set of critics whom the world was willing enough to blame, the public read it with their usual indulgence. In this performance he showed a particular happiness of throwing his thoughts, if we may so express it, into poetical paragraphs; so that the sentence swells to the break or conclusion, as we find in prose.

But while his writings amused the town, his actions disgusted it. He now quitted his wife, with whom he had cohabited many years; and resigning his gown and all clerical functions, commenced a complete *man of the town*, got drunk, frequented stews; and, giddy with false praise, thought his talents a sufficient atonement for all his follies. In some measure to palliate the absurdities of his conduct, he now undertook a poem called *Night*, written upon a general subject indeed, but upon false principles; namely, that whatever our follies are, we should never attempt to conceal them. This, and Mr Churchill's other poems, being shown to Dr Johnson, and his opinion being asked, he allowed them but little merit; which being told to the author, he resolved to requite this private opinion with a public one. In his next poem, therefore, of the *Ghost*, he has drawn this gentleman under the character of Pompose; and those who disliked Dr Johnson allowed it to have merit. Dr Johnson's only reply to Churchill's abuse was, "that he thought him a shallow fellow in the beginning, and could say nothing worse of him still." The poems of Night and the Ghost had not the rapid sale the author expected; but his *Prophecy of Famine* soon made ample amends for the late paroxysm in his fame. In this piece, written in the spirit of the famous North Briton,

ſon, he exerted his virulent pen againſt the whole Scottiſh nation, adopting the prejudices of the mob, and dignifying ſcurrility by the aid of a poetic imagination. It had a rapid and extenſive ſale, as propheſied by Mr Wilkes; who ſaid before its publication that he was ſure it muſt take, as it was at once perſonal, poetical, and political. After its appearance, it was aſſerted by his admirers, that Mr Churchill was a better poet than Pope. This exaggerated adulation, as it had before corrupted his morals, began now to impair his mind: ſeveral ſucceeding pieces were publiſhed, which, being written without effort, are read without pleaſure. His *Gotham*, *Independence*, *The Times*, ſeem merely to have been written by a man who deſired to avail himſelf of the avidity of the public curioſity in his favour, and are rather aimed at the pockets than the hearts of his readers. Mr Churchill died in 1764, of a miliary fever, with which he was ſeized at Boulogne in France, whither he had gone on a viſit to Mr Wilkes. After his death his poems were collected and printed together in two volumes 8vo.

CHURCHING OF WOMEN AFTER CHILDBIRTH, took its riſe from the Jewiſh rite of purification. In the Greek church it was limited to the 40th day after delivery; but in the weſtern parts of Europe no certain time was obſerved. There is an office in the liturgy for this purpoſe.

CHURCHYARD, a piece of ground adjoining to a church, ſet apart for the interment or burial of the dead.—In the church of Rome they are bleſſed or conſecrated with great ſolemnity. If a churchyard, which has been thus conſecrated, ſhall afterwards be polluted by any indecent action, or profaned by the burial of an infidel, a heretic, an excommunicated or unbaptized perſon, it muſt be *reconciled;* and the ceremony of the reconciliation is performed with the ſame ſolemnity as that of the bleſſing or conſecration.

CHURCHYARD, *Thomas*, a poet who flouriſhed in the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Queen Mary, and Queen Elizabeth, was born at Shrewſbury; and inherited a fortune which he ſoon exhauſted in a fruitleſs attendance on the court, by which he only gained the favour of being retained a domeſtic in the family of Lord Surrey: when, by his lordſhip's encouragement, he commenced poet. Upon his patron's death, he betook himſelf to arms; was in many engagments; was frequently wounded, and was twice made priſoner. He publiſhed 12 pieces, which he afterwards printed together in one volume, under the title of *Churchyard's Chips;* and alſo the tragedy of Thomas Moubray duke of Norfolk. He died in 1570.

CHURLE, CEORLE, or CARL, in the Saxon times, ſignified a tenant at will, who held of the thanes or nobles on condition of rent and ſervice. They were of two ſorts; one rented the eſtate like our farmers; the other tilled and manured the demeſnes, and were called ploughmen. See CEORLE.

CHURNING, in country affairs, the operation of making butter by agitating milk in a well known veſſel called a *churn*. For accelerating this operation, a correſpondent in the Bath Society papers recommends a little diſtilled vinegar to be poured into the churn; and the butter will be produced in an hour afterwards. He acknowledges, however, that his experiments have not as yet aſcertained the exact quantity of the acid which is neceſſary to the proper effect, nor the preciſe time of its being mixed with the cream. But he apprehends a table ſpoonful or two to a gallon of cream will be ſufficient; nor would he recommend it to be applied till the cream has undergone ſome conſiderable agitation. His firſt trial was after the firſt churning had been going forward half a day: whether he obſerved the ſame rule afterwards he does not ſay; but all his trials proved ſucceſsful, the butter being uniformly obtained in about an hour after the mixture. See AGRICULTURE and CHEMISTRY *Index*.

CHUS, *Chuſch*, (Bible). It is a tradition of an ancient ſtanding, that the *Chus* of the Scriptures denotes *Ethiopia*, and *Chuſchi* an *Ethiopian:* the Septuagint and Vulgate conſtantly tranſlate it ſo; and in this they are followed by moſt interpreters, and by Joſephus and Jerome. And yet what Bochart urges to the contrary is of no inconſiderable weight, from Ezekiel xxix. 10. in which the two oppoſite extremes of Egypt are deſigned; and therefore *Chus*, which is oppoſite to Syene, muſt be Arabia: but this is more ſtrongly pointed out by Xenophon, by whom Ethiopia is ſaid to be the ſouth boundary of Cyrus's empire: and Herodotus diſtinguiſhes between the Ethiopians of Aſia and Africa, conjoining the former with the Arabians.

CHYLE, in the animal economy, a milky fluid ſecreted from the aliments by means of digeſtion. See ANATOMY and CHEMISTRY *Index*.

CHYLIFICATION, the formation of the chyle, or the act whereby the food is changed into chyle.

The chyle has by ſome authors been thought to have a great reſemblance in its nature and chemical analyſis to milk. The ſubject, however, hath as yet been but little inquired into. See the article MILK.

CHYME, or CHYMUS, in the common ſignification of the word, denotes every kind of humour which is incraſſated by concoction; under which notion it comprehends all the humours fit or unfit for preſerving and nouriſhing the body, whether good or bad. It frequently imports the fineſt parts of the chyle, when ſeparated from the fæces, and contained in the lacteal and thoracic duct.

CHYMISTRY. See CHEMISTRY.

CHYMOLOGI, an appellation given to ſuch naturaliſts as have employed their time in inveſtigating the properties of plants from their taſte and ſmell.

CHYMOSIS, in *Medicine*, the act of making or preparing chyme. The word comes from χυμος, *ſuccus*, of χεω, *fundo*, "I pour out." Chymoſis, according to ſome, is the ſecond of the concoctions made in the body; being a repeated preparation of the moſt impure and groſs parts of the chyle, which being rejected by the lacteals, is imbibed by the meſeraics, and thence carried to the liver, to be there elaborated, purified, and ſubtilized afreſh. It is of this, according to Rogers, that the animal ſpirits are formed.

CHYMOSIS is alſo a diſtortion of the eye lids, ariſing from an inflammation; alſo an inflammation of the tunica cornea in the eye.

CHYTLA, in antiquity, a liquor made of wine and oil, and ſometimes uſed in divination.

CHYTRI, among the Athenians, a feſtival in honour of Bacchus and Mercury, kept on the 13th of the month Anthefterion.

CHYTRIUM,

Chytrium || Cibdeloplacia.

CHYTRIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a place in Ionia, in which formerly ſtood Clazomene; the Clazomenians, through fear of the Perſians, removing from the continent to an adjacent iſland (Pauſanias). Alexander reduced the iſland, by a mole or cauſeway, to a peninſula.

CHYTRUS, in *Ancient Geography*, an inland town of Cyprus, to the north of Citium; famous for its excellent honey.

CIANUS SINUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a bay of Bithynia, named from the town and river Cius.

CIBALÆ, or CIBALIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Pannonia Inferior, on an eminence, near the lake Hiulka, to the north-weſt of Sirmium; the country of the emperor Gratian, where he was brought up to rope-making: a place rendered famous for the ſurpriſal and defeat of Licinius by Conſtantine.

CIBBER, COLLEY, a celebrated comedian, dramatic writer, and poet laureat to the king, was born at London in 1671. His father Caius Gabriel Cibber, was a native of Holſtein, and a ſkilful ſtatuary, who executed the baſſo relievo on the pedeſtal of the monument, and the two admired figures of lunatics over the piers of the gate to Bethlehem Hoſpital in Moorfields. Colley, who derived his Chriſtian name from the ſurname of his mother's family, was intended for the church, but betook himſelf to the ſtage, for which he conceived an early inclination; and he was ſome time before he acquired any degree of notice, or even a competent ſalary. His firſt eſſay in writing, was the comedy of *Love's laſt Shift*, acted in 1695, which met with ſucceſs; as did his own performance of the character of the fop in it. From that time, as he ſays himſelf, "My muſe and my ſpouſe were ſo equally prolific, that the one was ſeldom the mother of a child, but in the ſame year the other made me the father of a play. I think we had a dozen of each ſort between us; of both which kinds ſome died in their infancy, and near an equal number of each were alive when we quitted the theatre." The *Careleſs Huſband*, acted in 1704, met with great applauſe, and is reckoned his beſt play: but none was of more importance to him than the *Nonjuror*, acted in 1717, and levelled againſt the Jacobites. This laid the foundation of the miſunderſtanding between him and Mr Pope, raiſed him to be the hero of the Dunciad, and made him poet-laureat in 1730. He then quitted the ſtage, except a few occaſional performances; and died in 1757. Cibber neither ſucceeded in writing nor in acting tragedy; and his odes were not thought to partake of the genius or ſpirit he ſhowed in his comedies.

His ſon *Theophilus*, alſo a comic actor after him, was born during a great ſtorm in 1703; and after paſſing a life of extravagance, diſtreſs, and perplexity, periſhed in another ſtorm in 1758, in the paſſage between Dublin and England. Theophilus married the ſiſter of Thomas Auguſtine Arne, the famous muſical compoſer; who became a celebrated tragic actreſs, and whoſe honour was ſacrificed to her huſband's extravagance.

CIBDELOPLACIA, an old term in *Natural Hiſtory*; applied to ſpars debaſed by a very large admixture of earth: they are opaque, formed of thin cruſts, covering vegetables and other bodies, by way of incruſtations.

Of this genus we have the following ſpecies: 1. A grayiſh white one, with a rough ſurface. 2. A whitiſh brown one: both theſe are friable. 3. A hard, pale brown kind, which is the oſteocolla of the ſhops. 4. The whitiſh-gray kind, with a ſmooth ſurface: this is the unicornu foſſil and ceratites of authors. 5. The whitiſh brown coralloid kind. Cibdeloplacia || Cicely.

CIBDELOSTRACIA, an old term in *Natural Hiſtory*, including earthy ſpars, deſtitute of tranſparency, formed into thin plates, and uſually found coating over the ſides of fiſſures, and other cavities of ſtones with congeries of them to great extent, and of plain or botryoid ſurfaces.

Of theſe there are uſually reckoned ſeven kinds: the firſt the hard, browniſh-white cibdeloſtracium, found in Germany: the ſecond is the hard, whitiſh cibdeloſtracium, with thin cruſts, and a ſmoother ſurface, found alſo in the Harts-foreſt in Germany: the third is the hard, pale-brown cibdeloſtracium, with numerous very thin cruſts, found in ſubterranean caverns in many parts of England as well as Germany: the fourth is the white, light, and friable cibdeloſtracium, found alſo in Germany, but very rarely in any part of England: the fifth is the light, hard, pale-brown cibdeloſtracium, with a ſmooth ſurface, found in almoſt all parts of the world: the ſixth is the whitiſh, friable, cruſtaceous cibdeloſtracium, with a rougher ſurface, frequent in Germany and England; and the ſeventh is the browniſh-white friable cibdeloſtracium, with a duſky ſurface, found in ſeveral parts of Ireland as well as Germany.

CIBORIA, in antiquity, the large huſks of Egyptian beans, which are ſaid to have been ſo large as to ſerve for drinking-cups: whence they had their name *ciborium*, ſignifying a cup, in the Egyptian language.

CIBORIUM, in eccleſiaſtical writers, the covering for the altar. This covering is ſupported by four high columns, and forms a kind of tent for the euchariſt, in the Romiſh churches. Some authors call it *turris geſtatoria*, and others *pyxis*; but the pyxis is properly the box in which the euchariſt is preſerved.

CIBUS FERIALIS, in antiquity, an entertainment peculiar to a funeral; for which purpoſe, beans, parſley, lettuce, bread, eggs, lentils, and ſalt, were in uſe.

CICADA, the FROG-HOPPER or FLEA-LOCUST, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of hemiptera. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

CICATRICULA, among natural hiſtorians, denotes a ſmall whitiſh ſpeck in the yolk of an egg, ſuppoſed to be the firſt rudiments of the future chick.

CICATRIX, in *Surgery*, a little ſeam or elevation of callous fleſh riſing on the ſkin, and remaining there after the healing of a wound or ulcer. It is commonly called a *ſcar*.

CICATRIZANTS, in *Pharmacy*, medicines which aſſiſt nature to form a cicatrix. Such are Armenian bole, powder of tutty, &c.

Cicatrizants are otherwiſe called *eſcharotics*, *epulotics*, *incarnatives*, *agglutinants*, &c.

CICCA, in *Botany*, a genus of the tetrandria order, belonging to the monœcia claſs of plants. The male calyx is tetraphyllous; there is no corolla: the female calyx triphyllous; no corolla; four ſtiles; the capſule quadricoccous or four-berried.

CICELY, in *Botany*, the Engliſh name of a ſpecies of

Cicely || Cicero.

of chærophyllum. See CHÆROPHYLLUM, BOTANY *Index*.

CICER, or CHICK-PEA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CICERO, MARCUS TULLIUS, the celebrated Roman orator, was born in the year of Rome 647, about 105 years before Christ. His father Marcus Tullius, who was of the equestrian order, took great care of his education, which was directed particularly with a view to the bar. Young Tully, at his first appearance in public, declaimed with such vehemence against Sylla's party, that it became expedient for him to retire into Greece; where he heard the Athenian orators and philosophers, and greatly improved both in eloquence and knowledge. Here he met with T. Pomponius, who had been his school-fellow; and who, from his love to Athens, and spending a great part of his days in it, obtained the surname of *Atticus*; and here they revived and confirmed that noted friendship which subsisted between them through life with so celebrated a constancy and affection. From Athens he passed into Asia; and after an excursion of two years came back again into Italy.

Cicero had now arrived at Rome; and, after one year more spent at the bar, obtained, in the next place, the dignity of questor. Among the causes which he pleaded before his questorship, was that of the famous comedian Roscius, whom a singular merit in his art had recommended to the familiarity and friendship of the greatest men in Rome. The questors were the general receivers or treasurers of the republic, and were sent annually into the provinces distributed to them, as they always were, by lot. The island of Sicily happened to fall to Cicero's share; and that part of it, for it was considerable enough to be divided into two provinces, which was called *Lilybæum*. This office he received, not as a gift, but a trust; and he acquitted himself so well in it, that he gained the love and admiration of all the Sicilians. Before he left Sicily, he made the tour of the island, to see every thing that was curious, and especially the city of Syracuse; where he discovered the tomb of Archimedes to the magistrates who were showing him the curiosities of the place, but who, to his surprise, knew nothing of any such tomb.

We have no account of the precise time of Cicero's marriage with Terentia; but it is supposed to have been celebrated immediately after his return from his travels to Italy, when he was about 30 years old. He was now disengaged from his questorship in Sicily, by which first step, in the legal gradation and ascent of public honours, he gained an immediate right to the senate, and an actual admission into it during life; and settled again in Rome, where he employed himself constantly in defending the persons and properties of its citizens, and was indeed a general patron. Five years were almost elapsed since Cicero's election to the questorship, which was the proper interval prescribed by law before he could hold the next office of ædile; to which he was now, in his 37th year, elected by the unanimous suffrages of all the tribes, and preferably to all his competitors. After Cicero's election to the ædileship, but before his entrance upon the office, he undertook the famed prosecution of C. Verres, the late prætor of Sicily, who was charged with many flagrant acts of injustice, rapine, and cruelty, during his triennial government of that island. This was one of the most memorable transactions of his life, for which he was greatly and justly celebrated by antiquity, and for which he will, in all ages, be admired and esteemed by the friends of mankind. The result was, that, by his diligence and address, he so confounded Hortensius, though the reigning orator at the bar, and usually styled *the king of the forum*, that he had nothing to say for his client. Verres, despairing of all defence, submitted immediately, without expecting the sentence, to a voluntary exile; where he lived many years, forgotten and deserted by all his friends. He is said to have been relieved in this miserable situation by the generosity of Cicero; yet was proscribed and murdered after all by Mark Antony, for the sake of those fine statues and Corinthian vessels of which he had plundered the Sicilians.

Cicero.

After the usual interval of two years from the time of his being chosen ædile, Cicero offered himself a candidate for the prætorship; and, in three different assemblies convened for the choice of prætors, two of which were dissolved without effect, he was declared every time the first prætor by the suffrages of all the centuries. He was now in the career of his fortunes, and in sight, as it were, of the consulship, the grand object of his ambition; and therefore, when his prætorship was at an end, he would not accept any foreign province, the usual reward of that magistracy, and the chief fruit which the generality proposed from it. He had no particular love for money, nor genius for arms; so that those governments had no charms for him: the glory which he pursued was to shine in the eyes of the city as the guardian of its laws, and to teach the magistrates how to execute, and the citizens how to obey, them.

Being now in his 43d year, the proper age required by law, he declared himself a candidate for the consulship along with six competitors, L. Sulpicius Galba, L. Sergius Catilina, C. Antonius, L. Cassius Longinus, Q. Cornificius, and C. Licinius Sacerdos. The two first were patricians; the two next plebeians, yet noble; the two last the sons of fathers who had first imported the public honours into their families: Cicero was the only *new man*, as he was called, among them, or one of the equestrian rank. These were the competitors; and in this competition the practice of bribing was carried on as openly and as shamefully by Antonius and Catiline as it usually is at our elections in Britain. However, as the election approached, Cicero's interest appeared to be superior to that of all the candidates: for the nobles themselves, though always envious and desirous to depress him, yet out of regard to the dangers which threatened the city from many quarters, and seemed ready to burst out into a flame, began to think him the only man qualified to preserve the republic, and break the cabals of the desperate by the vigour and prudence of his administration. The method of choosing consuls was not by an open vote, but by a kind of ballot, or little tickets of wood distributed to the citizens, with the names of the several candidates inscribed upon each; but in Cicero's case the people were not content with this secret and silent way; but before they came to any scrutiny, loudly and universally proclaimed Cicero the first consul, so that, as he himself says, "he was not chosen by

by the votes of particular citizens, but the common suffrage of the city; nor declared by the voice of the crier, but of the whole Roman people."

Cicero had no sooner entered upon his office than he had occasion to exert himself against P. Servilius Rullus, one of the new tribunes, who had been alarming the senate with the promulgation of an agrarian law; the purpose of which was to create a decemvirate, or ten commissioners, with absolute power for five years over all the revenues of the republic, to distribute them at pleasure to the citizens, &c. These laws used to be greedily received by the populace, and were proposed therefore by factious magistrates as oft as they had any point to carry with the multitude against the public good; so that Cicero's first business was to quiet the apprehensions of the city, and to baffle, if possible, the intrigues of the tribune. Accordingly, in an artful and elegant speech from the rostra, he gave such a turn to the inclination of the people, that they rejected this law with as much eagerness as they had ever received one. But the grand affair of all, which constituted the glory of his consulship, and has transmitted his name with such lustre to posterity, was the skill he showed, and the unwearied pains he took, in suppressing that horrid conspiracy which was formed by Catiline and his accomplices for the subversion of the commonwealth. For this great service he was honoured with the glorious title of *pater patriæ*, "the father of his country," which he retained for a long time after.

Cicero's administration was now at an end; but he had no sooner quitted his office, than he began to feel the weight of that envy which is the certain fruit of illustrious merit. He was now, therefore, the common mark, not only of all the factious, against whom he had declared perpetual war, but of another party not less dangerous, the envious too, whose united spleen never left him from this moment till they had driven him out of that city which he had so lately preserved. Cicero, upon the expiration of his consulship, took care to send a particular account of his whole administration to Pompey, who was finishing the Mithridatic war in Asia, in hopes to prevent any wrong impressions there from the calumnies of his enemies, and to draw from him some public declaration in praise of what he had been doing. But Pompey being informed by Metellus and Cæsar of the ill humour that was rising against Cicero in Rome, answered him with great coldness, and instead of paying him any compliment, took no notice at all of what had passed in the affair of Catiline, upon which Cicero expostulates with him in a letter which is still extant.

About this time Cicero bought a house of M. Crassus on the Palatine-hill, adjoining to that in which he had always lived with his father, and which he is now supposed to have given up to his brother Quintius. The house cost him near 30,000l. and seems to have been one of the noblest in Rome. It was built about 30 years before by the famous tribune M. Livius Drusus; on which occasion we are told, that when the architect promised to build it for him in such a manner that none of his neighbours should overlook him; "But if you have any skill (replied Drusus), contrive it rather so, that all the world may see what I am doing." The purchase of so expensive a house raised some censure on his vanity; and especially as it was made with borrowed money. This circumstance he himself does not dissemble, but says merrily upon it, that "he was now plunged so deeply in debt, as to be ready for a plot, only that the conspirators would not trust him."

The most remarkable event that happened in this year, which was the 45th of Cicero's life, was the pollution of the mysteries of the *bona dea* by P. Clodius, which, by an unhappy train of consequences, involved Cicero in a great and unexpected calamity. Clodius had an intrigue with Cæsar's wife Pompeia, who, according to annual custom, was now celebrating in her house those awful sacrifices of the goddess, to which no male creature ever was admitted, and where every thing masculine was so scrupulously excluded, that even pictures of that sort were covered during the ceremony. It flattered Clodius's imagination greatly to gain access to his mistress in the midst of her holy ministry; and with this view he dressed himself in a woman's habit, that by the benefit of his smooth face, and the introduction of one of the maids, he might pass without discovery; but by some mistake between him and his guide, he lost his way when he came within the house, and fell unluckily among the other female servants. Here he was detected by his voice, and the servants alarmed the whole company by their shrieks, to the great amazement of the matrons, who threw a veil over their sacred mysteries, while Clodius found means to escape. The story was presently spread abroad, and raised a general scandal and horror throughout the city. The whole defence which Clodius made when, by order of the senate, he was brought to trial, was to prove himself absent at the time of the fact, for which purpose he produced two men to swear that he was then at Interamna, about two or three days journey from the city. But Cicero being called upon to give his testimony, deposed, that Clodius had been with him that very morning at his house in Rome. Irritated by this, Clodius formed a scheme of revenge. This was to get himself chosen tribune, and in that office to drive Cicero out of the city, by the publication of a law, which, by some stratagem or other, he hoped to obtrude upon the people. But as all patricians were incapable of the tribunate, by its original institution, so his first step was to make himself a plebeian, by the pretence of an adoption into a plebeian house, which could not yet be done without the suffrage of the people. The first triumvirate was now formed, which was nothing else in reality but a traitorous conspiracy of three of the most powerful citizens of Rome, to extort from their country by violence what they could not obtain by law. Pompey's chief motive was to get his acts confirmed by Cæsar in his consulship, which was now coming on; Cæsar, by giving way to Pompey's glory, to advance his own; and Crassus, to gain that ascendence by the authority of Pompey and Cæsar, which he could not sustain alone. Cicero might have made what terms he pleased with the triumvirate, and been admitted even a partner of their power, and a fourth in their league; but he would not enter into any engagements with the three whose union he and all the friends of the republic abhorred. Clodius, in the mean time, had been pushing

ing on the bufinefs of his adoption, which at laft he effected, and began foon after to threaten Cicero with all the terrors of his tribunate, to which he was now advanced without any oppofition. Both Cæfar and Pompey fecretly favoured his fcheme; not that they intended to ruin Cicero, but only to keep him under the lafh; and if they could not draw him into their meafures, or make him at leaft keep quiet, to let Clodius loofe upon him. Cæfar, in particular, wanted to diftrefs him fo far as to force him to a dependence on himfelf; for which end, while he was privately encouraging Clodius to purfue him, he was propofing expedients to Cicero for his fecurity. But though his fortunes feemed now to be in a tottering condition, and his enemies to gain ground daily upon him, yet he was unwilling to owe the obligation of his fafety to any man, far lefs to Cæfar, whofe defigns he always fufpected, and whofe fchemes he never approved. This ftiffnefs in Cicero fo exafperated Cæfar, that he refolved immediately to affift Clodius with all his power to oppref s him; while Pompey was all the time giving him the ftrongeft affurances that there was no danger, and that he would fooner be killed himfelf than fuffer him to be hurt.

Clodius, in the mean time, was obliging the people with feveral new laws, contrived chiefly for their advantage; the defign of all which was only to introduce, with a better grace, the ground-plot of the plan, the banifhment of Cicero. In fhort, having caufed a law to be enacted, importing, that any who had condemned a Roman citizen, unheard, fhould himfelf be banifhed, he foon after impeached Cicero upon it. It was in vain that this great man went up and down the city foliciting his caufe in the habit of a fuppliant, and attended by many of the firft young noblemen whom he had taught the rules of eloquence; thofe powers of fpeaking which had fo often been fucceefful in defending the caufe of others, feemed totally to forfake his own: he was banifhed by the votes of the people 400 miles from Italy; his houfes were ordered to be demolifhed, and his goods fet up to fale. It cannot be denied, that in this great calamity he did not behave himfelf with that firmnefs which might reafonably be expected from one who had borne fo glorious a part in the republic, confcious of his integrity, and fuffering in the caufe of his country; for his letters are generally filled with fuch lamentable expreffions of grief and defpair, that his beft friends, and even his wife, were forced fometimes to admonifh him to roufe his courage, and remember his former character, Atticus was conftantly putting him in mind of it; and fent him word of a report that was brought to Rome by one of Caffius's freed-men, that his affliction had difordered his fenfes. He was now indeed attacked in his weakeft part; the only place in which he was vulnerable. To have been as great in affliction as he was in profperity, would have been a perfection not given to man; yet his very weaknefs flowed from a fource which rendered him the more amiable in all the other parts of his life; and the fame tendernefs of difpofition which made him love his friends, his children, and his country, more paffionately than other men, made him feel the lofs of them more fenfibly. When he had been gone a little more than two months, a motion was made in the fenate by one of the tribunes, who was his friend, to recal him, and repeal the laws of Clodius, to which the whole houfe readily agreed. Many obftructions, as may be eafily imagined, were given to it by the Clodian faction; but this made the fenate only more refolute to effect it. They paffed a vote, therefore, that no other bufinefs fhould be done till Cicero's return was carried; which at laft it was, and in fo fplendid and triumphant a manner, that he had reafon, he fays, to fear, left people fhould imagine that he himfelf had contrived his late flight for the fake of fo glorious a reftoration.

Cicero, now in his 50th year, was reftored to his former dignity, and foon after to his former fortunes; fatisfaction being made to him for the ruin of his eftates and houfes, which laft were again built up by himfelf with more magnificence than before. But he had domeftic grievances about this time which touched him very nearly, and which, as he fignifies obfcurely to Atticus, were of too delicate a nature to be expreffed in a letter: they arofe chiefly from the petulant humour of his wife, which began to give him frequent occafions of chagrin, and, by a feries of repeated provocations, confirmed in him that fettled difguft which at laft ended in a divorce.

In the 56th year of his age, he was made proconful of Cilicia, and his adminiftration there gained him great honour. About this time the expectation of a breach between Cæfar and Pompey engaged the general attention. Craffus had been deftroyed with his army fome years before in the war with the Parthians; and Julia, the daughter of Cæfar, whom Pompey married, and who, while fhe lived, was the cement of their union, was alfo dead in child-bed. Cæfar had put an end to the Gallic war, and reduced the whole province to the Roman yoke; but though his commiffion was near expiring, he feemed to have no thoughts of giving it up and returning to the condition of a private fubject. He pretended that he could not poffibly be fafe if he parted with his army, efpecially while Pompey held the province of Spain prolonged to him for five years. This difpofition to a breach Cicero foon learned from his friends, as he was returning from his province of Cilicia. But as he forefaw the confequences of a war more clearly and fully than any of them, fo his firft refolution was to apply all his endeavours and authority to the mediation of a peace; though, in the event of a breach, he was determined within himfelf to follow Pompey. He clearly forefaw, what he declared without fcruple to his friends, that which fide foever got the better, the war muft neceffarily end in a tyranny. The only difference, he faid, was, that if their enemies conquered, they fhould be profcribed; if their friends, they would be flaves.

He no fooner arrived at the city, however, than he fell, as he tells us, into the very flame of civil difcord, and found the war in effect proclaimed; for the fenate had juft voted a decree, that Cæfar fhould difband his army by a certain day, or be declared an enemy; and Cæfar's fudden march towards Rome effectually confirmed it. In the midft of all this hurry and confufion, Cæfar was extremely folicitous about Cicero; not fo much to gain him, for that was not to be expected, as to prevail with him to ftand neuter. He wrote to him feveral times to that effect, and

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employed all their common friends to preſs him with letters on that ſubject; all which was done; but in vain, for Cicero was impatient to be gone to Pompey. In the mean time, theſe letters give us a moſt ſenſible proof of the high eſteem and credit in which Cicero flouriſhed at this time in Rome; when in a conteſt for empire, which force alone was to decide, we ſee the chiefs on both ſides ſo ſolicitous to gain a man to their party, who had no peculiar ſkill in arms or talents for war. Purſuing, however, the reſult of all his deliberations, he embarked at length to follow Pompey, who had been obliged to quit Italy ſome time before, and was then at Dyrrhachium; and arrived ſafely in his camp with his ſon, his brother, and his nephew, committing the fortunes of the whole family to the iſſue of that cauſe. After the battle of Pharſalia, in which Pompey was defeated, Cicero returned into Italy, and was afterwards received into great favour by Cæſar, who was now declared dictator the ſecond time, and Mark Antony his maſter of horſe. We may eaſily imagine, what we find indeed from his letters, that he was not a little diſconcerted at the thoughts of an interview with Cæſar, and the indignity of offering himſelf to a conqueror againſt whom he had been in arms; for though upon many accounts he had reaſon to expect a kind reception from Cæſar, yet he hardly thought his life, he ſays, worth begging, ſince what was given by a maſter might always be taken away again at pleaſure. But at their meeting he had no occaſion to ſay or do any thing that was below his dignity; for Cæſar no ſooner ſaw him than he alighted, ran to embrace him, and walked with him alone, converſing very familiarly, for ſeveral furlongs.

Cicero was now in his 61ſt year, and forced at laſt to part with his wife Terentia, whoſe humour and conduct had been long uneaſy to him. She was a woman of an imperious and turbulent ſpirit, and though he had borne her perverſeneſs in the vigour of health, and flouriſhing ſtate of his fortunes; yet, in declining life, ſoured by a continual ſucceſſion of mortifications from abroad, the want of eaſe and quiet at home was no longer tolerable to him. But he was immediately oppreſſed by a new and moſt cruel affliction, the death of his beloved daughter Tullia, who died in child-bed ſoon after her divorce from her third huſband Dolabella. She was about 32 years old at the time of her death; and, by the few hints which are left of her character, appears to have been an excellent and admirable woman. She was moſt affectionately and piouſly obſervant of her father, and, to the uſual graces of her ſex, having added the more ſolid accompliſhments of knowledge and polite letters, was qualified to be the companion and delight of his age; and was juſtly eſteemed not only as one of the beſt, but the moſt learned of the Roman ladies. His affliction for the death of this daughter was ſo great, that to ſhun all company as much as he could, he removed to Atticus's houſe, where he lived chiefly in his library, turning over every book he could meet with on the ſubject of moderating grief. But finding his reſidence here too public, and a greater reſort to him than he could bear, he retired to Aſturia, one of his ſeats near Antium; a little iſland on the Latian ſhore, at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, covered with wood and groves cut into ſhady walks; a ſcene of all others the fitteſt to indulge melancholy, and where he could give a free courſe to his grief. "Here (ſays he to Atticus) I live without the ſpeech of man; every morning early I hide myſelf in the thickeſt of the wood, and never come out till the evening. Next to yourſelf, nothing is ſo dear to me as this ſolitude; and my whole converſation is with my books." Indeed his whole time was employed in little elſe than reading and writing during Cæſar's adminiſtration, which he could never cheerfully ſubmit to; and it was within this period that he drew up one of the graveſt of thoſe philoſophical pieces which are ſtill extant in his works.

Upon the death of Cæſar, Octavius his nephew and heir coming into Italy, was preſented to Cicero by Hirtius and Panſa, with the ſtrongeſt profeſſions on the part of the young man that he would be governed entirely by his direction. Indeed Cicero thought it neceſſary to cheriſh and encourage Octavius, if for nothing elſe, yet to keep him at a diſtance from Antony; but could not yet be perſuaded to enter heartily into his affairs. He ſuſpected his youth and want of experience; and that he had not ſtrength enough to deal with Antony; and, above all, that he had no good diſpoſition towards the conſpirators. He thought it impoſſible he ſhould ever be a friend to them; and was perſuaded rather, that if ever he got the upper hand, his uncle's acts would be more violently enforced, and his death more cruelly revenged, than by Antony himſelf. And when Cicero did at laſt conſent to unite himſelf to Octavius's intereſts, it was with no other view but to arm him with a power ſufficient to oppreſs Antony; yet ſo checked and limited, that he ſhould not be able to oppreſs the republic.

In the midſt of all this political buſtle, he was ſtill proſecuting his ſtudies with his uſual application; and, beſides ſome philoſophical pieces, now finiſhed his book of offices, or the duties of man, for the uſe of his ſon: A work admired by all ſucceeding ages as the moſt perfect ſyſtem of Heathen morality, and the nobleſt effort and ſpecimen of what reaſon could do in guiding men through life with innocence and happineſs. However, he paid a conſtant attention to public affairs; miſſed no opportunities, but did every thing that human prudence could do for the recovery of the republic: for all that vigour with which it was making this laſt effort for itſelf, was entirely owing to his counſels and authority. This appears from thoſe memorable philippics which from time to time he publiſhed againſt Antony, as well as from other monuments of antiquity. But all was in vain; for though Antony's army was entirely defeated at the ſiege of Modena, which made many people imagine that the war was at an end, and the liberty of Rome eſtabliſhed; yet the death of the conſuls Panſa and Hirtius in that action gave the fatal blow to all Cicero's ſchemes, and was the immediate cauſe of the ruin of the republic.

Octavius having ſubdued the ſenate to his mind, marched towards Gaul to meet Anthony and Lepidus; who had already paſſed the Alps, and brought their armies into Italy, in order to have a perſonal interview with him; which had been privately concerted for ſettling the terms of a triple league, and dividing the power and provinces of Italy among themſelves.

themſelves. The place appointed for this interview was a ſmall iſland about two miles from Bononia, formed by the river Rhenus which runs near that city. Here they met, and ſpent three days in a cloſe conference to adjuſt the plan of their accommodation; and the laſt thing they adjuſted was the liſt of a proſcription which they were determined to make of their enemies. This, as the writers tell us, occaſioned much difficulty and warm conteſts among them, till each in his turn conſented to ſacrifice ſome of his beſt friends to the revenge and reſentment of his colleagues. Cicero was at his Tuſculan villa, when he firſt received the news of the proſcription, and of his being included in it. It was the deſign of the triumvirate to keep it a ſecret, if poſſible, to the moment of execution, in order to ſurpriſe thoſe whom they had deſtined to deſtruction, before they were aware of their danger, or had time to make their eſcape. But ſome of Cicero's friends found means to give him early notice of it; upon which he ſet forward to the ſea-ſide, with a deſign to tranſport himſelf out of the reach of his enemies. There, finding a veſſel ready, he immediately embarked; but the winds being adverſe, and the ſea uneaſy to him, after he had ſailed about two leagues along the coaſt, he was obliged to land, and ſpend the night on ſhore. From whence he was forced, by the importunity of his ſervants, on board again; but was ſoon afterwards obliged to land at a country-ſeat of his a mile from the ſhore, weary of life, and declaring he was reſolved to die in that country which he had ſo often ſaved. Here he ſlept ſoundly for ſome time, till his ſervants once more forced him away in a litter towards the ſhip, having heard that he was purſued by Antony's aſſaſſins. They had ſcarcely departed when the aſſaſſins arrived at his houſe; and, perceiving him to have fled, purſued him immediately towards the ſea, and overtook him in a wood that was near the ſhore. Their leader was one Popilius Lenas, a tribune of the army, whoſe life Cicero had formerly defended and ſaved. As ſoon as the ſoldiers appeared, the ſervants prepared to defend their maſter's life at the hazard of their own; but Cicero commanded them to ſet him down and make no reſiſtance. They ſoon cut off his head and his hands, returning with them to Rome as the moſt agreeable preſent to their cruel employer. Antony, who was then at Rome, received them with extreme joy, rewarding the murderer with a large ſum of money, and ordered the head to be fixed upon the roſtra between the two hands; a ſad ſpectacle to the city, and what drew tears from every eye, to ſee thoſe mangled members which uſed to exert themſelves ſo glorioſuſly from that place in defence of the lives, the fortunes, and the liberties of the Roman people, ſo lamentably expoſed to the ſcorn of ſycophants and traitors. The deaths of the reſt, ſays an hiſtorian of that age, cauſed only a private and particular ſorrow; but Cicero's an univerſal one. It was a triumph over the republic itſelf; and ſeemed to confirm and eſtabliſh the perpetual ſlavery of Rome.

A modern writer *, however, is of opinion, that "poſterity has been too much ſeduced by the name of Cicero, and that better citizens were ſacrificed to the jealouſy of the triumvirs without exciting ſo much indignation. If we take an impartial ſurvey of Cicero's conduct and principles, avowed in his own epiſtolary correſpondence, and trace him through all the labyrinths of his contradictory letters, we ſhall find more to blame than to admire; and diſcover, that the deſire of advancing his fortunes, and making himſelf a name, were, from his outſet in life, the only objects he had in view. The good of his country, and the dictates of ſtern ſteady virtue, were not, as in Brutus and Cato, the conſtant ſprings of his actions. The misfortunes that befel him after his conſulſhip, developed his character, and ſhowed him in his true colours; from that time to his death, puſillanimity, irreſolution, and unworthy repining, tainted his judgment, and perplexed every ſtep he wiſhed to take. He flattered Pompey and cringed to Cæſar, while in his private letters he abuſed them both alternately. He acknowledges in a letter to his friend, the time-ſerving Atticus, that, although he was at preſent determined to ſupport the cauſe of Rome and liberty, and to bear misfortune like a philoſopher, there was one thing which would gain him over to the triumvirs, and that was their procuring for him the vacant augurſhip; ſo pitiful was the bribe to which he would have ſacrificed his honour, his opinion, and the commonwealth. By his wavering imprudent conduct, he contributed greatly towards its deſtruction. After reproaching the conſpirators for leaving him out of the ſecret, and loading them with the moſt flattering compliments on their delivering Rome from Cæſar's tyranny, he calls Caſca an *aſſaſſin*, to pay his court to the boy Octavius, by whom he was completely duped. His praiſes of this triumvir are in the higheſt ſtrain of panegyric. Mark Antony well knew, that the virulent abuſe which Cicero was continually pouring out againſt him, was not an effuſion of patriotic zeal or virtuous indignation, but merely the ebullitions of perſonal hatred. He therefore cauſed Cicero to be killed, as an angry man that has been ſtung, ſtamps on a venomous animal that comes within reach of his foot. The cloak he threw over the body of Brutus, and the ſpeech he pronounced at the ſight of that hero when dead, differ widely from the treatment he gave the remains of Cicero; and ſhow, that he made a diſtinction between a Roman who oppoſed him from political motives, and one whoſe enmity aroſe from private pique.

Cicero's death happened on the 7th of December, in the 64th year of his age, about ten days from the ſettlement of the firſt triumvirate; and with him expired the ſhort empire of eloquence among the Romans. As an orator he is thus characterized by Dr Blair: "In all his orations his art is conſpicuous. He begins commonly with a regular exordium, and with much addreſs prepoſſeſſes the hearers, and ſtudies to gain their affections. His method is clear, and his arguments are arranged with exact propriety. In a ſuperior clearneſs of method, he has an advantage over Demoſthenes. Every thing appears in its proper place. He never tries to move till he has attempted to convince; and in moving, particularly the ſofter paſſions, he is highly ſucceſsful. No one ever knew the force of words better than Cicero. He rolls them along with the greateſt beauty and magnificence; and in the ſtructure of his ſentences is eminently curious and exact. He is always full and flowing, never abrupt. He amplifies every thing; yet though his manner is generally diffuſe, it is often happily varied and accommodated to the ſubject. When an

* *Swinburn's Travels in Sicily*, vol. ii. p. 502.

an important public object roufed his mind, and demanded indignation and force, he departs confiderably from that loofe and declamatory manner to which he at other times is addicted, and becomes very forcible and vehement. This great orator, however, is not without his defects. In moft of his orations there is too much art, even carried to a degree of oftentation. He feems often defirous of obtaining admiration rather than of operating conviction. He is fometimes, therefore, fhowy rather than folid, and diffufe where he ought to have been urgent. His fentences are always round and fonorous. They cannot be accufed of monotony, fince they poffefs variety of cadence; but from too great a fondnefs for magnificence, he is on fome occafions deficient in ftrength. Though the fervices which he had performed to his country were very confiderable, yet he is too much his own panegyrift. Ancient manners, which impofed fewer reftraints on the fide of decorum, may in fome degree excufe, but cannot entirely juftify, his vanity."

CICHORIUM, Succory. See Botany *Index*.

CICINDELA, the Sparkler, in *Zoology*, a genus of infects belonging to the order of coleoptera. See Entomology *Index*.

CICISBEO, an Italian term, which in its etymology fignifies a *whifperer;* a term beftowed in Italy both on lovers, and thofe who to outward appearance act as fuch, waiting on married ladies with as much attention and refpect as if they were their lovers. This Italian cuftom has been fpoken of very reproachfully by fome writers: Mr Baretti has taken great pains to vindicate it. He afcribes it to a fpirit of gallantry, derived from the ages of chivalry, and much heightened and refined by the revival of the Platonic philofophy in Italy, about the thirteenth century; and by the verfes of Petrarch in compliment to the beautiful Laura, and his numerous imitators.

CICLUT, or Cicluch, a ftrong frontier town of Dalmatia, fituated on the river Narentha, in E. Long. 18. 22. N. Lat. 43. 29. It is furrounded with walls built in the ancient manner, and was taken by the Venetians from the Turks in 1694.

CICONES, a people of Thrace near the Hebrus. Ulyffes at his return from Troy conquered them, and plundered their chief city Ifmarus. They tore to pieces Orpheus for his obfcene indulgencies.

CICUTA, properly fignifies a hollow intercepted between two knots, of the ftalks or reeds of which the ancient fhepherds ufed to make their pipes. It is now, however, generally ufed to fignify the water-hemlock, and alfo the common fort; but Linnæus has defcribed the latter under the old name of Conium. See that article.

There are three fpecies of water-hemlock; the virofa, the bulbifera, and the maculata. Of thefe the firft is the only one remarkable, and that for the poifonous qualities of its roots, which have been often known to deftroy children who ate them for parfnips.

Cicuta is alfo ufed, chiefly among the ancients, for the juice or liquor expreffed from the above plant, being the common poifon wherewith the ftate criminals at Athens were put to death: Though fome have fuggefted, that the poifonous draught to which the Athenians doomed their criminals was an infpiffated juice compounded of the juice of *cicuta* and fome other corrofive herbs.

Socrates drank the *cicuta*.—Plato, in his dialogue on the immortality of the foul, obferves, that "The executioner advifed Socrates not to talk, for fear of caufing the *cicuta* to operate too flowly." M. Petit, in his *Obfervationes Mifcellaneæ*, remarks, that this advice was not given by the executioner out of humanity, but to fave the *cicuta;* for he was only allowed fo much poifon per ann. which, if he exceeded, he was to furnifh at his own expence. This conftruction is confirmed by a paffage in Plutarch: the executioner who adminiftered the *cicuta* to Phocion, not having enough, Phocion gave him money to buy more; obferving by the way, "that it was odd enough, that at Athens a man muft pay for every thing, even for his own death."

CID, Roderigo Dias le, a Caftilian officer, who was very fucceffful againft the Moors, under Ferdinand II. king of Caftile; but whofe name would hardly have been remembered, if Corneille had not made his paffion for Chimene the fubject of an admired tragedy, founded on a fimple but affecting incident. The Cid is defperately in love with Chimene, daughter of the count de Gomes; but he is at variance with the count, and being challenged by him, kills him in a duel. The conflict between love and honour in the breaft of Chimene, who at length pardons and marries the Cid, forms the beauty of the piece. He died in 1098.

CIDARIS, in antiquity, the mitre ufed by the Jewifh high-priefts. The Rabbins fay, that the bonnet ufed by priefts in general was made of a piece of linen cloth 16 yards long, which covered their heads like a helmet or turban; and they allow no other difference between the high-prieft's bonnet and that of other priefts, than that the one is flatter, and more in the form of a turban; whereas that worn by ordinary priefts rofe fomething more in a point.

CIGNANI, Carlo, an Italian painter, was born at Bologna in 1628: and was the difciple of Albani. He was efteemed by Pope Clement XI. who nominated him prince of the academy of Bologna, and loaded him with favours. Cignani died at Forli in 1719. The cupola of la Madona del Fuoco at Forli, in which he reprefented Paradife, is an admirable work. His principal pictures are at Rome, Bologna, and Forli.

CIGOLI, or Civoli, the painter. See Civoli.

CILIA, the Eye-lashes. See Anatomy *Index*.

CILIATED leaf, among botanical writers, one furrounded with parallel filaments fomewhat like the hairs of the eyelids.

CILICIA, an ancient kingdom of Afia, lying between the 36th and 40th degree of north latitude: bounded on the eaft by Syria, or rather by Mount Amanus, which feparates it from that kingdom; by Pamphylia on the weft; by Ifauria, Cappadocia, and Armenia Minor, on the north; and by the Mediterranean fea on the fouth. It is fo furrounded by fteep and craggy mountains, chiefly Taurus and Amanus, that it may be defended by a handful of refolute men againft a numerous army, there being but three narrow paffes leading into it, commonly called *Pylæ Ciliciæ*, or the gates of Cilicia; one on the fide of Cappadocia,

padocia, called the *Pass of Mount Taurus;* and the other two called the *Pass of Mount Amanus*, and the *Pass of Syria*. The whole country was divided by the ancients into Cilicia Aspera, and Cilicia Campestris; the former called by the Greeks *Trachæa* or *Stony*, from its abounding so with stones; and to this day the whole province is called by the Turks, *Tas Wileieth*, or *the Stony Province*.

According to Josephus, Cilicia was first peopled by Tarshish the son of Javan, and his descendants, whence the whole country was named *Tarsus*. The ancient inhabitants were in process of time driven out by a colony of Phœnicians, who under the conduct of *Cilix*, first settled in the island of Cyprus, and from thence passed into the country which, from their leader, they called *Cilicia*. Afterwards several other colonies from different nations settled in this kingdom, particularly from Syria and Greece; whence the Cilicians in some places used the Greek tongue, in others the Syriac; but the former greatly corrupted by the Persian, the predominant language of the country being a dialect of that tongue. We find no mention of the kings of Cilicia after their settlement in that country, till the time of Cyrus, to whom they voluntarily submitted, continuing subject to the Persians till the overthrow of that empire; but governed to the time of Artaxerxes Mnemon, by kings of their own nation. After the downfal of the Persian empire, Cilicia became a province of that of Macedon; and, on the death of Alexander, fell to the share of Seleucus, and continued under his descendants till it was reduced to a Roman province by Pompey. As a proconsular province, it was first governed by Appius Claudius Pulcher, and after him by Cicero, who reduced several strong holds on Mount Amanus, in which some Cilicians had fortified themselves, and held out against his predecessor. It was on this occasion that the division, formerly mentioned, into Trachæa and Campestris, took place. The latter became a Roman province; but the former was governed by kings appointed by the Romans, till the reign of Vespasian, when the family of Tracondementus being extinct, this part also made a province of the empire, and the whole divided into Cilicia *Prima*, Cilicia *Secunda*, and Isauria; the first took in all Cilicia Campestris, the second the coast of Cilicia Trachæa, and the last the inland parts of the same division. It is now a province of Asiatic Turkey; and is called *Caramania*, having been the last province of the Caramanian kingdom which held out against the Ottoman race.

That part of Cilicia called by the ancients *Cilicia Campestris*, was, if we believe Ammianus Marcellinus, one of the most fruitful countries of Asia; but the western part equally barren, though famous, even to this day, for an excellent breed of horses, of which 600 are yearly sent to Constantinople for the special use of the Grand Signior. The air in the inland parts is reckoned wholesome; but that on the sea-coast very dangerous, especially to strangers.

The rivers of any note are the Pyramus, which rises on the north side of Mount Taurus, and empties itself into the Mediterranean between Issus and Magarassus; and the Cydnus, which springs from the Antitaurus, passes through Tarsus, and disembogues itself into the Mediterranean. This last is famous for the rapidity of its stream, and the coldness of its waters, which proved very dangerous to Alexander the Great.

The Cilicians, if we believe the Greek and Roman historians, were a rough unpolished race of people, unfair in their dealings, cruel, and liars even to a proverb. In the Roman times they became greatly addicted to piracy. They first began, in the time of the Mithridatic war, to infest the neighbouring provinces along with the Pamphylians; and, being emboldened with success, they soon ventured as far as the coasts of Greece and Italy, where they took a vast number of slaves, whom they sold to the Cypriots and the kings of Egypt and Syria. They were, however, at last defeated and entirely suppressed by Pompey the Great. See *(History of)* ROME.

CILICIA Terra, in the natural history of the ancients, a bituminous substance, improperly called an earth, which, by boiling, became tough like bird-lime, and was used instead of that substance to cover the stocks of the vines for preserving them from the worms. It probably served in this office in a sort of double capacity, driving away these animals by its nauseous smell, and entangling them if they chanced to get amongst it.

CILICIUM, in Hebrew antiquity, a sort of habit made of coarse stuff, formerly in use among the Jews in times of mourning and distress. It is the same with what the Septuagint and Hebrew versions called sackcloth.

CILLEY, an ancient and famous town of Germany, in the circle of Austria, and in Stiria. It is the capital of a country of the same name, and is situated on the river Saan, in E. Long. 15. 15. N. Lat. 46. 31.

CILURNUM, (Notitia); a town of Britain: thought to be Collerton, or Collerford, in Northumberland; but Walwic, or Scilicester, according to Camden.

CIMA, or SIMA, in *Architecture*, the same with Cymatium, or OGEE.

CIAMBUE, GIOVANI, a renowned painter, born at Florence in 1240, and the first who revived the art of painting in Italy. He painted, according to the custom of those times, in fresco and in distemper. colours in oil not being then found out. He excelled in architecture as well as in painting; and was concerned in the fabric of Sancta Maria del Fior at Florence, during which employment he died at the age of 60, and left many disciples.

CIMBRI, an ancient Celtic nation, inhabiting the northern parts of Germany. They are said to have been descended from the Asiatic *Cimmerians*, and to have taken the name of *Cimbri* when they changed their old habitations. When they first became remarkable, they inhabited chiefly the peninsula, now called *Jutland*, and by the ancients *Cimbrica Chersonesus*. About 113 years before Christ, they left their peninsula with their wives and children; and joining the Teutones, a neighbouring nation, took their journey southward in quest of a better country. They first fell upon the Boii, a Gaulish nation, situated near the Hercynian forest. Here they were repulsed, and obliged to move nearer the Roman provinces. The republic being then alarmed at the approach of such multitudes of barbarians, sent an army against them under

Cimbri.

under the conſul Papirius Carbo. On the approach of the Roman army, the Cimbri made propoſals of peace. The conſul pretended to accept of it; but having thrown them into a diſadvantageous ſituation, treacherouſly attacked their camp. His perfidy was rewarded as it deſerved; the Cimbri ran to arms, and not only repulſed the Romans, but, attacking them in their turn, utterly defeated them, and obliged the ſhattered remains of their forces to conceal themſelves in the neighbouring foreſts. After this victory the Cimbri entered Tranſalpine Gaul, which they quickly filled with ſlaughter and deſolation. Here they continued five or ſix years, when another Roman army under the conſul Silanus marched againſt them. This general met with no better ſucceſs than Carbo had done. His army was routed at the firſt onſet; in conſequence of which, all Narbonne Gaul was expoſed at once to the ravages of theſe barbarians.

About 105 years before Chriſt, the Cimbri began to threaten the Roman empire itſelf with deſtruction. The Gauls marched from all parts with a deſign to join them, and to invade Italy. The Roman army was commanded by the proconſul Cæpio, and the conſul Mallius; but as theſe two commanders could not agree, they were adviſed to ſeparate, and divide their forces. This advice proved the ruin of the whole army. The Cimbri immediately fell upon a ſtrong detachment of the conſular army commanded by M. Aurelius Scaurus, which they cut off to a man, and made Scaurus himſelf priſoner. Mallius being greatly intimidated by this defeat, deſired a reconciliation with Cæpio, but was haughtily refuſed. He moved nearer the conſul, however, with his army, that the enemy might not be defeated without his having a ſhare in the action. The Cimbri, by this movement, imagining the commanders had made up their quarrel, ſent ambaſſadors to Mallius with propoſals of peace. As they could not help going through Cæpio's camp, he ordered them to be brought before him; but finding they were empowered to treat only with Mallius, he could ſcarce be reſtrained from putting them to death. His troops, however, forced him to confer with Mallius about the propoſals ſent by the barbarians: but as Cæpio went to the conſul's tent againſt his will, ſo he oppoſed him in every thing; contradicted with great obſtinacy, and inſulted him in the groſſeſt manner. The deputies on their return acquainted their countrymen that the miſunderſtanding between the Roman commanders ſtill ſubſiſted; upon which the Cimbri attacked the camp of Cæpio, and the Gauls that of Mallius. Both were forced, and the Romans ſlaughtered without mercy. Eighty thouſand citizens and allies of Rome, with 40,000 ſervants and ſutlers, periſhed on that fatal day. In ſhort, of the two Roman armies only 10 men, with the two generals, eſcaped to carry the news of ſo dreadful a defeat. The conquerors deſtroyed all the ſpoil, purſuant to a vow they had made before the battle. The gold and ſilver they threw into the Rhone, drowned the horſes they had taken, and put to death all the priſoners.

The Romans were thrown into the utmoſt conſternation on the news of ſo terrible an overthrow. They ſaw themſelves threatened with a deluge of Cimbri and Gauls, numerous enough to overrun the whole country. They did not, however, deſpair. A new army was raiſed with incredible expedition; no citizen whatever who was fit to bear arms being exempted. On this occaſion alſo, fencing-maſters were firſt introduced into the Roman camp; by which means the ſoldiers were ſoon rendered in a manner invincible. Marius, who was at that time in high reputation on account of his victories in Africa, was choſen commander, and waited for the Cimbri in Tranſalpine Gaul: but they had reſolved to enter Italy by two different ways; the Cimbri over the eaſtern, and the Teutones and other allies over the weſtern Alps. The Roman general, therefore, marched to oppoſe the latter, and defeated the Ambrones and Teutones with great ſlaughter *. The Cimbri, in the mean time, entered Italy, and ſtruck the whole country with terror. Catullus and Sylla attempted to oppoſe them; but their ſoldiers were ſo intimidated by the fierce countenances and terrible appearance of theſe barbarians, that nothing could prevent their flying before them. The city of Rome was now totally defenceleſs; and, had the Cimbri only marched briſkly forwards they had undoubtedly become maſters of it; but they waited in expectation of being joined by their allies the Ambrones and Teutones, not having heard of their defeat by Marius, till the ſenate had time to recal him to the defence of his country. By their order he joined his army to that of Catullus and Sylla; and upon that union was declared commander in chief. The Roman army conſiſted of 52,300 men. The cavalry of the Cimbri were no more than 15,000, but their foot ſeemed innumerable; for, being drawn up in a ſquare, they are ſaid to have covered 30 furlongs. The Cimbri attacked the Romans with the utmoſt fury; but, being unaccuſtomed to bear the heats of Italy, they ſoon began to loſe their ſtrength, and were eaſily overcome. But they had put it out of their power to fly; for, that they might keep their ranks the better, they had, like true barbarians, tied themſelves together with cords faſtened to their belts, ſo that the Romans made a moſt terrible havoc of them. The battle was therefore ſoon over, and the whole day employed only in the moſt terrible butchery. An hundred and twenty thouſand were killed on the field of battle, and 60 000 taken priſoners. The victorious Romans then marched to the enemy's camp, where they had a new battle to fight with the women, whom they found more fierce than even their huſbands had been. From their carts and waggons, which formed a kind of fortification, they diſcharged ſhowers of darts and arrows on friends and foes without diſtinction. They firſt ſuffocated their children in their arms, and then put an end to their own lives. The greateſt part of them hanged themſelves on trees. One was found hanging at a cart with two of her children at her heels. Many of the men, for want of trees and ſtakes, tied ſtrings in running knots about their necks, and faſtened them to the tails of their horſes, and the horns and feet of their oxen, in order to ſtrangle themſelves that way; and thus the whole multitude was deſtroyed.

* See *Ambrones* and *Teutones*.

The country of the Cimbri, which, after this terrible cataſtrophe, was left a mere deſert, was again peopled by the Scythians; who being driven by Pompey out of that vaſt ſpace between the Euxine and the Caſpian ſea, marched towards the north and weſt of Europe,

Europe, ſubduing all the nations they met with in their way. They conquered Ruſſia, Saxony, Weſtphalia, and other countries as far as Finland, Norway, and Sweden. It is pretended that Wodin their leader, traverſed ſo many countries, and endeavoured to ſubdue them, only with a view to excite the people againſt the Romans; and that the ſpirit of animoſity which he had excited operated ſo powerfully after his death, that the northern nations combined to attack it, and never ceaſed their incurſions till it was totally ſubverted.

CIMEX, or Bug, in *Zoology*, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of hemiptera. See Entomology *Index*.

The methods of expelling houſe bugs are various, as oil of turpentine, the ſmoke of corn-mint, of narrow-leaved wild creſs, of herb-robert, of the reddiſh agaric, of muſtard, Guinea pepper, peats, or turf, &c. See alſo Bug and Cimicifuga.

CIMICIFUGA. See Botany *Index*.

The cimicifuga fœtida has obtained the name of *cimicifuga*, or *bugbane*, both in Siberia and Tartary, from its property of driving away thoſe inſects; and the botaniſts of thoſe parts of Europe which are infeſted with them have long deſired to naturaliſe it in their ſeveral countries. Gmelin mentions that in Siberia the natives alſo uſe it as an evacuant in dropſy, and that its effects are violently emetic and draſtic.

CIMMERII, anciently a people near the Palus Mæotis. They invaded Aſia Minor 1284 years before Chriſt, and ſeized upon the kingdom of Cyaxares. After they had been maſters of the country for 28 years, they were driven back by Alyates king of Lydia. The name alſo of another nation on the weſtern coaſt of Italy. The country which they inhabited was ſuppoſed to be ſo gloomy, that to expreſs a great obſcurity, the expreſſion of *Cimmerian darkneſs* has proverbially been uſed; and Homer, according to Plutarch, drew his images of hell and Pluto from the gloomy and diſmal country where they dwelt.

CIMMERIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town at the mouth of the Palus Mæotis; from which the Boſphorus Cimmerius is named; that ſtrait which joins the Euxine and the Palus Mæotis. *Cimmerii* was the name of the people (Homer): and here ſtood the Promontorium Cimmerium (Ptolemy); and hence probably the modern appellation *Crim*.

Cimmerium, in *Ancient Geography*, a place near Baiæ, in Campania, where formerly ſtood the cave of the ſibyl. The people were called *Cimmerii*, who living in ſubterraneous habitations, from which they iſſued in the night to commit robberies and other acts of violence, never ſaw the light of the ſun (Homer). To give a natural account of this fable, Feſtus ſays, there was a valley ſurrounded with a pretty high ridge, which precluded the morning and evening ſun.

CIMOLIA terra, in *Natural Hiſtory*, a name applied by the ancients to an earth, at one time much employed in medicine; but which later ages have ſuppoſed to be no other than our tobacco-pipe clay and fullers earth.

The cimolia terra of the ancients was found in ſeveral of the iſlands of the Archipelago, particularly in the iſland of Cimolus, from whence it has its name. It was uſed with great ſucceſs in the cryſipelas, inflammations, and the like, being applied by way of cataplaſm to the part. They alſo uſed, as we do, what we call *cimolia*, or fullers earth, for the cleanſing of clothes. This earth of the ancients, though ſo long diſregarded, and by many ſuppoſed to be loſt, is yet very plentiful in Argentiere (the ancient Cimolus), Sphanto, and many of thoſe iſlands. It is a maſſ of a lax and crumbly texture, and a pure bright white colour, very ſoft to the touch. It adheres firmly to the tongue, and, if thrown into water, raiſes a little hiſſing and ebullition, and moulders to a fine powder. It makes a conſiderable effervescence with acids, and ſuffers no change of colour in the fire. Theſe are the characters of what the ancients called ſimply *terra cimolia*; but beſides this, they had from the ſame place another earth which they called by the ſame general name, but diſtinguiſhed by the epithet purple, *purpureſcens*. This they deſcribed to be fattiſh, cold to the touch, of a mixed purple colour, and nearly as hard as a ſtone. And this was evidently the ſubſtance we call *ſteatites*, or the *ſoap-rock*, common in Cornwall, and alſo in the iſland of Argentiere, or Cimolus.

Cimolia Alba, the officinal name of the earth of which we now make tobacco-pipes. Its diſtinguiſhing characters are, that it is a denſe, compact, heavy earth, of a dull white colour, and very cloſe texture; it will not eaſily break between the fingers, and ſlightly ſtains the ſkin in handling. It adheres firmly to the tongue; melts very ſlowly in the mouth, and is not readily diffuſible in water. It is found in many places. That of the iſle of Wight is much eſteemed for its colour. Great plenty of it is found near Pole in Dorſetſhire, and near Wedenſbury in Staffordſhire.

Cimolia Nigra, is of a dark lead colour, hard, dry, and heavy: of a ſmooth compact texture, and not viſcid: it does not colour the hands; crumbles when dry; adheres to the tongue; diffuſes ſlowly in water; and is not acted upon by acids. It burns perfectly white, and acquires a conſiderable hardneſs. The chief pits for this clay are near Northampton, where it is uſed in the manufacture of tobacco-pipes. It is alſo mixed with the critche clay of Derbyſhire, in the proportion of one part to three, in the manufacture of the hard reddiſh brown ware.

CIMOLUS, in *Ancient Geography*, one of the Cyclades, now called *Argentiere*.

CIMON, an Athenian, ſon of Miltiades and Hegiſipyle. He was famous for his debaucheries in his youth, and the reformation of his morals when arrived to years of diſcretion. He behaved with great courage at the battle of Salamis, and rendered himſelf popular by his munificence and valour. He defeated the Perſian fleet, took 200 ſhips, and totally routed their land army, the very ſame day, A. U. C. 284. The money that he had obtained by his victories was not applied for his own private uſe, but with it he fortified and embelliſhed the city. He ſome time after loſt all his popularity, and was baniſhed by the Athenians, who declared war againſt the Lacedæmonians. He was recalled from his exile, and at his return he made a reconciliation between Lacedæmon and his countrymen. He was afterwards appointed to carry on the war againſt Perſia in Egypt and Cyprus, with a fleet of 200 ſhips, and on the coaſt of Aſia he gave battle to the enemy, and totally ruined their fleet, A. U. C. 304.

He died as he was besieging the town of Citium in Cyprus. He may be called the last of the Greeks whose spirit and boldness defeated the armies of the barbarians. He was such an inveterate enemy to the Persian power, that he formed a plan of totally destroying it; and in his wars he had so reduced the Persians, that they promised in a treaty not to pass the Chelidonian islands with their fleet, or to approach within a day's journey of the Grecian seas. See ATTICA.

CINALOA, a province of Mexico in South America, abounding in corn, cattle, and cotton; and rendered extremely picturesque by a number of beautiful cascades of clear water that fall down from the mountains. It lies on the eastern coast of the sea of California, and has a town of the same name, situated in N. Lat. 26°.

CINARA, the ARTICHOKE. See CYNARA, BOTANY *Index*.

CINCHONA. See BOTANY *Index*.

According to some, the Peruvians learned the use of the bark of this tree by observing certain animals affected with intermittents instinctively led to it; while others say, that a Peruvian having an ague, was cured by happening to drink of a pool which, from some trees having fallen into it, tasted of cinchona; and its use in gangrene is said to have originated from its curing one in an aguish patient. About the year 1640, the lady of the Spanish viceroy, the Comitissa del Cinchon, was cured by the bark, which has therefore been called *Cortex* or *Pulvis Comitissæ Cinchonæ*, *Chinachina*, or *Chinchina*, *Kinakina* or *Kinkina*, *Quinaquina* or *Quinquina*; and from the interest which the cardinal de Lugo and the Jesuit fathers took in its distribution, it has been called *Cortex* or *Pulvis Cardinalis de Lugo*, *Jesuiticus*, *Patrum*, *&c.*

On its first introduction into Europe, it was reprobated by many eminent physicians; and at different periods long after, it was considered a dangerous remedy; but its character, in process of time, became very universally established. For a number of years, the bark which is rolled up into short thick quills, with a rough coat, and a bright cinnamon colour in the inside, which broke brittle, and was sound, had an aromatic flavour, a bitterish astringent taste, with a degree of aromatic warmth, was esteemed the best; though some esteemed the large pieces as of equal goodness. During the time of the late war, in the year 1779, the Hussar frigate took a Spanish ship, loaded principally with Peruvian bark, which was much larger, thicker, and of a deeper reddish colour than the bark in common use. Soon after it was brought to London, it was tried in St Bartholomew's hospital, and in other hospitals about town, and was said to be more efficacious than the quill bark. This put practitioners upon examining into the history of the bark, on trying experiments with it, and of making comparative trials of its effects with those of the bark in common use on patients labouring under intermittent complaints. In July 1782, Dr William Saunders published an account of this red bark, in which he says that the small quill bark used in England is either the bark of young trees, or of the twigs or branches of the old ones; and that the large bark, called the *red bark* from the deep colour, is the bark of the trunk of the old trees; and he mentions a Mr Arnot, who himself gathered the bark from the trees in Peru; and Monsr. Condamine, who gives an account of the tree in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris in the year 1738; who both say, that taking the bark from an old tree effectually kills it; but that most of the young trees which are barked recover, and continue healthy; and that for these reasons the Spaniards now barked the younger trees for foreign markets, though they still imported into Spain some of the bark of the old trees, which they esteemed to be much more efficacious than what was got from the young. From these accounts Dr Saunders concludes, that the large red bark brought to London in the year 1779 was of the same kind as that used by Sydenham and Morton, as it answers to the description of the bark used in their time, which is given by Dale and other writers on the materia medica, who were their contemporaries. Dr Saunders says, that it is not only stronger and more resinous, but likewise more efficacious and certain in its effect, than the common bark, and had cured many agues after the other had failed.

A species of cinchona has also been discovered in the West India islands, particularly in Jamaica. It is accurately described by Dr Wright, under the title of *Cinchona Jamaicensis*, in a paper published in the Philosophical Transactions. In Jamaica it is called the *sea-side beech*, and grows from 20 to 40 feet high. The white, furrowed, thick outer bark is not used; the dark brown inner bark has the common flavour, with a mixed kind of a taste, at first of horse-radish and ginger, becoming at last bitter and astringent. It seems to give out more extractive matter than the cinchona officinalis. Some of it was imported from St Lucia, in consequence of its having been used with advantage in the army and navy during the last war; and it has lately been treated of at considerable length by Dr Kentish, under the title of *St Lucia bark*. The fresh bark is found to be considerably emetic and cathartic, which properties it is said to lose on drying.

The pale and the red are chiefly in use in Britain. The pale is brought to us in pieces of different sizes, either flat or quilled, and the powder is rather of a lighter colour than that of cinnamon. The red is generally in much larger, thicker, flattish pieces, but sometimes also in the form of quills, and its powder is reddish like that of Armenian bole. As already observed, it is much more resinous, and possesses the sensible qualities of the cinchona in a much higher degree than the other sorts; and the more nearly the other kinds resemble the red bark, the better they are now considered. The red bark is heavy, firm, sound, and dry; friable between the teeth; does not separate into fibres; and breaks, not shivery, but short, close, and smooth. It has three layers; the outer is thin, rugged, of a reddish brown colour, but frequently covered with mossy matter; the middle is thicker, more compact, darker coloured, very resinous, brittle, and yields first to the pestle; the inmost is more woody, fibrous, and of a brighter red.

The Peruvian bark yields its virtues both to cold and boiling water; but the decoction is thicker, gives out its taste more readily, and forms an ink with a chalybeate more suddenly than the fresh cold infusion. This infusion, however, contains at least as much extractive

Cinchona. tractive matter, but more in a ſtate of ſolution; and its colour, on ſtanding ſome time with the chalybeate, becomes darker, while that of the decoction becomes more faint. When they are of a certain age, the addition of a chalybeate renders them green; and when this is the caſe, they are found to be in a ſtate of fermentation, and effete. Mild or cauſtic alkalies, or lime, precipitate the extractive matter, which in the caſe of the cauſtic alkali is rediſſolved by a farther addition of the alkali. Lime-water precipitates leſs from a freſh infuſion than from a freſh decoction; and in the precipitate of this laſt ſome mild earth is perceptible. The infuſion is by age reduced to the ſame ſtate with the freſh decoction, and then they depoſite nearly an equal quantity of mild earth and extractive matter; ſo that lime-water, as well as a chalybeate, may be uſed as a teſt of the relative ſtrength, and periſhable nature of the different preparations, and of different barks. Accordingly cold infuſions are found by experiments to be leſs periſhable than decoctions; infuſions and decoctions of the red bark than thoſe of the pale; thoſe of the red bark, however, are found by length of time to ſeparate more mild earth with the lime-water, and more extractive matter. Lime-water, as precipitating the extractive matter, appears an equally improper and diſagreeable menſtruum.

Water is found to ſuſpend the reſin by means of much leſs gum than has been ſuppoſed. Alcohol extracts a bitterneſs, but no aſtringency, from a reſiduum of 20 affuſions of cold water; and water extracts aſtringency, but no bitterneſs from the reſiduum of as many affuſions of alcohol. The reſiduum in both is inſipid.

From many ingenious experiments made on the Peruvian bark by Dr Irvine, which are now publiſhed in a diſſertation which gained the prize medal given by the Harveian Society of Edinburgh for 1783, the power of different menſtrua, as acting upon Peruvian bark, is aſcertained with greater accuracy than had before been done; and it appears, that with reſpect to comparative power, the fluids after mentioned act in the order in which they are placed.

Dulcified ſpirit of vitriol.
Cauſtic ley.
French brandy.
Rheniſh wine.
Soft water.
Vinegar and water.
Dulcified ſpirit of nitre.
Mild volatile alkali.
Alcohol.
Mild vegetable alkali.
Lime-water.

The antiſeptic powers of vinegar and bark united are double the ſum of thoſe taken ſeparately. The aſtringent power of the bark is increaſed by ſulphuric acid; and the bitter taſte is deſtroyed by it.

The officinal preparations of the bark are, 1. The powder: of this, the firſt parcel that paſſes the ſieve being the moſt reſinous and brittle layer, is the ſtrongeſt. 2. The extract: the watery and ſpirituous extract conjoined form the moſt proper preparations of this kind. 3. The reſin: this cannot perhaps be obtained ſeparate from the gummy part, nor would it be deſirable. 4. Spirituous tincture: this is beſt made with proof-ſpirit. 5. The decoction: this preparation, though frequently employed, is yet in many reſpects inferior even to a ſimple watery infuſion.

The beſt form is that of powder, in which the conſtituent parts are in the moſt effectual proportion. The cold infuſion, which can be made in a few minutes by agitation, the ſpirituous tincture; and the extract, are likewiſe proper in this reſpect. For covering the taſte, different patients require different vehicles; liquorice, aromatics, acids, port wine, ſmall beer, porter, milk, butter-milk, &c. are frequently employed; and thoſe who diſlike the taſte of the bark itſelf, vary in their accounts to which the preference is due; or it may be given in form of electuary with currant jelly, or with brandy or rum.

Practitioners have differed much with regard to the mode of operation of the Peruvian bark. Some have aſcribed its virtues entirely to a ſtimulant power. But while the ſtrongeſt and moſt permanent ſtimuli have by no means the ſame effect with bark in the cure of diſeaſes, the bark itſelf ſhows hardly any ſtimulant power, either from its action on the ſtomach, or on other ſenſible parts to which it is applied. From its action on dead animal fibres, there can be no doubt of its being a powerful aſtringent; and from its good effects in certain caſes of diſeaſe, there is reaſon to preſume that it is a ſtill more powerful tonic. To this tonic power ſome think that its action as an antiſeptic is to be entirely attributed; but that, independently of this, it has a very powerful effect in reſiſting the ſeptic proceſs to which animal ſubſtances are naturally ſubjected, appears beyond all diſpute, from its effects in reſiſting putrefaction, not only in dead animal ſolids, but even in animal fluids, when entirely detached from the living body.

But although it be admited that the Peruvian bark acts powerfully as an aſtringent, as a tonic, and as an antiſeptic; yet theſe principles will by no means explain all the effects derived from it in the cure of diſeaſes. And accordingly, from no artificial combination in which theſe powers are combined, or in which they exiſt even to a higher degree, can the good conſequences reſulting from Peruvian bark be obtained. Many practitioners, therefore, are diſpoſed to view it as a ſpecific. If by a ſpecific we mean an infallible remedy, it cannot indeed be conſidered as entitled to that appellation; but in as far as it is a very powerful remedy, of the operation of which no ſatisfactory explanation has yet been given, it may with great propriety be denominated a ſpecific. But whatever its mode of operation may be, there can be no doubt that it is daily employed with ſucceſs in a great variety of different diſeaſes.

It was firſt introduced, as has already been ſaid, for the cure of intermittent fevers; and in theſe, when properly exhibited, it rarely fails of ſucceſs. Practitioners, however, have differed with regard to the beſt mode of exhibition; ſome prefer giving it juſt before the fit, ſome during the fit, others immediately after it. Some again, order it in the quantity of an ounce, between the fits; the doſe being the more frequent and larger according to the frequency of the fits; and this mode of exhibition, although it may perhaps ſometimes lead to the employment of more bark than

Cinchona. is neceſſary, we conſider as upon the whole preferable, from being beſt ſuited to moſt ſtomachs. The requiſite quantity is very different in different caſes; and in many vernal intermittents it ſeems even hardly neceſſary.

It often pukes or purges, and ſometimes oppreſſes the ſtomach. Theſe, or any other effects that may take place, are to be counteracted by remedies particularly appropriated to them. Thus, vomiting is often reſtrained by exhibiting it in wine; looſeneſs, by combining it with opium; and oppreſſion at ſtomach, by the addition of an aromatic. But unleſs for obviating particular occurrences, it is more ſucceſsful when exhibited in its ſimple ſtate than with any addition; and there ſeems to be little ground for believing that its powers are increaſed by crude ſal ammoniac, or any other additions which have frequently been made.

It is now given, from the very commencement of the diſeaſe, without previous evacuations, which, with the delay of the bark, or under doſes of it, by retarding the cure, often ſeem to induce abdominal inflammation, ſchirrus, jaundice, hectic, dropſy, &c. ſymptoms formerly imputed to the premature or intemperate uſe of the bark, but which are beſt obviated by its early and large uſe. It is to be continued not only till the paroxyſms ceaſe, but till the natural appetite, ſtrength, and complexion, return. Its uſe is then to be gradually left off, and repeated at proper intervals to ſecure againſt a relapſe; to which, however unaccountable, independently of the recovery of vigour, there often ſeems to be a peculiar diſpoſition, and eſpecially when the wind blows from the eaſt. Although, however, moſt evacuants conjoined with the Peruvian bark in intermittents are rather prejudicial than otherwiſe, yet it is of advantage, previous to its uſe, to empty the alimentary canal, particularly the ſtomach; and on this account good effects are often obtained from premiſing an emetic.

It is a medicine which ſeems not only ſuited to both formed and latent intermittents, but to that ſtate of fibre on which all rigidly periodical diſeaſes ſeem to depend; as periodical pain, inflammation, hemorrhagy, ſpaſm, cough, loſs of external ſenſe, &c.

Bark is now uſed by ſome in all continued fevers: at the ſame time attention is paid to keep the bowels clean, and to promote when neceſſary the evacuation of redundant bile; always, however, ſo as to weaken as little as poſſible.

In confluent ſmall-pox, it promotes languid eruption and ſuppuration, diminiſhes the fever through the whole courſe of it, and prevents or corrects putreſcence and gangrene.

In gangrenous ſore throats it is much uſed, as it is externally and internally in every ſpecies of gangrene.

In contagious dyſentery, after due evacuation, it has been uſed by the mouth, and by injection with and without opium.

In all thoſe hemorrhagies called *paſſive*, and which it is allowed all hemorrhagies are very apt to become, and likewiſe in other increaſed diſcharges, it is much uſed; and in certain undefined caſes of hæmoptyſis, ſome allege that it is remarkably effectual when joined with an abſorbent.

It is uſed for obviating the diſpoſition to nervous and convulſive diſeaſes; and ſome have great confidence in it joined with ſulphuric acid, in caſes of phthiſis, ſcrophula, ill-conditioned ulcers, rickets, ſcurvy, and in ſtates of convaleſcence. Cinchona ‖ Cineas.

In theſe caſes in general, notwithſtanding the uſe of the acid, it is proper to conjoin it with a milk diet.

In dropſy, not depending on any particular local affection, it is often alternated or conjoined with diuretics, or other evacuants; and by its early exhibition after the water is once drawn off, or even begins to be freely diſcharged, a freſh accumulation is prevented, and a radical cure obtained. In obſtinate venereal caſes, particularly thoſe which appear under the form of pains in the bones, the Peruvian bark is often ſucceſsfully ſubjoined to mercury, or even given in conjunction with it.

CINCINNATUS, the Roman dictator, was taken from the plough, to be advanced to the dignity of conſul, in which office he reſtored public tranquillity, and then returned to his rural employments. Being called forth a ſecond time to be dictator, he conquered the enemies of Rome, and refuſing all rewards, retired again to his farm, after he had been dictator only 16 days. The ſame circumſtance occurred once more in the 80th year of his age. He died 376 years before Chriſt.

Order of CINCINNATUS, or *the Cincinnati*, a ſociety which was eſtabliſhed in America ſoon after the peace, and conſiſts of the generals and officers of the army and navy of the United States. This inſtitution, called after the name of the Roman dictator mentioned in the preceding article, was intended to perpetuate the memory of the revolution, the friendſhip of the officers, and the union of the ſtates; and alſo to raiſe a fund for the relief of poor widows and orphans, whoſe huſbands and fathers had fallen during the war, and for their deſcendants. The ſociety was ſubdivided into ſtate ſocieties, which were to meet on the 4th of July, and with other buſineſs depute a number of their members to convene annually in general meetings. The members of the inſtitution were to be diſtinguiſhed by wearing a medal, emblematical of the deſign of the ſociety; and the honours and advantages were to be hereditary in the eldeſt male heirs, and in default of male iſſue, in the collateral male heirs. Honorary members were to be admitted, but without the hereditary advantages of the ſociety; and provided their number ſhould never exceed the ratio of one to four of the officers or their deſcendants. Though the apparent deſigns of this ſociety were harmleſs and honourable, it did not eſcape popular jealouſy. Views of a deeper nature were imputed to the framers, and the inſtitution was cenſured and oppoſed as giving birth to a military nobility, of a dangerous ariſtocratic power, which might ultimately prove ruinous to the liberties of the new empire. But the principal ground of apprehenſion was the ſuppoſed right of inheritance connected with this honour to render it hereditary; which, however, has been given up and totally diſclaimed by the ſociety.

CINCTURE, in *Architecture*, a ring, liſt, or orlo, at the top and bottom of the ſhaft of a column, ſeparating the ſhaft at one end from the baſe, and at the other from the capital.

CINEAS, a Theſſalian, miniſter and friend to Pyrrhus

rhus king of Epirus. He was ſent to Rome by his maſter to ſue for a peace, which he, however, could not obtain. He told Pyrrhus that the Roman ſenate was a venerable aſſembly of kings; and obſerved, that to fight with them was to fight againſt another Hydra. He was of ſuch a retentive memory, that the day after his arrival at Rome he could call every ſenator and knight by his name.

CINERITIOUS, an appellation given to different ſubſtances, on account of their reſembling aſhes either in colour or conſiſtence; hence it is that the cortical part of the brain has ſometimes got this epithet.

CINNA, L. Corn. a Roman who oppreſſed the republic with his cruelties. He was baniſhed by Octavius for attempting to make the fugitive ſlaves free. He joined himſelf with Marius, and with him at the head of the ſlaves he defeated his enemies and made himſelf conſul even to a fourth time. He maſſacred ſo many citizens at Rome, that his name became odious, and one of his officers aſſaſſinated him at Ancona, as he was preparing war againſt Sylla.

Cinna, *C. Helvius*, a poet intimate with Cæſar. He went to attend the obſequies of Cæſar, and being miſtaken by the populace for the other Cinna, he was torn to pieces.—Alſo a grandſon of Pompey's. He conſpired againſt Auguſtus, who pardoned him, and made him one of his moſt intimate friends. He was conſul A. U. C. 758, and made Auguſtus his heir.

CINNABAR, in *Natural Hiſtory*, is either native or factitious.

The *native* cinnabar is an ore of quickſilver, moderately compact, very heavy, and of an elegant ſtriated red colour. See Mineralogy *Index*.

Factitious cinnabar is a mixture of mercury and ſulphur ſublimed, and thus reduced into a fine red glebe. The beſt is of a high colour, and full of fibres like needles. See Chemistry *Index*.

The chief uſe of cinnabar is for painting. Although the body is compoſed of ſulphur, which is of a light colour, and mercury, which is white as ſilver, it is nevertheleſs of an exceeding ſtrong red colour. Lumps of it are of a deep brown red without brilliancy; but when the too great intenſity of its colour is diminiſhed by bruiſing and dividing it into ſmall parts, (which is a method generally uſed to leſſen the intenſity of all colours), the red of the cinnabar becomes more and more exalted, flame-coloured, and exceedingly vivid and brilliant; in this ſtate it is called *vermilion*.

Cinnabar is often employed as an internal medicine. Hoffman greatly recommends it as a ſedative and antiſpaſmodic, and Stahl makes it an ingredient in his *temperant powder*. Other intelligent phyſicians deny that cinnabar taken internally has any medicinal quality. Their opinion is grounded on the inſolubility of this ſubſtance in any menſtruum. This queſtion concerning its internal utility cannot be decided without further reſearches and experiments; but cinnabar is certainly uſed with ſucceſs to procure a mercurial fumigation, when that method of cure is proper in venereal diſeaſes. For this purpoſe it is burnt in an open fire on red-hot coals, by which the mercury is diſengaged and forms vapours, which, being applied to the body of the deceaſed perſon, penetrate through the pores of the ſkin, and produce effects ſimilar to thoſe of mercury adminiſtered by friction.

CINNAMON, the bark of two ſpecies of laurus. The true cinnamon is from the laurus cinnamomum; and the baſe cinnamon, which is often ſold for the true, is from the laurus caſſia. See Laurus, Botany *Index*.

Cinnamon-Water, is made by diſtilling the bark firſt infuſed in alcohol, brandy, or white-wine.

Clove Cinnamon, is the bark of a tree growing in Brazil, which is often ſubſtituted for real cloves.

White Cinnamon, called alſo *Winter's bark*, is the bark of a tree frequent in the iſles of St Domingo, Guadaloupe, &c. of a ſharp biting taſte like pepper. Some uſe it inſtead of nutmeg; and in medicine it is eſteemed a ſtomachic and antiſcorbutic. See Canella.

CINNAMUS, a Greek hiſtorian, wrote a hiſtory of the eaſtern empire during the reigns of John and Manuel Commenes, from 1118 to 1143. His ſtyle is reckoned the beſt of the modern Greek authors. He died after 1183.

CINNERETH, Cinereth, *Chinnereth*, (Moſes); or *Genneſareth*, in *Ancient Geography*, a lake of the Lower Galilee, called the *Sea of Galilee*, (Matthew); *of Tiberius*, (John). Its name *Genneſareth* is from a ſmall cognominal diſtrict upon it. In breadth 40 ſtadia, in length 140. The water freſh and fit to drink, and abounding in fiſh.

CINQUEFOIL, in *Botany*. See Potentilla.

CINQUE-Ports, five havens that lie on the eaſt part of England, towards France; thus called by way of eminence on account of their ſuperior importance, as having been thought by our kings to merit a particular regard for their preſervation againſt invaſion. Hence they have a particular policy, and are governed by a keeper with the title of *Lord-warden of the Cinque-ports*.

Camden tells us, that William the Conqueror firſt appointed a warden of the Cinque-ports; but King John firſt granted them their privileges, and that upon condition they ſhould provide 80 ſhips at their own charge for 40 days, as often as the king ſhould have occaſion in the wars, he being then ſtraitened for a navy to recover Normandy.

The five ports are Haſtings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich.—Thorn tells us, that Haſtings provided 21 veſſels, and in each veſſel 21 men. To this port belong Seaford, Pevenſey, Hedney, Winchelſea, Rye, Hamine, Wakeſbourn, Creneth, and Forthclipe.—Romney provided five ſhips, and in each 24 men. To this belonged Bromhal, Lyde, Oſwarſtone, Dangemares, and Romenhal.—Hythe furniſhed ſeven ſhips, and in each 21 ſeamen. To this belongs Weſtmeath.—Dover the ſame number as Haſtings. To this belongs Folkſton, Feverſham, and Marge.—Laſtly, Sandwich furniſhed the ſame with Hythe. To this belong Fordiwic, Reculver, Serre, and Deal.

The privileges granted to them in conſequence of theſe ſervices were very great. Amongſt others, they were each of them to ſend two barons to repreſent them in parliament; their deputies were to bear the canopy over the king's head at the time of his coronation, and to dine at the uppermoſt table in the

great hall on his right hand; to be exempted from subsidies and other aids; their heirs to be free from personal wardship, notwithstanding any tenure; to be impleaded in their own towns, and not elsewhere; not to be liable to tolls, &c.

The Cinque-ports give the following titles: Hastings, a barony to the ancient family of Huntington: Romney, to the Marshams: Dover, new barony, to a branch of the York family; formerly a dukedom (now extinct) to the Queensberry family: Sandwich, an earldom to a branch of the Montagues.

CINTRA, a cape and mountain of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura, usually called the *Rock of Lisbon*. It lies on the north side of the entrance of the river Tajo; and there is a town of the same name situated thereon. W. Long. 10. 15. N. Lat. 59. 0.

CINUS, or CYNUS, a famous civilian of Pistoia in the 14th century. His commentary on the Code was finished in 1313; he also wrote on some parts of the Digest. He was no less famous for his Italian poems, and is ranked among those who first gave graces to the Tuscan lyric poetry.

CINYRA, in the Jewish antiquities, a musical instrument. This, and the Hebrew *cinnor*, which is generally translated *cithera*, *lyra*, or *psalterium*, are the same. It was made of wood, and was played on in the temple of Jerusalem. Josephus says that the *cinyra* of the temple had ten strings, and that it was touched with a bow. In another place he says that Solomon made a great number of them with a precious kind of metal called *electrum*, wherein he contradicts the Scriptures, which inform us that Solomon's *cinnors* were made of wood.

CINYRAS, in fabulous history, a king of Cyprus, son of Paphus. He married Cenchreis, by whom he had a daughter called *Myrrha*. Myrrha fell in love with her father, and in the absence of her mother she introduced herself into his bed by means of her nurse. Cinyras had by her a son called *Adonis*; and when he knew the incest he had committed, he attempted to stab his daughter, who escaped his pursuit and fled to Arabia, where, after she had brought forth, she was changed into a tree which still bears her name. Cinyras, according to some, stabbed himself.

CION, or CYON, in *Gardening*, a young shoot, sprout, or sprig, put forth by a tree. Grafting is performed by the application of the cion of one plant upon the stock of another. To produce a stock of cions for grafting, planting, &c. the gardeners sometimes cut off the bodies of trees a little above the ground, and only leave a stump or root standing: the redundant sap will not fail next spring to put forth a great number of shoots. In dressing dwarf-trees, a great many cions are to be cut off.

CIOTAT, a sea-port town of Provence in France; famous for Muscadine wine. It is seated on the bay of Laquea, between Marseilles and Toulon; and the harbour is defended by a strong fort. E. Long. 5. 30. N. Lat. 43. 10.

CIPHER, or CYPHER, one of the Arabic characters or figures used in computation, formed thus, 0. See ARITHMETIC.

CIPHER is also a kind of enigmatic character composed of several letters interwoven, which are generally the initial letters of the persons names for whom the ciphers are intended. These are frequently used on seals, coaches, and other moveables.—Anciently, merchants and tradesmen were not allowed to bear arms: in lieu thereof, they bore their ciphers, or the initial letters of their names, artfully interwoven about a cross, of which we have divers instances on tombs, &c. See DEVICE.

CIPHER, denotes likewise certain secret characters disguised and varied, used in writing letters that contain some secret, not to be understood but by those between whom the cipher is agreed on.

De la Guilletiere, in his *Lacedæmon ancient and modern*, endeavours to make the ancient Spartans the inventors of the art of writing in cipher. Their scytala, according to him, was the first sketch of this mysterious art: these scytalæ were two rollers of wood, of equal length and thickness; one of them kept by the ephori, the other by the general of the army sent on any expedition against the enemy. Whensoever those magistrates would send any secret orders to the general, they took a slip of parchment, and rolled it very justly about the scytala which they had reserved, and in this state wrote their intentions, which appeared perfect and consistent while the parchment continued on the roll: when taken off, the writing was maimed, and without connection, but was easily retrieved by the general, upon his applying it to his scytala.

Polybius says, that Æneas Tactitus, 2000 years ago, collected together 20 different manners of writing so as not to be understood by any but those in the secret; part whereof were invented by himself, and part used before his time.—Trithemius, Cap. Porta, Vigenere, and P. Niceron, have written expressly on the subject of *ciphers*.

As the writing of *cipher* is become an art, so is the reading or unravelling thereof, called *deciphering*.—The rules of deciphering are different in different languages. By observing the following, you will soon make out any common cipher written in English.

1. Observe the letters or characters that most frequently occur, and set them down for the six vowels, including *y*, and of these the most frequent will generally be *e*, and the least frequent *u*.

2. The vowels that most frequently come together are *ea* and *ou*.

3. The consonant most common at the end of words is *s*, and the next frequent *r* and *t*.

4. When two similar characters come together, they are most likely to be the consonants *f*, *l*, or *s*, or the vowels *e* or *o*.

5. The letter that precedes or follows two similar characters is either a vowel, or *l*, *m*, *n*, or *r*.

6. In deciphering, begin with the words that consist of a single letter, which will be either *a*, *I*, *o*, or *&*.

7. Then take the words of two letters, one of which will be a vowel. Of these words the most frequent are, *an*, *to*, *be*, *by*, *of*, *on*, *or*, *no*, *so*, *as*, *at*, *if*, *in*, *is*, *it*, *he*, *me*, *my*, *us*, *we*, *am*.

8. In words of three letters there are most commonly two consonants. Of these words the most frequent are, *the*, *and*, *not*, *but*, *yet*, *for*, *tho'*, *how*, *why*, *all*, *you*, *she*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *who*, *may*, *can*, *did*, *was*, *are*, *has*, *had*, *let*, *one*, *two*, *six*, *ten*, *&c.*—Some of these, or those of two letters, will be found in every sentence.

9. The most common words of four letters are, *this*, *that*,

Cipher. *that, then, thus, with, when, from, here, ſome, moſt, none, they, them, whom, mine, your, ſelf, muſt, will, have, been, were, four, five, nine*, &c.

10. The moſt uſual words of five letters, are, *their, theſe, thoſe, which, where, while, ſince, there, ſhall, might, could, would, ought, three, ſeven, eight*, &c.

11. Words of two or more ſyllables frequently begin with double conſonants, or with a prepoſition; that is, a vowel joined with one or more conſonants. The moſt common double conſonants are *bl, br, dr, fl, fr, gl, gr, ph, pl, pr, ſh, ſb, ſp, ſt, th, tr, wh, wr*, &c. and the moſt common prepoſitions are *com, con, de, dis, ex, im, in, int, mis, per, pre, pro, re, ſub, ſup, un*, &c.

12. The double conſonants moſt frequent at the end of long words, are *ck, ld, lf, mn, nd, ng, rl, rm, rn, rp, rt, ſm, ſl, xt*, &c. and the moſt common terminations are *ed, en, er, es, et, ing, ly, ſon, ſion, tion, able, ence, ent, ment, full, leſs, neſs*, &c.

On Plate CXLIV. in Vol. V. fig. 7. is given an example of a cipher wrote in arbitrary characters as is commonly practiſed. It will be eaſily deciphered by obſerving the rules: but when the characters are all placed cloſe together, as in the example fig. 8. and as they always ſhould be, the deciphering is much more difficult.

To decipher a writing of this ſort, you muſt firſt look for thoſe characters that moſt frequently occur, and ſet them down for vowels as before. Then obſerve the ſimilar characters that come together; but you muſt remember that two ſuch characters may here belong to two words. You are next to remember the combinations of two or three characters that are moſt frequent; which will be ſome of the words in the ſeventh and eighth of the foregoing rules; and by obſerving the other rules, you will infallibly diſcover, with time and attention, any cipher wrote on theſe principles.

When the words are wrote all cloſe together, if the key to the cipher were to be changed every word, according to a regular method agreed on between the parties, as might be done by either of the methods mentioned in N° II. below, with very little additional trouble, the writing would then be extremely difficult to decipher. The longer any letter written in cipher is, the more eaſy it is to decipher, as then the repetitions of the characters and combinations are the more frequent.

The following are the contents of the two foregoing ciphers, in which we have inverted the order of the words and letters, that they who are deſirous of trying their talent at deciphering, may not, inadvertently, read the explanation before the cipher.

enil eno ton dna shtnom elohw eerht, suoidifrep dna leurc o noituac & ecnedurp fo klat lliw uoy: on, rotiart, tcelgen & ecnereffidni si ti. yltrohs rettel a em dnes ot snaem emof dnif rehtie, traeh eht morf semoc ti taht ees em tel &, erom ecaf ym ees ot erab reven ro.

evlewt fo ruoh eht ta thgin siht, ledatic eht fo etag eht erofeb elbmeſſa lliw sdneirf ruo lla. ruoh eht ot lautenup eb: deraperp llew emoc dna, ytrebil ruoy niager ot, ylevarb eid ro. thgin eht si siht, su sekam rehtie taht, etiuq su seodnu ro.

Contrivances for communicating intelligence by CIPHER.

I. *By means of a pack of cards.* The parties muſt previouſly agree in what manner the cards ſhall be firſt placed, and then how they ſhall be ſhuffled. Thus ſuppoſe the cards are to be firſt placed in the order as hereafter follows, and then ſhuffled by taking off 3 from the top, putting the next 2 over them, and the following 3 under them *, and ſo alternately. Therefore the party who ſends the cipher firſt writes the contents of it on a ſeparate paper, and then copies the firſt 32 letters on the cards, by writing one letter on every card; he then ſhuffles them in the manner deſcribed, and writes the ſecond 32 letters: he ſhuffles them a ſecond time, and writes the third 32 letters, and ſo of the reſt. An example will make this plain. Suppoſe the letter to be as follows.

* By ſhuffling the cards in this manner, there will remain only 2 to put under at laſt.

I am in full march to relieve you; within three days I ſhall be with you. If the ene|my in the mean time ſhould make an aſſau|lt, remember what you owe to your countr|y, to your family, and yourſelf. Live with ho|nour, or die with glory.

Order of the cards before the 1ſt ſhuffle.

Ace ſpades	*i a d u y i*
Ten diamonds	*a l e u l*
Eight hearts	*m l m o i u*
King ſpades	*i s u m l*
Nine clubs	*n h l e o*
Seven diamonds	*f b m r i*
Nine diamonds	*u a a c t n*
Ace clubs	*l w k r y i*
Knave hearts	*l s e e a e*
Seven ſpades	*m i a r m w*
Ten clubs	*a t t h e r*
Ten hearts	*r r h o f*
Queen ſpades	*c h e e i*
Eight diamonds	*h a h y w*
Eight clubs	*t y o o o l*
Seven hearts	*o y a o h o*
Queen clubs	*r o n u y h*
Nine ſpades	*e u i y f y*
King hearts	*l e t e u o*
Queen diamonds	*i d s o e*
Eight ſpades	*e i n w s o*
Knave clubs	*v f a n t g*
Seven clubs	*e t s l y*
Ace hearts	*y r e b r*
Nine hearts	*o l n w o t*
Ace diamonds	*u h s t & d*
Knave ſpades	*w l m a l*
Ten ſpades	*i e y t r r*
King diamonds	*t t t b u r*
Queen hearts	*h h m m u*
King clubs	*i n a t h*
Knave diamnods	*n e u r a*

The perſon that receives theſe cards firſt places them in the order agreed on, and tranſcribes the firſt letter on every card. He then ſhuffles them, according to order, and tranſcribes the ſecond letter on each card. He ſhuffles them a ſecond time, and tranſcribes the third letter, and ſo of the reſt.

If the cards were to be ſhuffled the ſecond time by threes and fours, the third time by twos and fours, &c. it would make the cipher ſtill more difficult to diſcover:

Cipher. ver: though as all ciphers depend on the combination of letters, there are ſcarce any that may not be deciphered with time and pains; as we ſhall ſhow further on. Thoſe ciphers are the beſt that are by their nature moſt free from ſuſpicion of being ciphers; as for example, if the letters were there written with ſympathetic ink, the cards might then paſs for a common pack.

II. *By a dial.* On a piece of ſquare paſteboard ABCD, fig. 3. 4. draw the circle EFGH, and divide it into 26 equal parts, in each of which muſt be written one of the letters of the alphabet.

On the inſide of this there muſt be another circle of paſteboard, ILMN, moveable round the centre O, and the extremity of this muſt be divided into the ſame number of equal parts as the other. On this alſo muſt be written the letters of the alphabet, which, however, need not be diſpoſed in the ſame order. The perſon with whom you correſpond muſt have a ſimilar dial, and at the beginning of your letter you muſt put any two letters that anſwer to each other when you have fixed the dial.

Exam. Suppoſe you would write as follows: "If you will come over to us, you ſhall have a penſion, and you may ſtill make a ſham oppoſition." You begin with the letters *Ma*, which ſhow how the dial is fixed: then for *If you*, you write *un juc*, and ſo for the reſt, as you ſee at fig. 6.

The ſame intention may be anſwered by a ruler, the upper part of which is fixed, and the lower part made to ſlide; but in this caſe the upper part muſt contain two alphabets in ſucceſſion, that ſome letter of that part may conſtantly correſpond to one in the lower part. The diviſions ſtanding directly over each other in a ſtraight line will be much more obvious than in the circumference of a circle. Or two ſtraight pieces of paſteboard regularly divided, the one containing a ſingle, and the other a double alphabet, would anſwer exactly the ſame purpoſe. In this caſe a blank ſpace may be left at each end of the ſingle alphabet, and one or two weights being placed on both the pieces will keep them ſteady.

III. *The correſponding ſpaces.* Take two pieces of paſteboard or ſtiff paper, through which you muſt cut long ſquares, at different diſtances, as you will ſee in the following example. One of theſe pieces you keep yourſelf, and the other you give to your correſpondent. When you would ſend him any ſecret intelligence, you lay the paſteboard upon a paper of the ſame ſize, and in the ſpaces cut out, you write what you would have underſtood by him only, and then fill up the intermediate ſpaces with ſomewhat that makes with thoſe words a different ſenſe.

|I ſhall be| much obliged to you, as reading |alone| engages my attention |at| preſent, if you will lend me any one of the |eight| volumes of the Spectator. I hope you will excuſe |this| freedom, but for a winter's |evening| I |dont| know a better entertainment. If I |fail| to return it ſoon, never truſt me for the time |to come.|

A paper of this ſort may be placed four different ways, either by putting the bottom at the top, or by turning it over; and by theſe means the ſuperfluous words may be the more eaſily adapted to the ſenſe of the others.

Cipher || Circaſſia. This is a very eligible cipher, as it is free from ſuſpicion, but it will only do for ſhort meſſages; for if the ſpaces be frequent, it will be very difficult to make the concealed and obvious meanings agree together; and if the ſenſe be not clear, the writing will be liable to ſuſpicion.

IV. *The muſical cipher.* The conſtruction of this cipher is ſimilar to that of N° II. The circle EFGH (fig. 3.) is to be divided into twenty-ſix equal parts; in each part there muſt be written one of the letters of the alphabet, and on the anterior circle ILMN, moveable round the centre O, there is to be the ſame number of diviſions: the circumference of the inner circle muſt be ruled in the manner of a muſic paper; and in each diviſion there is to be placed a note, differing either in figure or poſition. Laſtly, within the muſical lines place the three keys, and on the outer circle, the figures that are commonly uſed to denote the time.

Then provide yourſelf with a ruled paper, and place one of the keys, as ſuppoſe that of *ge re ſol*, againſt the time two-fourths at the beginning of the paper, which will inform your correſpondent how to fix his circle. You then copy the notes that anſwer to the ſeveral letters of the words you intend to write, in the manner expreſſed at fig. 5.

A cipher of this ſort may be made more difficult to diſcover by frequently changing the key, and that will not in the leaſt embarraſs the reader. You may likewiſe add the mark ♯ or ♭ to the note that begins a word, which will make it more eaſy to read, and at the ſame time give the muſic a more natural aſpect. This cipher is preferable to that of N° II. above, as it may be incloſed in a letter about common affairs, and paſs unſuſpected.

CIPUS, in antiquity, a low column, with an inſcription, erected on the high roads, or other places, to ſhow the way to travellers; to ſerve as a boundary; to mark the grave of a deceaſed perſon, &c.

CIR, St, a village of France, two miles from Verſailles, which was remarkable for a nunnery founded by Louis XIV. The nuns were obliged to take care of the education of 250 girls, who could prove their families to have been noble from the 4th generation on the father's ſide. They could not enter before 7, nor after 12 years of age; and they continued till they were 20 years and three months old. The houſe was formerly a moſt magnificent ſtructure.

CIRCÆA, Enchanter's Night-shade. See Botany *Index*.

CIRCASSIA, a large country of Aſia, ſituated between 45 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and between 40 and 50 of eaſt longitude. It is bounded by Ruſſia on the north; by Aſtracan and the Caſpian ſea on the eaſt; by Georgia and Dagiſtan on the ſouth; and by the river Don, the Palus Mæotis, and the Black ſea, on the weſt. This country has long been celebrated for the extraordinary beauty of its women; and here it was that the practice of inoculating for the ſmallpox firſt began. Terki, the principal city, is ſeated in a very ſpacious plain, very ſwampy, towards the ſea-ſide, in 43° 23′ north latitude: it is about three werſts in compaſs, well fortified with ramparts and

Circaſſia. and baſtions in the modern ſtyle, well ſtored with cannon, and has always a conſiderable garriſon in it, under the command of a governor. The Circaſſian prince who reſides here, is allowed 500 Ruſſians for his guard, but none of his own ſubjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever ſince the reduction of thoſe parts to the obedience of Ruſſia, they have put in all places of ſtrength, not only Ruſſian garriſons and governors, but magiſtrates and prieſts for the exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion; yet the Circaſſian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges; but theſe adminiſter juſtice in the name of the emperor, and in matters of importance, not without the preſence of the Ruſſian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majeſty. The apparel of the men of Circaſſia is much the ſame with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are ſomething larger; and their cloaks being likewiſe of coarſe cloth or ſheep ſkins, are faſtened only at the neck with a ſtring, and as they are not large enough to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather. The men here are much better favoured than thoſe of Nagaya, and the women extremely well ſhaped, with exceeding fine features, ſmooth clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which, with their black hair hanging in two treſſes, one on each ſide the face, give them a moſt lovely appearance. They wear a black coif on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the ſummer they all wear only a ſmock of divers colours, and that open ſo low before, that one may ſee below their navels: this, with their beautiful faces always uncovered (contrary to the cuſtom of moſt of the other provinces in theſe parts), their good humour and lively freedom in converſation, altogether render them very attracting: notwithſtanding which they have the reputation of being very chaſte, though they ſeldom want opportunity; for according to the accounts of a late traveller, it is an eſtabliſhed point of good manners among them, that as ſoon as any perſon comes in to ſpeak to the wife, the huſband goes out of the houſe: but whether this continency of theirs proceeds from their own generoſity, to recompenſe their huſbands for the confidence they put in them, or has its foundation only in fame, he pretends not to determine. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are alſo not ignorant of the Ruſſian. Their religion is Paganiſm; for notwithſtanding they uſe circumciſion among them, they have neither prieſt, alcoran, nor moſque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own ſacrifice at pleaſure; for which, however, they have certain days, eſtabliſhed rather by cuſtom than any poſitive command: their moſt ſolemn ſacrifice is offered at the death of their neareſt friends, upon which occaſion both men and women meet in the field to be preſent at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed, they flay it, and ſtretch the ſkin with the head and horns on, upon a croſs at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickſet hedge (to keep the cattle from it); and near the place the ſacrifice is offered by boiling and roaſting the fleſh, which they afterwards eat. When the feaſt is over, the men riſe, and having paid their adoration to the ſkin, and muttered over certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of ſpirits; and this generally ends in a quarrel before they part. The face of the country is pleaſantly diverſified with mountains, valleys, woods, lakes, and rivers; and, though not much cultivated, is far from being unfruitful. In ſummer the inhabitants quit the towns, and encamp in the fields like the neighbouring Tartars, occaſionally ſhifting their ſtations along with their flocks and herds. Beſides game, in which the country greatly abounds, the Circaſſian eat beef and mutton; but that which they prefer to all others is the fleſh of a young horſe. Their bread conſiſts of thin cakes of barley meal, baked upon the hearth, which they always eat new; and their uſual drink is water or mare's milk, from the latter of which they diſtil a ſpirit, as do moſt of the Tartar nations. They allot no fixed hours for the refreſhments of the table or ſleep, which they indulge irregularly, as inclination or convenience dictates. When the men make excurſions into an enemy's country, they paſs ſeveral days and nights ſucceſſively without ſleeping; but, at their return, devote as much time to repoſe as the ſpace in which they had before withheld from that gratification. When they eat, they ſit croſs-legged on the floor, the ſkin of ſome animal ſerving them inſtead of a carpet. In removing from one part of the country to another, the women and children are carried in waggons, which are a kind of travelling houſes, and drawn by oxen or camels; they never uſe horſes for draught. Their breed of the latter, however, is reckoned exceeding good; and they are accuſtomed to ſwim almoſt any river on horſeback. The women and children ſmoke tobacco as well as the men; and this is the moſt acceptable commodity which a traveller can carry with him into the Tartar countries. There are here no public inns, which indeed are unneceſſary; for ſo great is the hoſpitality of the people, that they will contend with each other who ſhall entertain any ſtranger that happens to come among them.—The principal branch of their traffic is their own children, eſpecially their daughters, whom they ſell for the uſe of the ſeraglios in Turkey and Perſia, where they frequently marry to great advantage, and make the fortune of their families. The merchants, who come from Conſtantinople to purchaſe thoſe girls, are generally Jews, who, as well as the mothers, are ſaid to be extremely careful of preſerving the chaſtity of the young women, knowing the value that is ſet by the Turks upon the marks of virginity. The greater part of the Circaſſians are Chriſtians of the Greek church; but there are alſo both Mahometans and Pagans among them.

Circaſſia, Circe.

CIRCE, in fabulous hiſtory, a daughter of Sol and Perſeis, celebrated for her knowledge of magic and venomous herbs. She was ſiſter to Ætes king of Colchis, and to Paſiphae the wife of Minos. She married a Sarmatian prince of Colchis, whom ſhe murdered to obtain the kingdom. She was expelled by her ſubjects, and carried by her father upon the coaſts of Italy in an iſland called Ætæa. Ulyſſes, at his return from the Trojan war, viſited her coaſts, and all his companions, who ran headlong into pleaſure and voluptuouſneſs, were changed by Circe's potions into filthy ſwine. Ulyſſes, who was fortified againſt all enchantments by an herb called *moly*, which he had received from Mercury,

Circe || Circle.

cury, went to Circe, and demanded ſword in hand the reſtoration of his companions to their former ſtate. She complied, and loaded the hero with pleaſures and honours. In this voluptuous retreat Ulyſſes had by Circe one ſon called Telegonus, or two, according to Heſiod, called Agrius and Latinus. For one whole year Ulyſſes forgot his glory in Circe's arms. At his departure the nymph adviſed him to deſcend to hell and to conſult the manes of Tireſias concerning the fates that attended him. Circe ſhowed herſelf cruel to Scylla her rival, and to Picus.

CIRCENSIAN GAMES, a general term under which was comprehended all combats exhibited in the Roman circus, in imitation of the Olympic games in Greece. Moſt of the feaſts of the Romans were accompanied with Circenſian games; and the magiſtrates, and other officers of the republic, frequently preſented the people with them, in order to procure their favour. The grand games were held five days, commencing on the 13th of September. See CIRCUS.

CIRCLE, in *Geometry*, a plane figure comprehended by a ſingle curve line, called its circumference, to which right lines drawn from a point in the middle, called the centre, are equal to each other. See GEOMETRY.

CIRCLES of the Sphere, are ſuch as cut the mundane ſphere, and have their periphery either on its moveable ſurface, or in another immoveable, conterminous, and equidiſtant ſurface. See SPHERE. Hence ariſe two kinds of circles, moveable and immoveable. The firſt, thoſe whoſe peripheries are in the moveable ſurface, and which therefore revolve with its diurnal motion; as, the meridians, &c. The latter having their periphery in the immoveable ſurface, do not revolve; as the ecliptic, equator, and its parallels, &c. See GEOGRAPHY.

CIRCLES of Altitude, otherwiſe called *almucantars*, are circles parallel to the horizon, having their common pole in the zenith, and ſtill diminiſhing as they approach the zenith. See ALMUCANTAR.

Diurnal CIRCLES, are immoveable circles, ſuppoſed to be deſcribed by the ſeven ſtars, and other points of the heavens, in their diurnal rotation round the earth; or rather, in the rotation of the earth round its axis. The diurnal circles are all unequal: the equator is the biggeſt.

Horary CIRCLES, in *Dialing*, are the lines which ſhow the hours on dials; though theſe be not drawn circular, but nearly ſtraight. See DIALING.

CIRCLES of Latitude, or *Secondaries of the Ecliptic*, are great circles parallel to the plane of the ecliptic, paſſing through the poles thereof, and through every ſtar and planet. They are ſo called, becauſe they ſerve to meaſure the latitude of the ſtars, which is nothing but an arch of one of theſe circles intercepted between the ſtar and the ecliptic. See LATITUDE.

CIRCLES of Longitude, are ſeveral leſſer circles, parallel to the ecliptic; ſtill diminiſhing, in proportion as they recede from it. On the arches of theſe circles, the longitude of the ſtars is reckoned.

CIRCLE of perpetual Apparition, one of the leſſer circles, parallel to the equator, deſcribed by any point of the ſphere touching the northern point of the horizon, and carried about with the diurnal motion. All the ſtars included within this circle never ſet, but are ever viſible above the horizon.

CIRCLE of perpetual Occultation, is another circle at a like diſtance from the equator, and contains all thoſe ſtars which never appear in our hemiſphere. The ſtars ſituated between theſe circles alternately riſe and ſet at certain times.

Polar CIRCLES, are immoveable circles, parallel to the equator, and at a diſtance from the poles equal to the greateſt declination of the ecliptic. That next the northern pole is called the ARCTIC; and that next to the ſouthern one the ANTARCTIC.

Fairy CIRCLE. See *FAIRY-Circle*.

Druidical CIRCLES, in Britiſh topography, a name given to certain ancient incloſures formed by rude ſtones circularly arranged, in the manner repreſented on Plate CXLV. Theſe, it is now generally agreed, were temples, and many writers think alſo, places of ſolemn aſſemblies for councils or elections, and ſeats of judgment. Mr Borlaſe is of this opinion. "Inſtead, therefore (ſays he), of detaining the reader with a diſpute, whether they were places of worſhip or council, it may with great probability be aſſerted, that they were uſed for both purpoſes; and having for the moſt part been firſt dedicated to religion, naturally became afterwards the curiæ and fora of the ſame community." Theſe temples, though generally circular, occaſionally differ as well in figure as magnitude: with relation to the firſt, the moſt ſimple were compoſed of one circle: Stonehenge conſiſted of two circles and two ovals, reſpectively concentric, whilſt that at Bottalch near St Juſt in Cornwall is formed by four interſecting circles. And the great temple at Avebury in Wiltſhire, it is ſaid, deſcribed the figure of a ſeraph or fiery flying ſerpent, repreſented by circles and right lines. Some beſides circles have avenues of ſtone pillars. Moſt, if not all of them, have pillars or altars within their penetralia or centre. In the article of magnitude and number of ſtones, there is the greateſt variety, ſome circles being only twelve feet diameter, and formed only of twelve ſtones, whilſt others, ſuch as Stonehenge and Avebury, contained, the firſt 140, the ſecond 652, and occupied many acres of ground. All theſe different numbers, meaſures, and arrangements had their pretended reference; either to the aſtronomical diviſions of the year, or ſome myſteries of the druidical religion. Mr Borlaſe, however, ſuppoſes, that thoſe very ſmall circles, ſometimes formed of a low bank of earth, ſometimes of ſtones erect, and frequently of looſe ſmall ſtones thrown together in a circular form, incloſing an area of about three yards diameter, without any larger circle round them, were originally places of burial.

CIRCLE, in *Logic*, or *Logical CIRCLE*, is when the ſame terms are proved *in orbem* by the ſame terms; and the parts of the ſyllogiſm alternately by each other, both directly and indirectly.

CIRCLES of the Empire, ſuch provinces and principalities of the German empire as have a right to be preſent at diets. Maximilian I. divided the empire into ſix, and ſome years after into ten circles. This laſt diviſion was confirmed by Charles V. The circles, as they ſtand in the Imperial Matricola, are as follow: Auſtria, Burgundy, the Lower Rhine, Bavaria, Upper

Circle, Circoncelliones.

per Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Upper Rhine, Weſtphalia, and the Lower Saxony,

CIRCONCELLIONES, a ſpecies of fanatics, ſo called becauſe they were continually rambling round the houſes in the country. They took their riſe among the Donatiſts in the reign of the emperor Conſtantine. It is incredible what ravages and cruelties theſe vagabonds committed in Africa through a long ſeries of years. They were illiterate ſavage peaſants, who underſtood only the Punic language. Intoxicated with a barbarous zeal, they renounced agriculture, profeſſed continence, and aſſumed the title of "Vindicators of juſtice, and protectors of the oppreſt." To accompliſh their miſſion, they enfranchiſed ſlaves, ſcoured the roads, forced maſters to alight from their chariots, and run before their ſlaves, who they obliged to mount in their place; and diſcharged debtors, killing the creditors if they refuſed to cancel the bonds. But the chief objects of their cruelty were the Catholics, and eſpecially thoſe who had renounced Donatiſm. At firſt they uſed no ſwords, becauſe God had forbidden the uſe of one to Peter; but they were armed with clubs, which they called the *clubs of Iſrael*, and which they handled in ſuch a manner as to break a man's bones without killing him immediately, ſo that he languiſhed a long time and then died. When they took away a man's life at once, they looked upon it as a favour. They became leſs ſcrupulous afterwards, and made uſe of all ſorts of arms. Their ſhout was *Praiſe be to God*. Theſe words in their mouths were the ſignal of ſlaughter, more terrible than the roaring of a lion. They had invented an unheard-of puniſhment; which was to cover with lime diluted with vinegar the eyes of thoſe unhappy wretches whom they had cruſhed with blows, and covered with wounds, and to abandon them in that condition. Never was a ſtronger proof what horrors ſuperſtition can beget in minds deſtitute of knowledge and humanity. Theſe brutes, who had made a vow of chaſtity, gave themſelves up to wine and all ſorts of impurities, running about with women and young girls as drunk as themſelves, whom they called *ſacred virgins*, and who often carried proofs of their incontinence. Their chiefs took the name of *Chiefs of the Saints*. After having glutted themſelves with blood, they turned their rage upon themſelves, and ſought death with the ſame fury with which they gave it to others. Some ſcrambled up to the tops of rocks, and caſt themſelves down headlong in multitudes; others burned themſelves, or threw themſelves into the ſea. Thoſe who propoſed to acquire the title of martyrs, publiſhed it long before, upon which they were feaſted and fattened like oxen for the ſlaughter; after theſe preparations they ſet out to be deſtroyed. Sometimes they gave money to thoſe whom they met, and threatened to murder them if they did not make them martyrs. Theodoret gives an account of a ſtout young man, who meeting with a troop of theſe fanatics, conſented to kill them, provided he might bind them firſt; and having by this means put it out of their power to defend themſelves, whipped them as long as he was able, and then left them tied in that manner. Their biſhops pretended to balance them, but in reality made uſe of them to intimidate ſuch as might be tempted to forſake their ſect; they even honoured them as ſaints. They were not, however, able to govern thoſe furious monſters, and more than once found themſelves under a neceſſity of abandoning them, and even of imploring the aſſiſtance of the ſecular power againſt them. The counts Urſacius and Taurinus were employed to quell them; they deſtroyed a great number of them, of whom the Donatiſts made as many martyrs. Urſacius, who was a good Catholic and a religious man, having loſt his life in an engagement with the barbarians, the Donatiſts did not fail to triumph in his death, as an effect of the vengeance of heaven. Africa was the theatre of theſe bloody ſcenes during a great part of Conſtantine's life.

Circoncelliones, Circuit.

CIRCUIT, in *Law*, ſignifies a longer courſe of proceedings than is needful to recover the thing ſued for.

CIRCUIT, alſo ſignifies the journey or progreſs which the judges take twice every year, through the ſeveral counties of England and Wales, to hold courts and adminiſter juſtice, where recourſe cannot be had to the king's courts at Weſtminſter; hence England is divided into ſix circuits, viz. the Home circuit; Norfolk circuit; Midland circuit; Oxford circuit; Weſtern circuit; and Northern circuit. In Wales there are but two circuits, North and South Wales: two judges are aſſigned by the king's commiſſion to every circuit.

In Scotland, the judges of the ſupreme criminal court, or court of juſticiary, are divided into three ſeparate courts, conſiſting of two judges each; and the kingdom into as many diſtricts. In certain boroughs of every diſtrict, each of theſe courts by rotation is obliged to hold two courts in the year, in ſpring and autumn; which are called *circuit-courts*.

Electrical CIRCUIT, denotes the courſe of the electric fluid from the charged ſurface of an electric body, to the oppoſite ſurface into which the diſcharge is made. Some of the firſt electricians apprehend, that the ſame particles of the electric fluid, which were thrown on one ſide of the charged glaſs, actually made the whole circuit of the intervening conductors, and arrived at the oppoſite ſide; whereas Dr Franklin's theory only requires, that the redundancy of electric matter on the charged ſurface ſhould paſs into the bodies forming that part of the circuit which is contiguous to it, driving forward that part of the fluid which they naturally poſſeſs; and that the deficiency of the exhauſted ſurface ſhould be ſupplied by the neighbouring conductors, which form the laſt part of the circuit. On this ſuppoſition, a vibrating motion is ſucceſſively communicated through the whole length of the circuit. This circuit is always formed of the beſt conductors, let the length of it be ever ſo great. Many attempts were made, both in France and England, at an early period in the hiſtory of electricity, to aſcertain the diſtance to which the electric ſhock might be carried, and the velocity of its motion. The French philoſophers, at different times, made it to paſs through a circuit of 900 toiſes, and of 2000 toiſes, or about two Engliſh miles and a half; and they diſcharged the Leyden phial through a baſon of water, the ſurface of which was about an acre. And M. Mounier found, that, in paſſing through an iron wire of 950 toiſes in length, it did not ſpend a quarter

Circuit || Circulation.

ter of a ſecond; and that its motion was inſtantaneous through a wire of 1319 feet. In 1747, Dr Watſon, and other Engliſh philoſophers, after many experiments of a ſimilar kind, conveyed the electric matter through a circuit of four miles; and they concluded from this and another trial, that its velocity is inſtantaneous.

CIRCULAR, in a general ſenſe, any thing that is deſcribed, or moved in a round, as the circumference of a circle, or ſurface of a globe.

CIRCULAR Numbers, called alſo *ſpherical ones*, according to ſome, are ſuch whoſe powers terminate in the roots themſelves. Thus, for inſtance, 5 and 6, all whoſe powers do end in 5 and 6, as the ſquare of 5 is 25; the ſquare of 6 is 36, &c.

CIRCULAR Sailing, is the method of ſailing by the arch of a great circle. See NAVIGATION.

CIRCULATION, the act of moving round, or in a circle; thus we ſay, the circulation of the blood, &c.

CIRCULATION of the Blood, the natural motion of the blood in a living animal, whereby that fluid is alternately carried from the heart into all parts of the body, by the arteries, from whence it is brought back to the heart again by the veins. See ANATOMY *Index*.

In a fœtus, the apparatus for the circulation of the blood is ſomewhat different from that in adults. The ſeptum, which ſeparates the two auricles of the heart, is pierced through with an aperture, called the *foramen ovale*; and the trunk of the pulmonary artery, a little after it has left the heart, ſends out a tube into the deſcending aorta, called the *communicating canal*. The fœtus being born, the foramen ovale cloſes by degrees, and the canal of communication dries up, and becomes a ſimple ligament.

As to the velocity of the circulating blood, and the time wherein the circulation is completed, ſeveral computations have been made. By Dr Keil's account, the blood is driven out of the heart into the aorta with a velocity which would carry it twenty five feet in a minute; but this velocity is continually abated in the progreſs of the blood, in the numerous ſections or branches of the arteries; ſo that before it arrives at the extremities of the body, its motion is greatly diminiſhed. The ſpace of time wherein the whole maſs of blood ordinarily circulates is variouſly determined. Some ſtate it thus: Suppoſing the heart to make two thouſand pulſes in an hour, and that at every pulſe there is expelled an ounce of blood; as the whole maſs of blood is not ordinarily computed to exceed twenty-four pounds, it muſt be circulated ſeven or eight times over in the ſpace of an hour.

The curious, in microſcopic obſervations, have found an eaſy method of ſeeing the circulation of the blood in the bodies of animals: for theſe inquiries it is neceſſary to chooſe ſuch animals as are ſmall, and eaſily manageable, and which are either wholly or in part tranſparent. The obſervations made by this means are preferable to any others we can have recourſe to, ſince, in diſſections, the animal is in a ſtate of pain, or dying; whereas in animals ſmall enough to be thus viewed, all is left in its uſual courſe, and we ſee what nature does in her own undiſturbed method. In theſe creatures alſo, after viewing, as long as we pleaſe, the natural ſtate and current of the blood, we may, by preſſure, and ſeveral other ways, impede its courſe; and by putting various mixtures into the creature's water, induce a morbid ſtate, and finally ſee the creature die, either by means of this or by any other method; and we may thus accurately obſerve all the changes it undergoes, and ſee what occaſions the trembling pulſe, &c. of dying people.

The current of the blood in ſmall animals, that is, its paſſing on through the veſſels, either to or from the heart, is very eaſily ſeen by the microſcope; but its circulation, that is, its running to the extremities of the parts, and thence returning, is more difficult; becauſe the veſſels where this ſhould be ſeen are ſo extremely minute, as not eaſily to come under obſervation. The larger arteries are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the veins by the motion of the blood through them, which in the veins is always ſmooth and regular; but in the arteries, by ſeveral propulſions after the manner of pulſation. But this difference is not to be found in the more minute veſſels, in all which, as well arteries as veins, the motion of the blood is even and regular.

The tranſparent membrane, or web between the toes of a frog's hinder foot, is a very proper object to obſerve the circulation of the blood in. The tails or fins of fiſhes are alſo very fine objects; and when the fiſh is very ſmall, theſe are manageable, and afford a view of a great number of veins and arteries, with a very quick and beautiful ſucceſſion of blood through them. The tail of a flounder may be very conveniently placed before the double microſcope on a plate of glaſs; and its body being ſupported by ſomething of equal height, the fiſh will lie ſtill, and the circulation may be ſeen very agreeably. In the minuteſt veſſels thus examined, the blood always appears pale or colourleſs, but in the large ones it is manifeſtly red. The arteries uſually branch out extremely before they join the veins to carry the blood back to the heart; but this is not always the caſe; for Mr Leuwenhoeck has obſerved, that on each ſide of the little griſtles which give a ſtiffneſs to the tail of a flounder, there may be ſeen a very open communication of the veins and arteries; the blood running towards the extremities through arteries, and returning back again through veins, which were evidently a continuation of thoſe arteries, and of the ſame diameter with them. The whole fiſh, on the tail of which this examination was made, was not more than half an inch in length; it is eaſy to conceive, therefore, how ſmall the tail muſt be; and yet in it there were 68 veſſels which carried and returned the blood; and yet theſe veſſels were far from being the moſt minute of all. How inconceivably numerous then muſt the *circulations* in the whole human body be? Mr Leuwenhoeck is of opinion, that a thouſand different circulations are continually carried on in every part of a man's body in the breadth of a finger nail.

The tail of a newt or water-lizard affords alſo a very entertaining proſpect of the circulation of the blood through almoſt numberleſs ſmall veſſels; but no objects ſhows it ſo agreeably as one of theſe animals, while ſo young as not to be above an inch long; for then the whole body is ſo very tranſparent, that the circulation may be ſeen in every part of it, as well as in

in the tail; and, in these objects, nothing is more beautiful than the course of the blood into the toes and back again, where it may be traced all the way with great ease. Near the head there are also found three small fins which afford a very delightful prospect; these are all divided like the leaves of polypody; and in every one of the branches of these, the blood may be very accurately traced, running to the end through the artery, and there returning back again by a vein of the same size, and laid in the same direction; and as the vessels are very numerous and large in this part, and the third or fourth magnifier may be used, there are sometimes seen thirty or forty channels of running blood at once; and this the more as the globules of blood in the newt are large, and fewer in number, in proportion to the quantity of serum than in any other animal: and their figure, as they are protruded through the vessels, changes in a very surprising manner. The impetus occasioning the circulation is great enough in some animals to raise the blood six, seven, or eight feet high from the blood-vessel it springs out at, which, however, is far exceeded by that of the sap of a vine in bleeding time, which will sometimes rise 40 feet high.

Circulation of the sap of Plants. See Plants and Sap.

Circulation of the Spirits, or Nervous Fluid. See Anatomy *Index*.

Circulation, in *Chemistry*, is an operation whereby the same vapour, raised by fire, falls back, to be returned and distilled several times.

Circulation of Money. See Commerce and Money.

Subterranean Circulation. See Springs.

CIRCULUS, in *Chemistry*, an iron instrument in form of a ring, which being heated red hot, and applied to the neck of retorts and other glass vessels till they grow hot, a few drops of cold water thrown upon them, or a cold blast, will make the necks fly regularly and evenly off.

Another method of doing this is, to tie a thread, first dipt in oil of turpentine, round the place where you would have it break; and then setting fire to the thread, and afterwards sprinkling the place with cold water, the glass will crack exactly where the thread was tied.

CIRCUMAMBIENT, an appellation given to a thing that surrounds another on all sides; chiefly used in speaking of the air.

CIRCUMCELLIONES. See Circoncelliones.

CIRCUMCISION, the act of cutting off the prepuce; a ceremony in the Jewish and Mahometan religions, wherein they cut off the foreskin of their males, who are to profess the one or the other law.

Circumcision commenced in the time of Abraham; and was the seal of a covenant stipulated between God and him. It was in the year of the world 2178 that Abraham, by divine appointment, circumcised himself and all the males of his family; from which time it became an hereditary practice among his descendants.

The ceremony, however, was not confined to the Jews. Herodotus and Philo Judæus observe, that it obtained also among the Egyptians and Ethiopians. Herodotus says, that the custom was very ancient among each people; so that there was no determining which of them borrowed it from the other. The same historian relates, that the inhabitants of Colchis also used circumcision; whence he concludes, that they were originally Egyptians. He adds, that the Phenicians and Syrians were likewise circumcised; that they borrowed the practice from the Egyptians; and, lastly, that a little before the time when he wrote, circumcision had passed from Colchis to the people inhabiting near Thermodon and Parthenius.

Marsham is of opinion, that the Hebrews borrowed circumcision from the Egyptians; and that God was not the first author thereof, citing Diodorus Siculus and Herodotus as evidences on his side. This latter proposition seems directly contrary to the testimony of Moses, who assures us (Gen. xvii.), that Abraham, though 99 years of age, was not circumcised till he had the express command of God for it. But as to the former position of Marsham, it will admit of more debate. The arguments on both sides may be seen in one view in *Spencer de Legibus Hebræorum*, l. 2. c. 4.

Be this as it will, it is certain the practice of circumcision among the Hebrews differed very considerably from that of the Egyptians. Among the first it was a ceremony of religion, and was performed on the eighth day after the birth of the child. Among the latter, a point of mere decency and cleanliness; and, as some will have it, of physical necessity; and was not performed till the 13th year, and then on girls as well as boys.

Among the Jews, the time for performing this rite was the eighth day, that is, six full days, after the child was born. The law of Moses ordained nothing with respect to the person by whom, the instrument with which, or the manner how, the ceremony was to be performed; the instrument was generally a knife of stone. The child is usually circumcised at home, where the father or godfather holds him in his arms, while the operator takes hold of the prepuce with one hand, and with the other cuts it off; a third person holds a porringer, with sand in it, to catch the blood; then the operator applies his mouth to the part, and, having sucked the blood, spits it into a bowl of wine, and throws a styptic powder upon the wound. This ceremony was usually accompanied with great rejoicings and feasting; and it was at this time that the child was named in presence of the company. The Jews invented several superstitious customs at this ceremony, such as placing three stools, one for the circumcisor, the second for the person who holds the child, and the third for Elijah, who, they say, assists invisibly at the ceremony, &c.

The Jews distinguished their proselytes into two sorts, according as they became circumcised or not: those who submitted to this rite were looked upon as children of Abraham, and obliged to keep the laws of Moses; the uncircumcised were only bound to observe the precepts of Noah, and were called *Noachidæ*.

The Turks never circumcise till the seventh or eighth year, as having no notion of its being necessary to salvation. The Persians circumcise their boys at 13, and their girls from 9 to 15. Those of Madagascar cut the flesh at three several times, and the most zealous of

Circumcision || Circumferentor.

of the relations present catches hold of the preputium and swallows it.

Circumcision is practised on women by cutting off the foreskin of the clitoris, which bears a near resemblance and analogy to the preputium of the male penis. We are told that the Egyptian captive women were circumcised; and also the subjects of Prester John.

CIRCUMCISION is also the name of a feast, celebrated on the first of January, in commemoration of the circumcision of our Saviour.

CIRCUMDUCTION, in *Scots Law*. When parties in a suit are allowed a proof of alledgeances; after the time limited by the judge for taking the proof is elapsed, either party may apply for circumduction of the time of proving; the effect of which is, that no proof can afterwards be brought, and the cause must be determined as it stood when circumduction was obtained.

CIRCUMFERENCE, in a general sense, denotes the line or lines bounding a plane figure. However, it is generally used in a more limited sense for the curve line which bounds a circle, and otherwise called a *periphery*; the boundary of a right-lined figure being expressed by the term *perimeter*.

CIRCUMFERENTOR, an instrument used by surveyors for taking angles.

Plate CXLV.

It consists of a brass index and circle, all of a piece. The index is commonly about 14 inches long, and an inch and a half broad; the diameter of the circle is about seven inches. On this circle is made a chart, whose meridian line answers to the middle of the breadth of the index, and is divided into 360 degrees. There is a brass ring soldered on the circumference of the circle, on which screws another ring, with a flat glass in it, so as to form a kind of box for the needle, suspended on the pivot in the centre of the circle. There are also two sights to screw on, and slide up and down the index, as also a spangle and socket screwed on the back side of the circle for putting the head of the staff in.

Ibid.

How to observe the Quantity of an angle by the Circumferentor. Let it be required to find the quantity of the angle EKG; first place your instrument at K, with the flower-de-luce of the chart towards you; then direct your sights to E, and observe what degrees are cut by the south end of the needle, which let be 296; then, turning the instrument about, direct your sights to G, noting then also what degrees are cut by the south end of the needle, which suppose 247. This done, always subtract the lesser from the greater, as in this example, 247 from 296, the remainder is 49 degrees, which is the true quantity of the angle EKG.

A circumferentor was made by Mr Jones of Holborn on an improved construction. From a very simple contrivance, it is rendered sufficient to take angles with the accuracy of a common theodolite; and by it angles of altitude and depression may be observed as readily as horizontal ones. The improvement chiefly consists in an arm or index (G), so applied to the centre of the compass box, and within it, that, at the time of observing, by only slipping a pin *(p)* out, the circle of degrees alone may move round, and leave the index (G) fixed. This index will remain stationary, from its being attached to the socket that screws on the head of the staffs. On the end of this index, next the degrees in the box, there is graduated a nonius scale, by which the circle of 360 degrees is subdivided into five minutes or less if desired. To take angles of altitudes or depressions, the instrument is turned down on its ball and socket into a perpendicular position, and adjusted to its level by a plumb line *(l)*, that is hung on a pin at the back of the box, and made to coincide with a mark made thereon. Then by looking through the small sight holes *(s)* purposely made, the angles are shown on the circles of degrees by the nonius as before. The arms (AA) of the instrument slip off (at BB), and the whole packs into a case but $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches square and 3 deep.

Ibid.

CIRCUMFLEX, in *Grammar*, an accent serving to note, or distinguish, a syllable of an intermediate sound between acute and grave; and generally somewhat long.—The Greeks had three accents, the acute, the grave, and the circumflex; formed thus, ′, ‵, ~. In Latin, English, French, &c. the circumflex is made thus ʌ.—The acute raises the voice, and the grave falls or lowers it: the circumflex is a kind of undulation, or wavering of the voice, between the two. It is seldom used among the moderns, unless to show the omission of a letter which made the syllable long and open; a thing much more frequent in the French than among us: thus they write *pâte* for *paste*; *tête* for *teste*; *fûmes* for *fusmes*, &c. They also use the circumflex in the participles; some of their authors writing *conneu*, *peu*, others *connû*, *pû*, &c. Father Buffier is at a loss for the reason of the circumflex on this occasion.

The form of the Greek circumflex was anciently the same with that of ours, viz. ʌ; being a composition of the other two accents ʌ in one.—But the copyists changing the form of the characters, and introducing the running hand, changed also the form of the circumflex accent; and instead of making a just angle, rounded it off, adding a dash, through too much haste; and thus formed an *s*, laid horizontally, which produced this figure ~, instead of this ʌ.

CIRCUMGYRATION, denotes the whirling motion of any body round a centre; such is that of the planets round the sun.

CIRCUMLOCUTION, an ambages, or tour of words, used either when a proper term is not at hand, to express a thing naturally and immediately by; or when one chooses not to do it, out of respect, or for some other reason. The word comes from *circumloquor*, "I speak about."

CIRCUMLOCUTION, in oratory, is the avoiding of something disagreeable or inconvenient to be expressed in direct terms; by intimating the sense thereof in a kind of paraphrase, so conceived as to soften or break the force thereof.

Thus Cicero, unable to deny that Clodius was slain by Milo, owns it, with this circumlocution, "Milo's "servants being prevented from assisting their master, "who was reported to be killed by Clodius; they, in "his absence, and without his privity, or consent, did "what every body would expect from their own ser-"vants on such an occasion."

CIRCUMPOLAR STARS, an appellation given to thoſe ſtars, which, by reaſon of their vicinity to the pole, move round it without ſetting.

CIRCUMPOTATIO, in antiquity, a funeral feaſt provided in honour of the dead. This was very frequent among the ancient Romans, as well as among the Athenians. Solon at Athens, and the decemviri at Rome, endeavoured to reform this cuſtom, thinking it abſurd that mirth and drunkenneſs ſhould mingle with ſorrow and grief.

CIRCUMSCRIBED, in *Geometry*, is ſaid of a figure which is drawn round another figure, ſo that all its ſides or planes touch the inſcribed figure.

CIRCUMSCRIPTION, in *Natural Philoſophy*, the termination, bounds, or limits, of any natural body.

CIRCUMSTANCE, a particularity, which, though not eſſential to any action, yet doth ſome way affect it.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE, in *Law*, or the doctrine of preſumption, takes place next to poſitive proof: circumſtances which either neceſſarily or uſually attend facts of a particular nature, that cannot be demonſtratively evinced, are called *preſumptions*, and are only to be relied on till the contrary be actually proved.

CIRCUMSTANTIBUS, in *Law*, a term uſed for ſupplying and making up the number of jurors, (in caſe any impannelled appear not; or appearing are challenged by any party), by adding to them ſo many of the perſons preſent as will make up the number, in caſe they are properly qualified.

CIRCUMVALLATION, or *Line of* CIRCUMVALLATION, in the art of war, is a trench bordered with a parapet, thrown up quite round the beſieger's camp, by way of ſecurity againſt any army that may attempt to relieve the place, as well as to prevent deſertion.

CIRCUMVOLUTION, in *Architecture*, denotes the torus of the ſpiral line of the Ionic order.

CIRCUS, in antiquity, a large building, either round or oval, uſed for the exhibiting of ſhows to the people. Some derive the word from *Circe*, to whom Tertullian attributes the invention. Caſſiodorus ſays, *Circus* comes *à circuitu*. The Romans, Servius obſerves, at firſt had no other circus but that made by the Tiber on one ſide, and a paliſade of naked ſwords on the other. Hence, according to Iſidore, came the term *ludi circenſes*, *quaſi circum enſes*. But Scaliger ridicules that etymology.

The Roman circus was a large oblong edifice, arched at one end, encompaſſed with porticoes, and furniſhed with rows of ſeats, placed aſcending over each other. In the middle was a kind of foot-bank, or eminence, with obeliſks, ſtatues, and poſts at each end. This ſerved them for the courſes of their *bigæ* and *quadrigæ*. There were no leſs than ten circuſes at Rome: The largeſt was built by the elder Tarquin, called *Circus Maximus*, between the Aventine and Palatine mounts. It was ſo called, either becauſe of its vaſt circumference, or becauſe the great games were celebrated in it; or again, becauſe it was conſecrated to the great gods, viz. to Vertumnus, Neptune, Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, and the Dii Penates of Rome. Dionyſius Halicarnaſſenſis ſays that it was three ſtadia and a half in length, and four jugera broad; and theſe meaſures, according to Pliny, allowing to the Roman ſtadia 625 Roman feet, each of which is twelve inches, will give for the length, 2187 Roman feet, or ſomewhat more than three Engliſh furlongs: and as to the breadth, allowing for each of the jugera 240 Roman feet, it will be 960 Roman feet. It was beautified and enlarged by the Roman emperors, ſo as to ſeat 250,000 ſpectators. The moſt magnificent circuſes were thoſe of Auguſtus and Nero. There are ſtill ſome remains of the circuſes at Rome, at Niſmes, and other places. The Romans were exceſſively fond of the games exhibited in the circus: witneſs that verſe in Juvenal,

——Atque duas tantum res anxius optat,
Panem et circenſes.——————

The Games of the CIRCUS, which ſome call the *Circenſian Games*, were combats celebrated in the circus, in honour of Conſus the god of councils; and thence alſo called *Conſualia*. They were alſo called *Roman Games*, *Ludi Romani*, either on account of their antiquity, as being coeval with the Roman people, or becauſe eſtabliſhed by the Romans; and the games held there, the great games, *ludi magni*, becauſe celebrated with more expence and magnificence than others; and becauſe held in honour of the great god Neptune, who was their Conſus.—Thoſe who ſay they were inſtituted in honour of the ſun, confound the *pompa circenſis*, or proceſſion of the circus, with the games.

The games of the circus were inſtituted by Evander, and re-eſtabliſhed by Romulus: the pomp, or proceſſion, was only a part of the games, making the prelude thereof, and conſiſting of a ſimple cavalcade of chariots. Till the time of the elder Tarquin, they were held in an iſland of the Tiber; and were called *Roman Games*: after that prince had built the circus, they took their name therefrom, as being conſtantly held there. There were ſix kinds of exerciſes in the circus: the firſt was wreſtling, and fighting with ſwords, with ſtaves, and with pikes; the ſecond was racing; the third, ſaltatio, leaping; the fourth, diſci, quoits, arrows, and ceſtus; all which were on foot: the fifth was horſe-courſing; the ſixth, courſes of chariots, whether with two horſes or with four. In this laſt exerciſe, the combatants were at firſt divided into two ſquadrons or quadrils; then into four; each bearing the names of the colours they wore; *factio alba*, *ruſſea*, &c. At firſt there were only white and red; then green and blue were added. Domitian added two more colours, but they did not continue. It was Oenomaus who firſt invented this method of diſtinguiſhing the quadrils by colours. The green was for thoſe who repreſented the earth; the blue for the ſea, &c.

CIRENCESTER, an ancient town of Glouceſterſhire in England. It was ſtrongly fortified with walls and a caſtle in the time of the Romans. The ruins of the walls and ſtreets are, or were lately, to be ſeen in the adjacent meadows, where many Roman coins, chequered pavements, and inſcriptions on marble, have been found. Two of the Roman conſular ways croſs each other at this town. The foſſe-way, which comes from Scotland, paſſes through this county and town to Totneſs in Devonſhire. The other, called *Irmin-ſtreet*, comes from Glouceſter, and runs along to Southampton.

Cirencester || Cirrus.

ampton. Not many years ago they discovered, by digging in a meadow near the town, an ancient building under ground, 50 feet long, 40 broad, and 4 high, and supported by 100 brick pillars, curiously inlaid with stones of various colours, supposed to have been a Roman bath. Cirencester has now but one church, in the windows of which are the remains of very valuable painted glass. The town is governed by two high constables, and 14 wards-men, who govern seven distinct wards; and it sends two members to parliament. It has a free-school, a charity-school, with several alms-houses; and is seated on the river Churn, 36 miles north-east of Bristol, and 88 west by north of London. W. Long. 0. 2. N. Lat. 51. 42.

CIRENZA, a city of Naples, capital of the Basilicate, with an archbishop's see. It was formerly a considerable place, but is now of small consequence. It is situated on the river Brandano, at the foot of the Apennine mountains, in E. Long. 16. 44. N. Lat. 40. 48.

CIRO-FERRI, an excellent Italian painter and architect, was born at Rome in 1614, and was the disciple of Peter de Cortona, whose designs he imitated with such exactness, that it is difficult to distinguish them. He was esteemed by Pope Alexander VII. and his three successors, and died at Rome in 1689.

CIRRUS, or CIRRHUS, in *Botany*, a clasper or tendril; that fine spiral string or fibre put out from the footstalks, by which some plants, as the ivy and vine, fasten themselves to walls, pales, or trees for support. The term is synonymous to the capreolus, clavicula, and viticulus of other botanists; and is ranked by Linnæus among the fulcra, or parts of plants that serve for protection, support, and defence.

Tendrils are sometimes placed opposite to the leaves, as in the vine; sometimes at the side of the footstalk of the leaf, as in the passion flower; and sometimes, as in winged pea, *pisum ochrus*, they are emitted from the leaves themselves. With respect to composition, they are either simple, that is, composed of one fibre or chord, as in the vetch; or compound, that is, consist of two, three, or more, as in the everlasting pea. Bitter sweet, *solanum dulcamara*, bignonia, and ivy, send forth tendrils which plant themselves like roots in the adjacent walls, or the bark of the neighbouring trees. Claspers, says the ingenious Dr Grew, are like trunk roots, a mean betwixt a root and a trunk, but a compound of both, as may be gathered from their circumvolutions, in which they mutually ascend and descend. In the mounting of the trunk, continues the same author, claspers serve for support. Thus, in vines, the branches being very long, fragile, and slender, would be liable to frequent breaking, unless, by means of their claspers, they were mutually contained together; so that the whole care is divided betwixt the gardener and nature: the former with his ligaments of leather, secures the main branches; and nature, with those of her own providing, secures the less. Their aptitude to this end is seen in their convolutions, a motion not proper to any other part; and also in their toughness, which is so much the more remarkable, as they are slenderer than the branches from which they proceed. In the trailing of the trunk, tendrils serve for stabilement and shade: thus, in cucumbers the trunk and branches being long and fragile, would be driven to and fro by the winds, to the great prejudice both of themselves and their tender fruits, were they not, by these ligaments, held fast together, and preserved in association and good fellowship. The same claspers serve likewise for shade, so that a natural arbour is formed by the branches of the cucumber, in the same manner as an artificial one is made by tangling together the branches of trees; for the branches, by the linking of the claspers, being couched together, the tender fruits lie under the umbrage of a bower made of their own leaves. Most of the pea-bloom flowers have twining claspers, that is, which wind to the right and back again.

Cirri || Cissampelos.

CIRRI, in *Ichthyology*, certain oblong and soft appendages, not unlike little worms, hanging from the under jaws or mouths of some fishes; these cirri, commonly translated *beards*, afford marks to distinguish the different species of the fishes on which they are found.

CIRTA, in *Ancient Geography*, the metropolis and royal residence, not far from the river Ampsaga, in the inland parts of Numidia Propria. A colony, surnamed *Colonia Sittianorum*, very rich, when in the hands of Syphax. The colony was led by one P. Sittius, under the auspices of Cæsar, and was surnamed *Julia*. Now called *Constantina*, in Algiers. E. Long. 7. 0. N. Lat. 35. 30.

CISALPINE, any thing on this side the Alps. The Romans divided Gaul and the country now called *Lombardy*, into Cisalpine and Transalpine. That which was Cisalpine with regard to the Romans, is Transalpine with regard to us.

CISLEU, in Hebrew chronology, the ninth month of their ecclesiastical, and third of their civil, year, answering nearly to our November.

CISPADANA GALLIA, in *Ancient Geography*; a district of Italy, to the south of the Po, occupied by the Gauls in the time of the kings of Rome, separated from Liguria on the west, as is thought by the Iria, running from south to north into the Po; bounded on the south by the Apennine, and on the east by the Adriatic. The term is formed analogically, there being much mention in Cicero, Tacitus, Suetonius, and ancient inscriptions, made of the *Transpadani*; which and *Cispadani* are terms used with respect to Rome. Ptolemy calls the *Cispadana* peculiarly *Gallia Togata*, extending between the Po and Apennine, to the Sapis and Rubicon.

CISSA, or CISSUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Hither Spain, in Lusitania, on the east side of the Iberus (thought to be *Guissona*), where the Carthaginians were first defeated by Scipio. Another *Cissa* of Thrace, situated on the river Ægos Potamus, which Scylax seems to call *Cressa*, or *Crissa*; so that the reading is doubtful.

CISSAMPELOS. See BOTANY *Index*. There are two species of this genus, the pareira and caapeba, both natives of the warmest parts of America. The root of the second, applied externally, is said to be an antidote against the bites of venomous serpents. The plant being infused in water, quickly fills the liquor with a mucilaginous substance, which is as thick as jelly;

jelly; whence the name of *freezing-wyth*, by which this genus of plants has been distinguished by the Brazilians.

CISSOID, in *Geometry*, a curve of the second order, first invented by Diocles, whence it is called *the cissoid of Diocles*. See FLUXIONS.

CISSUS, the WILD-GRAPE. See BOTANY *Index*.

CISTERCIANS, in *Church-history*, a religious order founded in the 11th century by St Robert a Benedictine. They became so powerful, that they governed almost all Europe, both in spirituals and temporals. Cardinal de Vitri describing their observances, says, they neither wore skins nor shirts, nor ever ate flesh, except in sickness; and abstained from fish, eggs, milk, and cheese: they lay upon straw-beds, in tunics and cowls; they rose at midnight to prayers; they spent the day in labour, reading, and prayer, and in all their exercises observed a continual silence. The habit of the Cistercian monks is a white robe, in the nature of a cassock, with a black scapulary and hood, and is girt with a wooden girdle. The nuns wear a white tunic, and a black scapulary and girdle.

CISTERN, denotes a subterraneous reservoir of rain-water; or a vessel serving as a receptacle for rain or other water, for the necessary uses of a family. There are likewise lead-cisterns, jar-cisterns, &c.

Authors mention a cistern at Constantinople, the vaults of which are supported by two rows of pillars, 212 in each row, each pillar being two feet in diameter. They are planted circularly, and *in radii* tending to that of the centre.

Anciently there were cisterns all over the country in Palestine. There were some likewise in cities and private houses. As the cities for the most part were built on mountains, and the rains fell regularly in Judea at two seasons in the year only, in spring and autumn, people were obliged to keep water in cisterns in the country for the use of their cattle, and in cities for the conveniency of the inhabitants. There are still cisterns of very large dimensions to be seen in Palestine, some whereof are 150 paces long, and 54 wide. There is one to be seen at Ramah of 32 paces in length, and 28 in breadth. Wells and cisterns, springs and fountains, are generally confounded in scripture-language.

CISTUS, the ROCK-ROSE. See BOTANY *Index*.

CITADEL, a place fortified with five or six bastions, built on a convenient ground near a city, that it may command it in case of a rebellion.

CITADELLA, the capital town in the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean, with a new harbour. This, with the whole island, was taken by General Stanhope and the confederate fleet in 1708, and ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; but it was taken by the French, after a brave defence, in 1756, and restored by the peace. In 1782, it was taken by the Spaniards, and confirmed to them at the subsequent peace. It is 27 miles west of Port-Mahon. E. Long. 3. 30. N. Lat. 39. 58.

CITADINESCA, in *Natural History*, a name given by some writers to the Florentine marble, which is supposed to represent towns, palaces, ruins, rivers, &c. These delineations are merely accidental, and are commonly much assisted by the imagination, though the natural lines of a stone may sometimes luckily enough represent the ruins of some ancient building, or the course of a river. In England there is a kind of septaria, or ludus Helmontii, which has sometimes pretty beautiful, though very irregular, delineations of this kind. The Florentine marble, as we see it wrought up in the ornaments of cabinets, &c. owes a great deal to the skill of the workmen, who always pick out the proper pieces from the mass, and dispose them in the work so as to represent what they please.

CITATION, in ecclesiastical courts, is the same with summons in civil courts. See SUMMONS.

CITATION, is also a quotation of some law authority, or passage of a book.

CITHÆRON, in *Ancient Geography*, a mountain and forest of Bœotia, celebrated both in fable and song. To the west it ran obliquely, a little above the Sinus Crissæus, taking its rise contiguous to the mountains of Megara and Attica; then levelled into plains, it terminates at Thebes, famous for the fate of Pentheus and Actæon; the former torn by the Bacchæ, the latter by his dogs; as also for the *orgia*, or revels of Bacchus.

CITHARA, in antiquity, a musical instrument, the precise structure of which is not known; some think it resembled the Greek delta Δ; and others the shape of a half-moon. At first it had only three strings, but the number was at different times increased to 8, to 9, and lastly to 24. It was used in entertainments and private houses, and played upon with a plectrum or quill, like the lyre.

CITHAREXYLON, FIDDLE-WOOD. See BOTANY *Index*.

CITIUM, CETIUM, or *Cittium*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Cyprus, situated in the south of the island, famous for the birth of Zeno, author of the sect called *Stoics*; distant two hundred stadia to the west of Salamis (Diodorus Siculus). A colony of Phœnicians, called *Chetim*: And hence it is that not only Cyprus, but the other islands and many maritime places, are called *Chetim* by the Hebrews: now called *Chiti*.

CITIZEN, a native or inhabitant of a city, vested with the freedom and liberties of it.

A citizen of Rome was distinguished from a stranger, because he belonged to no certain commonwealth subject to the Romans. A citizen is either by birth or election; and sons may derive the right from their fathers. To make a good Roman citizen, it was necessary to be an inhabitant of Rome, to be inrolled in one of the tribes, and to be capable of dignities. Those to whom were granted the rights and privileges of Roman citizens were only honorary citizens. It was not lawful to scourge a citizen of Rome.

CITRINUS, in *Natural History*, the name of a peculiar species of sprig crystal, which is of a beautiful yellow. Many of the common crystals, when in the neighbourhood of lead mines, are liable to be accidentally tinged yellow, by an admixture of the particles of that metal; and all these, whether finer or coarser, have been too frequently confounded together under the name *citrine*; but Dr Hill has ascertained this to be a peculiar species of crystal different from all the others in form as well as in colour; and distinguished by the name of *ellipomacrostylum lucidum flavescens*,

Citrinus || City.

vescens, pyramide brevi. It is never found colourless like the other crystals, but has great variety of tinges, from that of the deeper ochres to a pale lemon colour. It is very plentiful in the West Indies, and is sometimes found in Bohemia. Our jewellers have learned from the French and Italians, who are very fond of it, to call it *citrine;* and often cut stones for rings out of it, particularly out of the pyramid, which is always finer than the column; and these, after they have passed through two or three hands, are generally mistaken for topazes.

CITRON-TREE. See CITRUS, BOTANY *Index.*

CITRON-Water, a well-known strong water or cordial, which may be thus made: Take of fine thin lemon-peel, 18 ounces; of orange-peel, 9 ounces; perfect nutmegs, 4 ounces; the finest and best alcohol 2 gallons and a half. Digest in balneo mariæ for one night: draw off with a slow fire; then add as much water as will just make the matter milky (which will be about 7 quarts or 2 gallons; and lastly, add 2 pounds of fine sugar. This composition may be improved by fresh elder flowers, hung in a cloth in the head of the still, sprinkled with ambergris in powder, or its essence.

CITRON-Wood, the wood of an American tree, called by the natives *candle-wood*, because, being cut into splinters it burns like a candle. The tree is frequent in the Leeward islands, and grows to a considerable size: the leaves are like those of the bay-tree, but of a finer green; the flower is sweet, and much like those of the orange; the fruit succeeding these is black, and of the size of a pepper-corn. The trunk is so like the yellow saunders in colour, that there was once an opinion that it was the same tree, and much of it was imported into Europe, and sold as such; but they were soon found to be different; the saunders being of a sweet scent, and but moderately heavy and resinous: but the citron-wood considerably heavy, very oily, and of a strong smell. It is of no known use in medicine; but is used in France and Germany by the turners, being a fine firm-grained wood, and taking a fine polish, and with age becoming of a very beautiful brown.

CITRUS, the CITRON-TREE. See BOTANY *Index.* This genus includes the citron, the lemon, the lime, the orange, of which there are different varieties, the shaddock, and the forbidden fruit.

CITTERN, a musical instrument much resembling the guitar, for which it has been frequently mistaken. Anciently it was called the *cistrum*, and till lately was held in great contempt both in France and Britain. The practice on it being very easy, it was formerly the amusement and recreation of lewd women and their visitors, insomuch, that in many of the old English dramatic writers, it is made the symbol of a woman that lived by prostitution. It was also the common amusement of waiting customers in barbers shops, as being the most easy of all instruments to play on, and therefore it was thought that almost every body could make use of it.

CITY, according to Cowel, is a town corporate which hath a bishop and cathedral church; and is called *civitas*, *oppidum*, and *urbs*: *civitas*, in regard it is governed by justice and order of magistracy; *oppidum*, because it contains a great number of inhabitants; and *urbs* because it is in due form surrounded with walls. City.

Kingdoms have been said to contain as many cities as they have seats of archbishops and bishops; but, according to Blount, *city* is a word that hath obtained since the conquest; for, in the time of the Saxons, there were no cities, but all the great towns were called *burghs*, and even London was then called *Londonburgh*, as the capital of Scotland is called *Edinburgh*. And long after the conquest the word *city* is used promiscuously with the *burgh*, as in the charter of Leicester, where it is both called *civitas* and *burgus;* which shows that those writers were mistaken who tell us every city was, or is, a bishop's see. And though the word *city* signifies with us such a town corporate as hath usually a bishop and a cathedral church, yet it is not always so.

As to the ancient state of cities and villages, whilst the feudal policy prevailed, they held of some great lord on whom they depended for protection, and were subject to his arbitrary jurisdiction. The inhabitants were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They could not dispose of the effects which their own industry had acquired, either by a latter will or by any deed executed during their life. They had no right to appoint guardians for their children during their minority. They were not permitted to marry without purchasing the consent of the lord on which they depended. If once they had commenced a law-suit, they durst not terminate it by an accommodation, because that would have deprived the lord, in whose court they pleaded, of the perquisites due to him on passing his sentence. Services of various kinds no less disgraceful than oppressive were exacted from them without mercy or moderation. The spirit of industry was checked in some cities by absurd regulations, and in others by unreasonable exactions; nor would the narrow and oppressive maxims of a military aristocracy have permitted it ever to rise to any degree of height or vigour. *Robertson Charles V.*

The freedom of cities was first established in Italy, owing principally to the introduction of commerce. As soon as they began to turn their attention towards this object, and to conceive some idea of the advantages they might derive from it, they became impatient to shake off the yoke of their insolent lords, and to establish among themselves such a free and equal government as would render property secure and industry flourishing. The German emperors, especially those of the Franconian and Suabian lines, as the seat of their government was far distant from Italy, possessed a feeble and imperfect jurisdiction in that country. Their perpetual quarrels, either with the popes or their own turbulent vassals, diverted their attention from the interior police of Italy, and gave constant employment for their arms. These circumstances induced some of the Italian cities towards the beginning of the 11th century, to assume new privileges; to unite together more closely, and to form themselves into bodies politic, under the government of laws established by common consent. The rights which many cities acquired by bold or fortunate usurpations, others purchased from the emperors, who deemed themselves gainers when they received large sums for immunities which they were no longer able to withhold; and some cities obtained

City.

tained them gratuitously from the facility or generosity of the princes on whom they depended. The great increase of wealth which the crusades brought into Italy, occasioned a new kind of fermentation and activity in the minds of the people, and excited such a general passion for liberty and independence, that, before the conclusion of the last crusade, all the considerable cities in that country had either purchased or had extorted large immunities from the emperors.

This innovation was not long known in Italy before it made its way into France. Louis the Gross, in order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals who controlled or gave law to the crown, first adopted the plan of conferring new privileges on the towns situated within his own domain. These privileges were called *charters of community*, by which he enfranchised the inhabitants, abolished all marks of servitude, and formed them into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination. These magistrates had the right of administering justice within their own precincts; of levying taxes; of embodying and training to arms the militia of the town, which took the field when required by the sovereign under the command of officers appointed by the community. The great barons imitated the example of their monarch, and granted like immunities to the towns within their territories. They had wasted such great sums in their expeditions to the Holy Land, that they were eager to lay hold on this new expedient for raising money by the sale of those charters of liberty. Though the constitution of communities was as repugnant to their maxims of policy as it was adverse to their power, they disregarded remote consequences in order to obtain present relief. In less than two centuries, servitude was abolished in most of the cities of France, and they became free corporations, instead of dependent villages without jurisdiction or privileges. Much about the same period the great cities of Germany began to acquire like immunities, and laid the foundations of their present liberty and independence. The practice spread quickly over Europe, and was adopted in Spain, England, Scotland, and all the other feudal kingdoms.

The Spanish historians are almost entirely silent concerning the origin and progress of communities in that kingdom; so that it is impossible to fix with any degree of certainty, the time and manner of their first introduction there. It appears, however, from Mariana, that in the year 1350 eighteen cities had obtained a seat in the Cortes of Castile. In Arragon, cities seem early to have acquired extensive immunities, together with a share in the legislature. In the year 1118, the citizens of Saragossa had not only obtained political liberty, but they were declared to be of equal rank with the nobles of the second class; and many other immunities, unknown to persons in their rank of life in other parts of Europe, were conferred upon them. In England, the establishment of communities or corporations was posterior to the conquest. The practice was borrowed from France, and the privileges granted by the crown were perfectly similar to those above enumerated. It is not improbable, that some of the towns in England were formed into corporations under the Saxon kings; and that the charters granted by the kings of the Norman race were not charters of enfranchisements from a state of slavery, but a confirmation of privileges which they had already enjoyed*. The English cities, however, were very considerable in the 12th century. A clear proof of this occurs in the history just referred to. Fitz-Stephen, a contemporary author, gives a description of the city of London in the reign of Henry II. and the terms in which he speaks of its trade, its wealth, and the number of its inhabitants, would suggest no inadequate idea of its state at present, when it is the greatest and most opulent city in Europe. But all ideas of grandeur and magnificence are merely comparative. It appears from Peter of Blois, archdeacon of London, who flourished in the same reign, and who had good opportunity of being informed, that this city, of which Fitz-Stephen gives such a pompous account, contained no more than 40,000 inhabitants. The other cities were small in proportion, and in no condition to extort any extensive privileges. That the constitution of the boroughs of Scotland in many circumstances resembles that of the towns of France and England, is manifest from the *Leges Burgorum* annexed to the *Regiam Majestatem*.

City || Civic Crown.

* See *Lord Lyttleton's History of Henry II.* vol. ii. p. 317.

CIVET, a kind of perfume which bears the name of the animal it is taken from, and to which it is peculiar. See VIVERRA.

Good civet is of a clear, yellowish, or brownish colour; not fluid nor hard, but about the consistence of butter or honey, and uniform throughout; of a very strong smell, quite offensive when undiluted, but agreeable when only a small portion of civet is mixed with a large one of other substances. It unites easily with oils both expressed and distilled, but not at all with water or alcohol; nor can it be rendered miscible with water by the mediation of sugar. The yolk of an egg seems to dispose it to unite with water; but in a very little while the civet separates from the liquor, and falls to the bottom, though it does not prove of such a resinous tenacity as when treated with sugar and alcohol. It communicates, however, some share of its smell both to watery and spirituous liquors: hence a small portion of it is often added in odoriferous tinctures, and suspended in the still-head during the distillation of odoriferous waters and spirits. It is rarely if ever employed for medicinal purposes. The Italians make it an ingredient in perfumed oils, and thus obtain the whole of its scent; for oils wholly dissolve the substance of it. It is very rare, however, to meet with civet unadulterated. The substances usually mixed with it are lard and butter, which agreeing with it in its general properties, render all criteria for distinguishing the adulteration impossible. A great trade of civet is carried on at Calicut, Bassora, and other parts of the Indies, and in Africa, where the animal that produces the perfume is found. Live civet-cats are to be seen also in France and Holland. The French keep them only as a rarity; but the Dutch, who keep a great number, draw the civet from them for sale. It is mostly used by confectioners and perfumers.

CIVET-Cat, the English name of the animal which produces the civet. See VIVERRA, MAMMALIA *Index*.

CIVIC CROWN, was a crown given by the ancient Romans to any soldier who had saved the life of a citizen in an engagement.

The civic crown was reckoned more honourable than

than any other crown, though compoſed of no better materials than oak boughs. Plutarch, in the life of C. M. Coriolanus, accounts as follows for uſing on this occaſion the branches of this tree before all others: becauſe, ſays, he, the oaken wreath being ſacred to Jupiter, the great guardian of their city, they thought it the moſt proper ornament for him who had preſerved the life of a citizen. Pliny *, ſpeaking of the honour and privileges conferred on thoſe who had merited this crown, ſays, "They who had once obtained it, might wear it always." When they appeared at the public ſpectacles, the ſenate and people roſe to do them honour, and they took their ſeats on theſe occaſions among the ſenators. They were not only perſonally excuſed from all troubleſome offices, but procured the ſame immunity for their father and grandfather by the father's ſide.

* *Lib* xvi. *cap.* 4.

CIVIDAD DE-LAS-PALMAS, the capital town of the iſland of Canary, with a biſhop's ſee, and a good harbour. The houſes are well built, two ſtories high, and flat-roofed. The cathedral is a very handſome ſtructure; and the inhabitants are gay and rich. The air is temperate, and free from extremes of heat and cold. It is defended by a ſmall caſtle ſeated on a hill. W. Long. 14. 35. N. Lat. 28. 0.

CIVIDAD Real, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, and capital of La Mancha. The inhabitants are noted for dreſſing leather extremely well for gloves. W. Long. 4. 15. N. Lat. 39. 2.

CIVIDAD Roderigo, a ſtrong and conſiderable town of Spain, in the kingdom of Leon, with a biſhop's ſee. It is ſeated in a fertile country, on the river Agueda, in W. Long. 6. 52. N. Lat. 40. 38.

CIVIDAD-di-Friuli, a ſmall but ancient town of Italy, in Friuli, and in the territory of Venice; ſeated on the river Natiſona. E. Long. 13. 25. N. Lat. 46. 15.

CIVIL, in a general ſenſe, ſomething that regards the policy, public good, or peace, of the citizens or ſubjects of the ſtate; in which ſenſe we ſay, civil government, civil law, civil right, civil war, &c.

CIVIL, in a popular ſenſe, is applied to a complaiſant and humane behaviour in the ordinary intercourſe of life. See CIVILITY.

CIVIL, in a legal ſenſe, is alſo applied to the ordinary procedure in an action, relating to ſome pecuniary matter or intereſt; in which ſenſe it is oppoſed to criminal.

CIVIL Death, any thing that cuts off a man from civil ſociety; as a condemnation to the galleys, perpetual baniſhment, condemnation to death, outlawry, and excommunication.

CIVIL Law, is properly the peculiar law of each ſtate, country, or city: but what we uſually mean by the civil law, is a body of laws compoſed out of the beſt Roman and Grecian laws, compiled from the laws of nature and nations; and, for the moſt part, received and obſerved, throughout all the Roman dominions for above 1200 years. See LAW *Index*.

It was firſt brought over into England by Theobald a Norman abbot, who was elected to the ſee of Canterbury in 1138; and he appointed a profeſſor, viz. Roger ſurnamed *Vicarius*, in the univerſity of Oxford, to teach it to the people of this country. Nevertheleſs, it gained ground very ſlowly. King Stephen iſſued a proclamation, prohibiting the ſtudy of it. And though the clergy were attached to it, the laity rather wiſhed to preſerve the old conſtitution. However, the zeal and influence of the clergy prevailed; and the civil law acquired great reputation from the reign of King Stephen to the reign of King Edward the III. both incluſive. Many tranſcripts of Juſtinian's Inſtitute are to be found in the writings of our ancient authors, particularly of Bracton and Fleta; and Judge Blackſtone obſerves, that the common law would have been loſt and overrun by the civil, had it not been for the incident of fixing the court of common pleas in one certain ſpot, and the forming the profeſſion of the municipal law into an aggregate body.

It is allowed that the civil law contains all the principles of natural equity; and that nothing can be better calculated to form good ſenſe and ſound judgment. Hence, though in ſeveral countries it has no other authority but that of reaſon and juſtice, it is everywhere referred to for authority. It is not received at this day in any nation without ſome alterations; and ſometimes the feudal law is mixed with it, or general and particular cuſtoms; and often ordinances and ſtatutes cut off a great part of it.

In Turkey, the Baſilics are only uſed. In Italy, the canon law and cuſtoms have excluded a good part of it. In Venice, cuſtom hath almoſt an abſolute government. In the Milaneſe, the feudal law and particular cuſtoms bear ſway. In Naples and Sicily, the conſtitutions and laws of the Lombards are ſaid to prevail. In Germany and Holland, the civil law is eſteemed to be the municipal law; but yet many parts of it are there grown obſolete; and others are altered, either by the canon law or a different uſage. In Frieſland, it is obſerved with more ſtrictneſs; but in the northern parts of Germany, the jus Saxonicum, Lubecenſe, or Culmenſe, is preferred before it. In Denmark and Sweden, it hath ſcarce any authority at all. In France, only a part of it is received, and that part is in ſome places as a cuſtomary law; and in thoſe provinces neareſt to Italy it is received as a municipal written law. In criminal cauſes, the civil law is more regarded in France; but the manner of trial is regulated by ordinances and edicts. In Spain and Portugal, the civil law is connected with the jus regium and cuſtom. In Scotland, the ſtatutes of the ſederunt, part of the regiam majeſtatem, and their cuſtoms, controul the civil law.

In England, it is uſed in the eccleſiaſtical courts, in the high court of admiralty, in the court of chivalry, in the two univerſities, and in the courts of equity; yet in all theſe it is reſtrained and directed by the common law.

CIVIL Society. See LAW *Index*.

CIVIL State, in the Britiſh polity, one of the general diviſions of the LAITY, comprehending all orders of men, from the higheſt nobleman to the meaneſt peaſant, that are not included under the MILITARY or MARITIME ſtates; though it may ſometimes include individuals of theſe as well as of the CLERGY; ſince a nobleman, a knight, a gentleman, or a peaſant, may become either a divine, a ſoldier, or a ſeaman. The diviſion of this ſtate is into NOBILITY and COMMONALTY. See theſe articles.

CIVIL War, a war between people of the ſame ſtate, or the citizens of the ſame city.

CIVIL Year, is the legal year, or annual account of time, which every government appoints to be used within its own dominions; and is so called in contradistinction to the natural year, which is measured exactly by the revolution of the heavenly bodies.

CIVILIAN, in general, denotes something belonging to the civil law; but more especially the doctors and professors thereof are called *civilians*.

CIVILITY, a term used in common life as synonymous with complaisance or good-breeding.

Civility is justly inculcated by didactic writers as a duty of no slight consideration. Without civility, or good-breeding, a court would be the seat of violence and desolation. There, all the passions are in fermentation; because all pursue what but few can obtain; there, if enemies did not embrace, they would stab; there, smiles are often put on to conceal tears; there, mutual services are professed, while mutual injuries are intended; and there, the guile of the serpent simulates the gentleness of the dove. To what a degree must good-breeding adorn the beauty of truth, when it can thus soften the deformity of falsehood? On this subject we have the following elegant observations in Knox's Essays, N° 95.

"However just the complaints of the misery of life, yet great occasions for the display of beneficence and liberality do not often occur. But there is an hourly necessity for the little kind offices of mutual civility. At the same time that they give pleasure to others, they add to our own happiness and improvement. Habitual acts of kindness have a powerful effect in softening the heart. An intercourse with polished and humane company tends to improve the disposition, because it requires a conformity of manners. And it is certain, that a sense of decorum, and of a proper external behaviour, will restrain those whose natural temper would otherwise break out in acrimonious and petulant conversation. Even the affectation of philanthropy will in time contribute to realise it. The pleasure resulting from an act of kindness naturally excites a wish to repeat it; and indeed the general esteem which the character of benevolence procures, is sufficient to induce those to wish for it who only act from the mean motives of self-interest.

"As we are placed in a world where natural evil abounds, we ought to render it supportable to each other as far as human endeavours can avail. All that can add a sweet ingredient to the bitter cup must be infused. Amid the multitude of thorns, every flower that will grow must be cultivated with care. But neither pomp nor power are of themselves able to alleviate the load of life. The heart requires to be soothed by sympathy. A thousand little attentions from all around us are necessary to render our days agreeable. The appearance of neglect in any of those with whom we are connected, chills our bosom with chagrin, or kindles the fire of resentment. Nothing therefore seems so likely to ensure happiness as our mutual endeavours to promote it. Our single endeavours, originating and terminating in ourselves, are usually unsuccessful. Providence has taken care to secure that intercourse which is necessary to the existence of society, by rendering it the greatest sweetener of human life.

"By reciprocal attentions we are enabled to become beneficent without expence. A smile, an affable address, a look of approbation, are often capable of giving a greater pleasure than pecuniary benefits can bestow. The mere participation of the studies and amusements of others, at the same time that it gratifies ourselves, is often an act of real humanity; because others would not enjoy them without companions. A friendly visit in a solitary hour, is often a greater act of kindness than a valuable present.

"It is really matter of surprise, that those who are distinguished by rank and opulence should ever be unpopular in their neighbourhood. They must know the value of popularity; and surely nothing is more easily obtained by a superior. Their notice confers honour, and the aspiring heart of man is always delighted with distinction. A gracious look from them diffuses happiness on the lower ranks. But it usually happens, that an overgrown rich man is not the favourite of a neighbouring country; and it is unfortunate, that pride or inadvertence often prevent men from acting the godlike part of making others happy, even when they might do it without inconvenience to themselves."

CIVITA-DI-PENNA, an ancient town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and in the Farther Abruzzo, with a bishop's see. It is situated near the river Salino, 25 miles north-east of Aquila. E. Long. 13. 3. N. Lat. 42. 25.

CIVITA Castellana, a town of Italy, in St Peter's patrimony, seated on a river, which, seven miles from thence, falls into the Tiber. E. Long. 13. 5. N. Lat. 42. 15.

CIVITA Turchino, a place in Italy, about two miles north of the town of Corneto in the patrimony of St Peter. It is a hill of an oblong form, the summit of which is almost one continued plain. From the quantity of medals, intaglios, fragments of inscriptions, &c. that are occasionally found here, this is believed to be the very spot where the ancient and powerful city of Tarquinii once stood. At present it is only one continued field of corn. On the south-east side of it runs the ridge of a hill which unites it to Corneto. This ridge is at least three or four miles in length, and almost entirely covered with artificial hillocks, called by the inhabitants *monti-rossi*. About twelve of these hillocks have at different times been opened; and in every one of them have been found several subterranean apartments cut out of the solid rock. These apartments are of various forms and dimensions; some consist of a large outer room, and a small one within; others of a small room, at the first entrance, and a large one within; others are supported by a column of the solid rock left in the centre, with openings on every part. The entrance to them all is by a door about five feet high, by two and a half broad. Some of them have no light but from the door, while others seem to have had a small light from above, through a hole of a pyramidal form. Many of these apartments have an elevated port that runs all round the wall, being a part of the rock left for that purpose. The moveables found in these apartments consist chiefly of Etruscan vases of various forms. In some indeed have been found some plain sarcophagi of stone, with bones in them. The whole of these apartments are stuccoed, and ornamented in various manners:

Civita Turchino || Clackmannan.

manners: ſome indeed are plain; but others, particularly three, are richly adorned, having a double row of Etruſcan inſcriptions running round the upper part of the walls, and under them a kind of frieze of figures in painting; ſome have an ornament under the figures, which ſeems to ſupply the place of an architrave. The paintings ſeem to be in freſco; and in general reſemble thoſe which are uſually ſeen upon Etruſcan vaſes; though ſome of them are perhaps ſuperior to any thing as yet ſeen of the Etruſcan art in painting. In general they are ſlight, but well conceived; and prove, that the artiſt was capable of producing things more ſtudied and better finiſhed; though, in ſuch a ſubterraneous ſituation, the delicacy of a finiſhed work would in a great meaſure have been thrown away. It is probable, however, that among the immenſe number of theſe apartments that yet remain to be opened, many paintings and inſcriptions may be found, ſufficient to form a very uſeful and entertaining work. At preſent this great ſcene of antiquities is almoſt entirely unknown, even in Rome. Mr Jenkins, reſident at Rome, was the firſt Engliſhman who viſited it.

CIVITA Vecchia, a ſea-port town of Italy in the patrimony of St Peter, with a good harbour and an arſenal. Here the Pope's galleys are ſtationed, and it has lately been made a free port; but the air is very unwholeſome. E. Long. 12. 31. N. Lat. 45. 5.

CIVOLI, or CIGOLI, *Lewis*, an Italian painter, whoſe family name was *Cardi*, was born at the caſtle of Cigoli, in Tuſcany, in the year 1559. His *ecce homo*, which he performed as a trial of ſkill with Barochio and Michael Angelo de Caravaggio, was judged better than thoſe executed by them. He excelled in deſigning, and was employed by the popes and princes of his time. He died at Rome in 1613.

CIUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town and river of Bithynia, which gave name to the Sinus Cianus. The town was afterwards called *Pruſia*, Cius having been deſtroyed by Philip father of Perſeus, and rebuilt by Pruſias king of Bithynia. In the river, Hylas, the favourite boy of Hercules, was drowned; (Apollonius Rhodius).

CLAC, among countrymen. To clack wool, is to cut off the ſheep's mark, which makes the weight leſs, and yields leſs cuſtom to the king.

CLACKMANNAN, the name of a ſmall ſhire in Scotland, not exceeding eight miles in length and five in breadth. It is bounded on the ſouth by the frith of Forth; on the north and weſt by Perthſhire; and on the eaſt by Fife. The country is plain and fertile towards the frith, producing corn and paſture in abundance. It likewiſe yields great abundance of excellent coal, conſiderable quantities of which are ſhipped to ſupply Edinburgh with fuel. It is watered by the rivers Forth and Devon, and joins the ſhire of Kinroſs in ſending a member alternately to parliament.

Population of the different Pariſhes in this County at two Periods.

	In 1755.	In 1790—1798.
Alloa, - -	5816	4802
Clackmannan, -	1913	2528
Dollar, - -	517	510
Tillicoultry -	757	909
	9003	8749
	8749*	
Decreaſe, -	254	

* *Statiſt. Hiſt.*

Clackmannan || Clamp.

CLACKMANNAN, a ſmall town of Scotland, and capital of the county of that name, is ſituated on the northern ſhore of the Forth, in W. Long. 3. 40. N. Lat. 56. 15. It ſtands on a hill, on the top of which is the caſtle, commanding a noble proſpect. It was long the ſeat of the chief of the Bruces, who was hereditary ſheriff of the county before the juriſdictions were aboliſhed. The large ſquare tower is called after the name of *Robert Bruce*, whoſe great ſword and caſque are ſtill preſerved here. The hill is prettily wooded; and, with the tower, forms a picturesque object. Clackmannan is ſtill the ſeat of the Bruces of Kennet.

CLAGENFURT, a ſtrong town of Germany, and capital of Carinthia, ſituated in E. Long. 13. 56. N. Lat. 46. 50.

CLAGET, WILLIAM, an eminent and learned divine, born in 1646. He was preacher to the ſociety of Gray's Inn, which employment he exerciſed until he died in 1688, being then alſo one of the king's chaplains. Archbiſhop Sharp gives him an excellent character; and Biſhop Burnet has ranked him among thoſe worthy men whoſe lives and labours contributed to reſcue the church from the reproaches which the follies of others had drawn upon it. Dr Claget publiſhed ſeveral things; but his principal work is his "Diſcourſe concerning the Operations of the Holy Spirit;" nor muſt it be forgotten that he was one of thoſe excellent divines who made a noble ſtand againſt the deſigns of James II. to introduce popery. Four volumes of his ſermons were publiſhed after his death by his brother Nicholas Claget, archdeacon of Sudbury, father of Nicholas Claget afterwards biſhop of Exeter.

CLAIM, in *Law*, a challenge of intereſt in any thing that is in poſſeſſion of another.

CLAIR OBSCURE. See *CLARO-Obſcuro*.

CLAIRAULT, ALEXIS, of the French academy of ſciences, was one of the moſt illuſtrious mathematicians in Europe. He read to the academy in 1726, when he was not 13 years old, "A Memoir upon Four new Geometrical Curves of his own invention;" and ſupported the character he thus laid a foundation for by various publications from time to time. He publiſhed *Elémens de Géometrie*, 1741, in 8vo; *Elémens d' Algebre*, 1746, in 8vo; *Theorie de la Figure de la Terre*, 1743, in 8vo.; *Tables de la Lune*, 1754, in 8vo. He was concerned alſo in the *Journal de Sçavans*, which he furniſhed with many excellent extracts. He died in 1765. He was one of the academicians who were ſent into the north to determine the figure of the earth.

CLAM, in *Zoology*, a ſhell-fiſh. See VENUS.

CLAMP, a piece of wood joined to another.

CLAMP is likewiſe the term for a pile of unburnt bricks

Clamp || Clans.

bricks built up for burning. These clamps are built much after the same manner as arches are built in kilns, viz. with a vacuity betwixt each brick's breadth for the fire to ascend by; but with this difference, that instead of arching, they truss over, or over-span; that is, the end of one brick is laid about half way over the end of another, and so till both sides meet within half a brick's length, and then a binding brick at the top finishes the arch.

CLAMP in a ship, denotes a piece of timber applied to a mast or yard to prevent the wood from bursting; and also a thick plank lying fore and aft under the beams of the first orlop, or second deck, and is the same that the rising timbers are to the deck.

CLAMP Nails, such nails as are used to fasten on clamps in the building or repairing of ships.

CLAMPETIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Bruttii, one of those which revolted from Hannibal (Livy;) called *Lampetia* by Polybius. Now *Amantia*, or *Mantia*, a town of Calabria Ultra, near the bay of Euphemia. E. Long. 16. 20. N. Lat. 39. 15.

CLAMPING, in joinery, is the fitting a piece of board with the grain to another piece of board cross the grain. Thus the ends of tables are commonly clamped, to prevent their warping.

CLANDESTINE, any thing done without the knowledge of the parties concerned, or without the proper solemnities. Thus a marriage is said to be clandestine, when performed without the publication of bans, the consent of parents, &c.

CLANS, in history, and particularly in that of Scotland. The nations which overran Europe were originally divided into many small tribes; and when they came to parcel out the lands which they had conquered, it was natural for every chieftain to bestow a portion, in the first place, upon those of his own tribe or family. These all held their lands of him; and as the safety of each individual depended on the general union, these small societies clung together, and were distinguished by some common appellation, either patronymical or local, long before the introduction of surnames or ensigns armorial. But when these became common, the descendants and relations of every chieftain assumed the same name and arms with him; other vassals were proud to imitate their example; and by degrees they were communicated to all those who held of the same superior. Thus clanships were formed; and in a generation or two, that consanguinity which was at first in a great measure imaginary, was believed to be real. An artificial union was converted into a natural one: men willingly followed a leader, whom they regarded both as the superior of their lands and the chief of their blood; and served him not only with the fidelity of vassals, but the affection of friends. In the other feudal kingdoms, we may observe such unions as we have described, imperfectly formed; but in Scotland, whether they were the production of chance, or the effect of policy, or strengthened by their preserving their genealogies both genuine and fabulous, clanships were universal. Such a confederacy might be overcome; it could not be broken; and no change of manner or government has been able, in some parts of the kingdom, to dissolve associations which are founded upon prejudices so natural to the human mind. How formidable were nobles at the head of followers, who, counting that cause just and honourable which their chief approved, were ever ready to take the field at his command, and to sacrifice their lives in defence of his person or of his fame! Against such men a king contended with great disadvantage; and that cold service, which money purchases, or authority extorts, was not an equal match for their ardour and zeal.

Robertson's History of Scotland.

Clans || Clarendon.

Some imagine the word *clan* to be only a corruption of the Roman *colonia*; but Mr Whittaker asserts it to be purely British, and to signify a *family*.

CLAP, in *Medicine*, the first stage of the venereal disease, more usually called a GONORRHOEA.

CLAP-Net, in birding, a sort of net contrived for the taking of larks with the looking-glass, by the method called *daring* or *doring*. The nets are spread over an even piece of ground, and the larks are invited to the place by other larks fastened down, and by a looking-glass composed of five pieces, and fixed in a frame so that it is turned round very swiftly backwards and forwards, by means of a cord pulled by a person at a considerable distance behind a hedge. See DORING.

CLAR, or CLAER, in *Metallurgy*, bone-ashes perfectly calcined, and finely powdered, kept purposely for covering the insides of CUPELS.

CLARAMONT POWDER, a kind of earth, called *terra de Baira*, from the place where it is found; it is famous at Venice, for its efficacy in stopping hemorrhagies of all kinds, and in curing malignant fevers.

PRECEPT *of* CLARE CONSTAT, in *Scots Law*, the warrant of a superior for entering and infesting the heir of his former vassal, without the interposition of an inquest.

Nuns of St CLARE, were founded at Assisa in Italy, about the year 1212. These nuns observed the rule of St Francis, and wore habits of the same colour with those of the Franciscan friars; and hence were called *Minoresses*; and their house, without Aldgate, the Minories, where they were settled when first brought over into England, about the year 1293. They had only three houses besides this.

CLARE, a market-town of Suffolk, 13 miles south of Bury. E. Long. 0. 35. N. Lat. 52. 15. It gives the title of earl to the duke of Newcastle.

CLARE is also the capital of a county of the same name in the province of Connaught, in Ireland, situated about 17 miles north-west of Limerick. W. Long. 9. 0. N. Lat. 52. 40.

CLARENCIEUX, the second king at arms, so called from the duke of Clarence, to whom he first belonged; for Lionel, third son to Edward III. having by his wife the honour of Clare in the county of Thomond, was afterwards declared duke of Clarence; which dukedom afterwards escheating to Edward IV. he made this earl a king at arms. His office is to marshal and dispose of the funerals of all the lower nobility, as baronets, knights, esquires, on the south side of the Trent; whence he is sometimes called *surroy* or *south-roy*, in contradistinction to *norroy*.

CLARENDON, *Constitutions of*, certain constitutions made in the reign of Henry II. A. D. 1164, in a parliament held at Clarendon, whereby the king checked the power of the pope and his clergy, and greatly

greatly narrowed the total exemption they claimed from ſecular juriſdiction.

CLARENDON, *Earl of*. See HYDE.

CLARENNA, (Tabulæ), in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Vindelicia, at the confluence of the Lycus and Danube. Now *Rain*, a town of Bavaria, on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, at the confluence of the Lech. E. Long. 11. 0. N. Lat. 48. 45.

CLARENZA, the capital of a duchy of the ſame name in the Morea; it is a ſea-port town, ſituated on the Mediterranean. E. Long. 21. 40. N. Lat. 37. 40.

CLARET, a name given by the French to ſuch of their red wines as are not of a deep or high colour. See WINE.

CLARICHORD, or MANICHORD, a muſical inſtrument in form of a ſpinet.

It has 49 or 50 ſtops, and 70 ſtrings, which bear on five bridges; the firſt whereof is the higheſt, the reſt diminiſhing in proportion. Some of the ſtrings are in uniſon, their number being greater than that of the ſtops. There are ſeveral little mortizes for paſſing the jacks, armed with braſs-hooks, which ſtop and raiſe the chords inſtead of the feather uſed in virginals and ſpinets; but what diſtinguiſhes it moſt is, that the chords are covered with pieces of cloth, which render the ſound ſweeter, and deaden it ſo that it cannot be heard at any conſiderable diſtance; whence it comes to be particularly in uſe among the nuns, who learn to play, and are unwilling to diſturb the ſilence of the dormitory.

CLARIFICATION, the act of cleaning or fining any fluid from all heterogeneous matter or feculencies.

The ſubſtances uſually employed for clarifying liquor, are whites of eggs, blood, and iſinglaſs. The two firſt are uſed for ſuch liquors as are clarified whilſt boiling hot; the laſt for thoſe which are clarified in the cold, ſuch as wines, &c. The whites of eggs are beaten up into a froth, and mixed with the liquor, upon which they unite with and entangle the impure matters that float in it; and preſently growing hard by the heat, carry them up to the ſurface in form of a ſcum, no longer diſſoluble in the liquid. Blood operates in the ſame manner, and is chiefly uſed in purifying the brine from which ſalt is made. Great quantities of iſinglaſs are conſumed for fining turbid wines. For this purpoſe ſome throw an entire piece, about a quarter of an ounce, into a wine caſk; by degrees the glue diſſolves, and forms a ſkin upon the ſurface, which at length ſubſiding, carries down with it the feculent matter which floated in the wine. Others previouſly diſſolve the iſinglaſs; and having boiled it down to a ſlimy conſiſtence, mix it with the liquor, roll the caſk ſtrongly about, and then ſuffer it to ſtand to ſettle. Neumann queſtions the wholeſomeneſs of wines thus purified, and aſſures us that he himſelf, after drinking only a few ounces of ſack thus clarified, but not ſettled quite fine, was ſeized with ſickneſs and vomiting, followed by ſuch a vertigo, that he could not ſtand upright for a minute together. The giddineſs continued with a nauſea and want of appetite for ſeveral days.

CLARIGATIO, in Roman antiquity, a ceremony that always preceded a formal declaration of war. It was performed in this manner: firſt four heralds crowned with vervain were ſent to demand ſatisfaction for the injuries done the Roman ſtate. Theſe heralds taking the gods to witneſs that their demands were juſt, one of them, with a clear voice, demanded reſtitution within a limited time, commonly 33 days, which being expired without reſtitution made, then the *pater patratus*, or prince of the heralds, proceeded to the enemies frontiers, and declared war.

CLARII APOLLINIS FANUM (Strabo, Pliny), a temple and grove of Apollo, ſituated between Colophon and Lebedos, in Ionia; called *Claros* (Thucydides, Ovid). The name alſo of a town and mountain there (Nicander); and of a fountain (Clemens Alexandrinus), the waters of which inſpired with prophetic fury. *Clarius* the epithet of Apollo (Strabo).

CLARION, a kind of trumpet, whoſe tube is narrower and its tone acuter and ſhriller than that of the common trumpet. It is ſaid that the clarion, now uſed among the Moors, and Portugueſe who borrowed it from the Moors, ſerved anciently for a treble to ſeveral trumpets, which ſounded tenor and baſs.

CLARISSES, an order of nuns ſo called from their founder St Clara or St Clare. (See St CLARE.) She was in the town of Aſſiſa in Italy; and having renounced the world to dedicate herſelf to religion, gave birth to this order in the year 1212; which comprehends not only thoſe nuns that follow the rule of St Francis, according to the ſtrict letter, and without any mitigation, but thoſe likewiſe who follow the ſame rule ſoftened and mitigated by ſeveral popes. It is at preſent one of the moſt flouriſhing orders of nuns in Europe. After Ferdinand Cortez had conquered Mexico for the king of Spain, Iſabella of Portugal, wife of the emperor Charles V. ſent thither ſome nuns of the order of St Clara, who made ſeveral ſettlements there. Near their monaſteries were founded communities of Indian young women, to be inſtructed by the clariſſes in religion, and ſuch works as were ſuitable to perſons of their ſex. Theſe communities are ſo conſiderable that they uſually conſiſt of four or five hundred.

CLARKE, DR SAMUEL, a preacher and writer of conſiderable note in the reign of Charles II. was, during the interregnum, and at the time of the ejection, miniſter of St Dennet Fink in London. In November 1660, he, in the name of the Preſbyterian miniſters, preſented an addreſs of thanks to the king for his declaration of liberty of conſcience. He was one of the commiſſioners of the Savoy, and behaved on that occaſion with great prudence and moderation. He ſometimes attended the church as a hearer and communicant, and was much eſteemed by all that knew him, for his great probity and induſtry. The moſt valuable of his numerous works are ſaid to be his Lives of the Puritan Divines and other perſons of note, 22 of which are printed in his Martyrology; the reſt are in his Lives of ſundry eminent Perſons in this latter Age, folio; and his Marrow of Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, in folio and quarto. He died in 1680.

CLARK, *Samuel*, the ſon of the former, was fellow of Pembroke-hall in Cambridge; but was ejected from his fellowſhip for refuſing to take the engagements, as he was alſo afterwards from his rectory of Grendon in Buckinghamſhire. He applied himſelf early to the ſtudy of the Scriptures, and his Annotations on the Bible, printed together with the ſacred text, is highly commended

Clarke. commended by Dr Owen, Mr Baxter, and Dr Calamy. He died in 1701, aged 75.

CLARKE, *Dr Samuel*, a very celebrated English divine, was the son of Edward Clarke, Esq. alderman of Norwich, and one of its representatives in parliament for several years; and born there October 11. 1675. He was instructed in classical learning at the free-school of that town; and in 1691 removed thence to Caius College in Cambridge, where his uncommon abilities soon began to display themselves. Though the philosophy of Des Cartes was at that time the established philosophy of the university, yet Clarke easily mastered the new system of Newton; and in order to his first degree of arts, performed a public exercise in the schools upon a question taken from it. He greatly contributed to the establishment of the Newtonian philosophy by an excellent translation of, and notes upon, Rohault's "Physics," which he finished before he was 22 years of age. The system of natural philosophy then generally taught in the university was that written by Rohault, founded altogether upon Cartesian principles, and very ill translated into Latin. Clarke gave a new translation, and added to it such notes as might lead students insensibly and by degrees to other and truer notions than could be found there. "And this certainly (says Bishop Hoadly) was a more prudent method of introducing truth unknown before, than to attempt to throw aside this treatise entirely, and write a new one instead of it. The success answered exceedingly well to his hopes; and he may justly be styled a great benefactor to the university in this attempt. For by this means the true philosophy has, without any noise, prevailed; and to this day the translation of Rohault is, generally speaking, the standing text for lectures, and his notes the first direction to those who are willing to receive the reality and truth of things in the place of invention and romance." Whiston relates, that in 1697, while he was chaplain to Moore bishop of Norwich, he met young Clarke, then wholly unknown to him, at a coffeehouse in that city; where they entered into a conversation about the Cartesian philosophy, particularly Rohault's "Physics," which Clarke's tutor, as he tells us, had put him upon translating. "The result of this conversation was (says Whiston), that I was greatly surprised that so young a man as Clarke then was should know so much of those sublime discoveries, which were then almost a secret to all but to a few particular mathematicians. Nor do I remember (continues he) above one or two at the most, whom I had then met with, that seemed to know so much of that philosophy as Clarke." This translation of Rohault was first printed in 1697, 8vo. There have been four editions of it, in every one of which improvements have been made; especially in the last in 1718, which has the following title: *Jacobi Rohaulti Physica. Latinè vertit, recensuit, et uberioribus jam Annotationibus, ex illustrissimi Isaaci Newtoni Philosophia maximam partem hausis, amplificavit et ornavit S. Clarke, S. T. P. Accedunt etiam in hac quarta editione novæ aliquot tabulæ æri incisæ, et Annotationes multum sunt auctæ.* Dr John Clarke, late dean of Sarum, and our author's brother, translated this work into English, and published it in 2 vols 8vo.

Afterwards he turned his thoughts to divinity; and in order to fit himself for the sacred function, he studied the Old Testament in the original Hebrew, the New in the original Greek, and the primitive Christian writers. Having taken holy orders, he became chaplain to Moore bishop of Norwich, who was ever after his constant friend and patron. In 1699 he published two treatises: one entitled "Three practical Essays on Baptism, Confirmation, and Repentance;" the other, "Some Reflections on that part of a book called Amyntor, or a Defence of Milton's Life, which relates to the Writings of the Primitive Fathers, and the Canon of the New Testament." In 1701 he published "A Paraphrase upon the Gospel of St Matthew; which was followed in 1702 by the "Paraphrases upon the Gospels of St Mark and St Luke," and soon after by a third volume "upon St John." They were afterwards printed together in 2 volumes 8vo; and have since undergone several editions. He intended to have gone through the remaining books of the New Testament, but something accidentally interrupted the execution.

Meanwhile Bishop Moore gave him the rectory of Drayton, near Norwich, and procured for him a parish in that city; and these he served himself in that season when the bishop resided at Norwich. In 1704 he was appointed to preach Boyle's lecture; and the subject he chose was, "The being and attributes of God." He succeeded so well in this, and gave such high satisfaction, that he was appointed to preach the same lecture the next year; when he chose for his subject "The evidences of natural and revealed religion." These sermons were first printed in two distinct volumes; the former in 1705, the latter in 1706. They have been since printed in one volume, under the general title of "A Discourse concerning the Being and Attributes of God, the Obligations of natural Religion, and the Truth and Certainty of the Christian Revelation, in opposition to Hobbes, Spinoza, the Author of the Oracles of Reason, and other Deniers of natural and revealed Religion." Clarke having endeavoured in the first part of his work to show, that the being of a God may be demonstrated by arguments *à priori*, is unluckily involved in the censure which Pope has passed upon this method of reasoning in the following lines. They are put into the mouth of one of his dunces, addressing himself to the goddess Dulness:

"Let others creep by timid steps and slow,
"On plain experience lay foundations low,
"By common sense to common knowledge bred,
"And lost to nature's cause through nature led.
"All-seeing in thy mists, we want no guide,
"Mother of arrogance, and source of pride!
"We nobly take the high priori road,
"And reason downward, till we doubt of God."

Dunciad, b. 4. l. 455.

Upon which we have the following note: "Those who, from the effects in this visible world, deduce the eternal power and godhead of the First Cause, though they cannot attain to an adequate idea of the Deity, yet discover so much of him as enables them to see the end of their creation and the means of their happiness; whereas they who take this high priori road, as Hobbes, Spinoza, Des Cartes, and some better reasoners,

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ſoners, for one that goes right, ten loſe themſelves in miſt, or ramble after viſions, which deprive them of all ſight of their end, and miſlead them in the choice of wrong means." Clarke, it is probable, would not have denied this; and the poet perhaps would have ſpared his better reaſoners, and not have joined them with ſuch company, had he recollected our author's apology for uſing the argument *à priori*. "The argument *à poſteriori* (ſays he) is indeed by far the moſt generally uſeful argument, moſt eaſy to be underſtood, and in ſome degree ſuited to all capacities; and therefore it ought always to be inſiſted upon: But for as much as atheiſtical writers have ſometimes oppoſed the being and attributes of God by ſuch metaphyſical reaſonings, as can no otherwiſe be obviated than by arguing *à priori;* therefore this manner of arguing alſo is uſeful and neceſſary in its proper place." To this may be added the anſwer he made to Mr Whiſton upon this occaſion, as narrated by the latter in his Hiſtorical Memoirs. "When Clarke brought me his book, I was in my garden againſt St Peter's college in Cambridge, where I then lived. Now I perceived that in theſe ſermons he had dealt a great deal in abſtract and metaphyſical reaſoning. I therefore aſked him how he ventured into ſuch ſubtleties, which I never durſt meddle with? and ſhowing him a nettle, or ſome contemptible weed in my garden, I told him that weed contained better arguments for the being and attributes of God than all his metaphyſics. Clarke confeſſed it to be ſo; but alleged for himſelf, that ſince ſuch philoſophers as Hobbes and Spinoza had made uſe of thoſe kind of ſubtleties againſt, he thought proper to ſhow that the like way of reaſoning might be made better uſe of on the ſide of, religion; which reaſon or excuſe I allowed to be not inconſiderable." Undoubtedly, as the preſent editor of the Biographia Britannica obſerves, the grand, the proper, the deciſive proof of the exiſtence, perfections, and providence of the Deity, muſt be drawn from his works. On this proof, as being equally ſatisfactory to the profoundeſt philoſopher and the meaneſt peaſant, the cauſe of religion will ever ſtand ſecure. Nevertheleſs, if there be ſuch a thing as an argument *à priori*, why may not ſpeculative men be employed in its examination? Several able divines and philoſophers have thought, and ſtill think, that this argument for the being and attributes of God will ſtand the teſt of the ſevereſt ſcrutiny; and therefore they cannot be blamed for endeavouring to ſet it in a convincing light to others. As to the merit, indeed, of the whole work under conſideration, including the evidences of natural and revealed religion, it is undoubtedly of the firſt order. Difficulties may be raiſed on particular points, and the ableſt and moſt candid inquirers may ſometimes ſee cauſe to heſitate with regard to the validity of the reaſoning; but ſtill, in general, the book reflects honour on the age as well as the author that produced it, and will deſcend, with diſtinguiſhed reputation, to a late poſterity. The defence, in particular, of the ſacred original and authority of Chriſtianity is admirably conducted.

In 1706 he publiſhed "A Letter to Mr Dodwell;" wherein all the arguments in his epiſtolary diſcourſe againſt the immortality of the ſoul are particularly anſwered, and the judgment of the fathers, to whom Mr Dodwell had appealed concerning that matter, truly repreſented. Biſhop Hoadly obſerves, that in this letter he anſwered Mr Dodwell in ſo excellent a manner, both with regard to the philoſophical part, and to the opinions of ſome of the primitive writers, upon whom theſe doctrines were fixed, that it gave univerſal ſatisfaction. But this controverſy did not ſtop here; for the celebrated Collins, coming in as a ſecond to Dodwell, went much farther into the philoſophy of the diſpute, and indeed ſeemed to produce all that could poſſibly be ſaid againſt the immateriality of the ſoul, as well as the liberty of human actions. This enlarged the ſcene of the diſpute, into which our author entered, and wrote with ſuch a ſpirit of clearneſs and demonſtration, as at once ſhowed him greatly ſuperior to his adverſaries in metaphyſical and phyſical knowledge, and made every intelligent reader rejoice, that ſuch an incident had happened to provoke and extort from him that plenty of ſtrong reaſoning and perſpicuity of expreſſion, which were indeed very much wanted upon this intricate and obſcure ſubject. "And I am perſuaded (continues the biſhop), that as what he has written in this controverſy comprehends the little that the ancients had ſaid well, and adds ſtill more evidence than ever appeared clearly before, and all in words that have a meaning to them, it will remain the ſtandard of good ſenſe on that ſide of the queſtion, on which he ſpent ſo many of his thoughts, as upon one of his favourite points." Clarke's letter to Dodwell was ſoon followed by four defences of it, in four ſeveral letters to the author of "A letter to the learned Mr Henry Dodwell, containing ſome Remarks on a pretended Demonſtration of the Immateriality and natural Immortality of the Soul, in Mr Clarke's Anſwer to his late Epiſtolary Diſcourſe, &c." They were afterwards all printed together; and the "Anſwer to Toland's Amyntor" added to them. In the midſt of all theſe labours, he found time to ſhow his regard to mathematical and phyſical ſtudies, and exact knowledge and ſkill in them. And his natural affection and capacity for theſe ſtudies were not a little improved by the friendſhip of Sir Iſaac Newton, at whoſe requeſt he tranſlated his "Optics" into Latin in 1706. With this verſion Sir Iſaac was ſo highly pleaſed, that he preſented him with the ſum of 500l. or 100l. for each child, Clarke having then five children.

This year alſo, Biſhop Moore, who had long formed a deſign of fixing him more conſpicuouſly, procured for him the rectory of St Bennet's, Paul's Wharf, in London; and ſoon after carried him to court, and recommended him to the favour of Queen Anne. She appointed him one of her chaplains in ordinary; and, in conſideration of his great merit, and at the requeſt of the biſhop, preſented him to the rectory of St James's, Weſtminſter, when it became vacant in 1709. Upon his advancement to this ſtation, he took the degree of D. D. when the public exerciſe which he performed for it at Cambridge was prodigiouſly admired. The queſtions which he maintained were theſe: 1. "Nullum fidei Chriſtianæ dogma, in ſacris ſcripturis traditum, eſt rectæ rationi diſſentaneum;" that is, "No article of the Chriſtian faith, delivered in the Holy Scriptures, is diſagreeable to right reaſon." 2. "Sine actionum humanarum libertate nulla poteſt eſſe religio;" that is, "Without the liberty of human actions

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tions there can be no religion." His thesis was upon the first of these questions, which being thoroughly sifted by that most acute disputant Professor James, he made an extempore reply, in a continued discourse for near half an hour, with so little hesitation, that many of the auditors declared themselves astonished; and owned, that if they had not been within sight of him, they should have supposed him to have read every word of it from a paper. After this, through the course of the syllogistical disputation, he guarded so well against the arts which the professor was a complete master of; replied so readily to the greatest difficulties such an objector could propose; and pressed him so close and hard with clear and intelligible answers, that perhaps there never was such a conflict heard in those schools. The professor, who was a man of humour as well as learning, said to him at the end of the disputation, "Profecto, me probè exercuisti;" that is, "On my word, you have worked me sufficiently;" and the members of the university went away, admiring, as indeed they well might, that a man even of Clarke's abilities, after an absence of so many years, and a long course of business of quite another nature, should acquit himself in such a manner, as if this sort of academical exercise had been his constant employment; and with such fluency and purity of expression, as if he had been accustomed to no other language in conversation but Latin. The same year 1709, he revised and corrected Whiston's translation of the "Apostolical Constitutions" into English. Whiston tells us, that his own studies having been chiefly upon other things, and having rendered him incapable of being also a critic in words and languages, he desired his great friend and great critic Dr Clarke to revise that translation, which he was so kind as to agree to.

In 1712, he published a most beautiful and pompous edition of Cæsar's commentaries, adorned with elegant sculptures. It is entitled, "C. Julii Cæsaris quæ extant, accuratissimè cum libris editis et mss. optimis collata, recognita, et correcta; accesserunt annotationes Samuelis Clarke, S. T. P. item indices locorum, rerumque et verborum, utilissimæ." It was printed in 1712, folio; and afterwards, in 1720, 8vo. It was dedicated to the great duke of Marlborough, "at a time," says Bishop Hoadly, "when his unequalled victories and successes had raised his glory to the highest pitch abroad, and lessened his interest and favour at home." In the publication of this book, the doctor took particular care of the punctuation. In the annotations, he selected what appeared the best and most judicious in former editors, with some corrections and emendations of his own interspersed. Mr Addison has spoken of this folio edition of Cæsar's commentaries in the following words: "The new edition, which is given us of Cæsar's commentaries, has already been taken notice of in foreign gazettes, and is a work that does honour to the English press. It is no wonder that an edition should be very correct, which has passed through the hands of one of the most accurate, learned, and judicious writers this age has produced. The beauty of the paper, of the character, and of the several cuts with which this noble work is illustrated, makes it the finest book that I have ever seen; and is a true instance of the English genius, which, though it does not come the first into any art, generally carries it to greater heights than any other country in the world." This noble work has risen in value from that time to the present. A copy of this edition in large paper, most splendidly bound in morocco, was sold at the Hon. Mr Beauclerk's sale for forty-four pounds; and it was said to be purchased by the duke of Grafton. "To a prince or a nobleman (says Dr Harwood), it was a cheap purchase; for it was the most magnificent book I ever beheld." The binding cost Mr Beauclerk five guineas.

The same year, 1712, he published his celebrated book entitled, "The Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity," &c. which is divided into three parts. The first is, a collection and explication of all the texts in the "New Testament," relating to the doctrine of the Trinity: in the second, the foregoing doctrine is set forth at large, and explained in particular and distinct propositions; and in the third, the principal passages in the liturgy of the church of England, relating to the doctrine of the Trinity, are considered. Bishop Hoadly applauds our author's method of proceeding, in forming his sentiments upon so important a point: "He knew (says he), and all men agreed, that it was a matter of mere revelation. He did not therefore retire into his closet, and set himself to invent and forge a plausible hypothesis, which might sit easily upon his mind. He had no recourse to abstract and metaphysical reasonings to cover or patronize any system he might have embraced before. But, as a Christian, he laid open the New Testament before him. He searched out every text in which mention was made of the three persons, or any one of them. He accurately examined the meaning of the words used about every one of them; and by the best rules of grammar and critique, and by his skill in language, he endeavoured to fix plainly what was declared about every person, and what was not. And what he thought to be the truth, he published under the title of 'The Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity.' "I am far (says the bishop) from taking upon me to determine, in so difficult a question between him and those who made replies to him; but this I hope I may be allowed to say, that every Christian divine and layman ought to pay his thanks to Dr Clarke for the method into which he brought this dispute; and for that collection of texts of the New Testament by which at last it must be decided, on which side soever the truth may be supposed to lie." Whiston informs us, that some time before the publication of this book, there was a message sent to him from Lord Godolphin and others of Queen Anne's ministers, importing, "That the affairs of the public were with difficulty then kept in the hands of those that were for liberty; that it was therefore an unseasonable time for the publication of a book that would make a great noise and disturbance; and that therefore they desired him to forbear till a fitter opportunity should offer itself;" which message (says he) the doctor had no regard to, but went on according to the dictates of his own conscience with the publication of his book. The ministers, however, were very right in their conjectures; for the work made noise and disturbance enough, and occasioned a great number of books and pamphlets, written by himself and others.

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Books and pamphlets, however, were not all which the "Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity" occasioned: it made its author obnoxious to the power ecclesiastical, and his book to be complained of by the Lower House of convention. The doctor drew up a preface, and afterwards gave in several explanations, which seemed to satisfy the Upper House; at least the affair was not brought to any issue, the members appearing desirous to prevent dissensions and divisions.

In 1715 and 1716, he had a dispute with the celebrated Leibnitz, relating to the principles of natural philosophy and religion; and a collection of the papers which passed between them was published in 1717. This performance of the doctor's is inscribed to her late Majesty Queen Caroline, then princess of Wales, who was pleased to have the controversy pass through her hands. It related chiefly to the important and difficult subjects of liberty and necessity.

In 1718, Dr Clarke made an alteration in the forms of doxology in the singing psalms, which produced no small noise and disturbance, and occasioned some pamphlets to be written. The alteration was this:

To God, through Christ, his only Son,
Immortal glory be, &c.
And
To God, through Christ, his Son, our Lord,
All glory be therefore, &c.

A considerable number of these select psalms and hymns having been dispersed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, before the alteration of the doxologies was taken notice of, he was charged with a design of imposing upon the society; whereas, in truth, the edition of them had been prepared by him for the use of his own parish only, before the society had thoughts of purchasing any of the copies; and as the usual forms of doxology are not established by any legal authority, ecclesiastical or civil, in this he had not offended.

About this time he was presented by the lord Lechmere, the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, to the mastership of Wigston's hospital in Leicester. In 1724, he published 17 sermons preached on several occasions, 11 of which were never before printed: and the year following, a sermon, preached at the parish-church of St James's, upon the erecting a charity-school for the education of women servants. In 1727, upon the death of Sir Isaac Newton, he was offered by the court the place of master of the mint, worth *communibus annis* 1200 or 1500l. a-year. But to this secular preferment he could not reconcile himself, and therefore absolutely refused it. Whiston seems to wonder, that Clarke's eulogists should lay so little stress upon this refusal, as to mention it not at all, or at least very negligently; while "he takes it," he says, "to be one of the most glorious actions of his life, and to afford undeniable conviction, that he was in earnest in his religion." In 1728, was published, "A Letter from Dr Clarke to Mr Benjamin Hoadly, F. R. S. occasioned by the controversy, relating to the Proportion of Velocity and Force in Bodies in Motion;" and printed in the Philosophical Transactions, N° 401.

In 1729, he published the 12 first books of "Homer's Iliad." This edition was printed in 4to, and dedicated to the duke of Cumberland. The Latin version is almost entirely new, and annotations are added to the bottom of the pages. Homer, Bishop Hoadly tells us, was Clarke's admired author, even to a degree of something like enthusiasm, hardly natural to his temper, and that in this he went a little beyond the bounds of Horace's judgment, and was so unwilling to allow the favourite poet ever to nod, that he has taken remarkable pains to find out, and give a reason for every passage, word, and title, that could create any suspicion. "The translation, (adds the Bishop), with his corrections, may now be styled accurate, and his notes, as far as they go, are indeed a treasury of grammatical and critical knowledge. He was called to his task by royal command; and he has performed it in such a manner, as to be worthy of the young prince, for whom it was laboured." The year of its publication was the last of this great man's life. Though not robust, he had always enjoyed a firm state of health, without any indisposition bad enough to confine him, except the small-pox in his youth; till on Sunday May 11. 1729, going out in the morning to preach before the judges at Sergeant's-Inn, he was there seized with a pain in his side, which made it impossible for him to perform the office he was called to; and quickly became so violent, that he was obliged to be carried home. He went to bed, and thought himself so much better in the afternoon, that he would not suffer himself to be bled; against which remedy, it is remarkable that he had entertained strong prejudices. But the pain returning violently about two the next morning, made bleeding absolutely necessary; he appeared to be out of danger, and continued to think himself so, till the Saturday morning following; when, to the inexpressible surprise of all about him, the pain removed from his side to his head; and, after a very short complaint, took away his senses so, that they never returned any more. He continued breathing till within seven and eight of the evening of that day, which was May 17. 1729; and then died, in his 54th year.

Soon after his death were published, from his original manuscripts, by his brother Dr John Clarke, dean of Sarum, "An Exposition of the Church Catechism," and ten volumes of sermons, in 8vo. His "Exposition" is made up of those lectures he read every Thursday morning for some months in the year, at St James's church. In the latter part of his time he revised them with great care, and left them completely prepared for the press. As to the sermons, few discourses in the English language are more judicious, and fewer still are equally instructive. The reasoning and the practical parts are excellent, and the explanations of Scripture are uncommonly valuable. Though Dr Clarke had not the turn of mind which qualified him for moving the passions, and indeed did not make it his object, his sentiments, nevertheless, are frequently expressed with such a clearness of conception, and such a force of language, as to produce in well disposed readers all the effect of the pathetic. Several volumes of sermons have been published since his time, which are far superior in point of elegance and beauty, and we have the highest sense of their merit. But still if we were called upon to recommend discourses, which abound with the most solid instruction, and promise the most lasting improvement, we should never forget

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a Clarke and a Jortin. Three years after the doctor's death appeared alſo the Twelve Laſt books of the Iliad, publiſhed in 4to by his ſon Mr Samuel Clarke, who informs us, in the preface, that his father had finiſhed the annotations to the three firſt of theſe books, and as far as the 359th verſe of the fourth; and had reviſed the text and verſion as far as verſe 510 of the ſame book. Dr Clarke married Catharine, the daughter of the reverend Mr Lockwood, rector of Little Miſſingham in Norfolk; in whoſe good ſenſe and unblameable behaviour he was happy to his death. By her he had ſeven children, two of whom died before and one a few weeks after him.

Of the character of this great divine, the following ſhort delineation appeared ſome years ſince in the Gentleman's Magazine: "Samuel Clarke, D. D. rector of St James's, Weſtminſter: in each ſeveral part of uſeful knowledge and critical learning, perhaps without a ſuperior; in all united, certainly without an equal; in his works, the beſt defender of religion; in his practice, the greateſt ornament to it; in his converſation communicative, and in an uncommon manner inſtructive; in his preaching and writings, ſtrong, clear, and calm; in his life, high in the eſteem of the wiſe, the good, and the great; in his death, lamented by every friend to learning, truth, and virtue." In the ſame publication ſome not incurious anecdotes concerning him are printed, collected by the Rev. Mr Jones of Welwyn. We learned from them, that Dr Clarke was of a very humane and tender diſpoſition. When his young children amuſed themſelves with tormenting and killing flies upon the windows, he not only forbade ſuch practices, but calmly reaſoned with them, in ſuch a familiar manner, as was calculated to make a powerful impreſſion upon their minds. He was very ready and condeſcending in anſwering applications to him with reſpect to ſcruples; numberleſs inſtances of which occurred in the courſe of his life. One thing of which Dr Clarke was peculiarly cautious, was not to loſe the leaſt minute of his time. He always carried ſome book about with him, which he would read whilſt riding in a coach or walking in the fields, or if he had any leiſure moments free from company or his other ſtudies. Nay, he would read even in company itſelf, where he might take ſuch a liberty without offence to good manners. His memory was remarkably ſtrong. He told Mr Pyle of Lyn, that he never forgot any thing which he had once thoroughly apprehended and underſtood. The Doctor, with his intimate friends, was perfectly free and eaſy; but if ſtrangers were introduced, he behaved with much circumſpection, converſing only upon common topics.

When he viſited Dr Sykes, his uſual way was to ſit with him upon a couch, and, reclining upon his boſom, to diſcourſe with him, in the moſt familiar manner, upon ſuch ſubjects as were agreeable to the taſte and judgment of both. When Sir John Germaine lay upon his deathbed, and was in great confuſion and trouble of mind, he ſent for Dr Clarke, and requeſted to know of him whether he ſhould receive the ſacrament, and what he ſhould do in his ſad condition. The Doctor, who was well acquainted with Sir John's purſuits and courſe of life, ſedately replied, that he could not adviſe him to receive the ſacrament, and that he did not think it likely to be of any avail to him with reſpect to his final welfare. Having ſaid this, he departed without adminiſtering the communion, having firſt recommended the dying man to the mercy of God.

Dr Clarke was of a cheerful, and even playful diſpoſition. An intimate friend of his, the late Rev. Mr Bott, uſed to relate, that once when he called upon him, he found him ſwimming upon a table. At another time, when the two Dr Clarkes, Mr Bott, and ſeveral men of ability and learning were together, and amuſing themſelves with diverting tricks, Dr Samuel Clarke, looking out at the window, ſaw a grave blockhead approaching to the houſe; upon which he cried out, "Boys, boys, be wiſe, here comes a fool." This turn of his mind hath ſince been confirmed by Dr Warton, who, in his obſervations on the following line of Mr Pope,

"Unthought-of frailties cheat us in the wiſe,"

ſays, "Who could imagine that Locke was fond of romances; that Newton once ſtudied aſtrology; that Dr Clarke valued himſelf on his agility, and frequently amuſed himſelf in a private room of his houſe, in leaping over the tables and chairs; and that our author himſelf was a great epicure!" With reſpect to what is here recorded of Dr Clarke, we can ſcarcely perſuade ourſelves to conſider it as a frailty. To be poſſeſſed of ſuch a temper as he was, muſt have been no ſmall degree of happineſs; as it probably enabled him to purſue his important and ſerious ſtudies with greater vivacity and vigour. To be capable of deriving amuſement from trivial circumſtances, indicates a heart at eaſe, and may generally be regarded as the concomitant of virtue.

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Clarke, *William*, an Engliſh divine, was born at Haghmon-abbey in Shropſhire, 1696; and after a grammar-education at Shrewſbury ſchool, was ſent to St John's college Cambridge, of which he was elected fellow, Jan. 17. 1716; B. A. 1731; M. A. 1735. He was preſented by Archbiſhop Wake in 1724 to the rectory of Buxted in Suſſex, at the particular recommendation of Dr Wotton, whoſe daughter he married. In 1738 he was made prebendary and reſidentiary of the cathedral church at Chicheſter. Some years before this he had given to the public a ſpecimen of his literary abilities, in a preface of his father-in-law Dr Wotton's *Leges Walliæ Eccleſiaſticæ et Civiles Hoeli Boni, et aliorum Walliæ Principum;* or Eccleſiaſtical and Civil Laws of Howel D Da, and other princes of Wales. There is reaſon likewiſe to ſurmiſe, that an excellent Diſcourſe on the Commerce of the Romans, which was highly extolled by Dr Taylor in his Elements of the Civil Law, might have been written by our author. It came either from his hand or from that of his friend Mr Bowyer, and is reprinted in that gentleman's Miſcellaneous Tracts. But Mr Clarke's chief work was, the Connexion of the Roman, Saxon, and Engliſh Coins; deducing the Antiquities, Cuſtoms, and Manners of each people to modern times: particularly the Origin of Feudal Tenures, and of Parliaments; illuſtrated throughout with critical and hiſtorical Remarks on various Authors both ſacred and profane. This work was publiſhed, in one volume quarto, in 1767; and its appearance from the preſs was owing to the

Clarke. the discovery made by Martin Folkes, Esq. of the old Saxon pound. It was dedicated to the duke of Newcastle, whose beneficent disposition is celebrated for having conferred obligations upon the author, which were not the effects of importunity. Mr Clarke's performance was perused in manuscript by Arthur Onslow, Esq. speaker of the house of commons, who honoured him with some useful hints and observations; but he was chiefly indebted to Mr Bowyer, who took upon him all the care of the publication, drew up several of the notes, wrote part of the dissertation on the Roman sesterce, and formed an admirable index to the whole. By this work our author acquired a great and just reputation. Indeed, it reflects honour upon the country by which it is produced; for there are few performances that are more replete with profound and curious learning. Mr Clarke's last promotions were the chancellorship of the church of Chichester, and the vicarage of Amport, which were bestowed upon him in 1770. These preferments he did not long live to enjoy, departing this life on the 21st of October, in the following year. He had resigned in 1768, the rectory of Buxted to his son Edward. In Mr Nichols's Anecdotes of Bowyer, there are several letters and extracts of letters written to that learned printer by Mr Clarke, which display him to great advantage as a man of piety, a friend, and a scholar.

In a sketch of his character in the *Biographia Britannica*, furnished by Mr Hayley, who was his intimate acquaintance, he is represented as not only a man of extensive erudition, but as possessed of the pleasing talent of communicating his various knowledge in familiar conversation, without any appearance of pedantry or presumption. Antiquities were the favourite study of Mr Clarke, as his publications sufficiently show; but he was a secret, and by no means an unsuccessful, votary of the muses. He wrote English verse with ease, elegance, and spirit. Perhaps there are few better epigrams in our language than the following, which he composed on seeing the words *Domus ultima* inscribed on the vault belonging to the dukes of Richmond in the cathedral of Chichester.

Did he, who thus inscribed the wall,
Not read, or not believe, St Paul,
Who says there is, where'er it stands,
Another house not made with hands?
Or, may we gather from these words,
That house is not a house of lords?

Among the happier little pieces of his sportive poetry, there were some animated stanzas, describing the character of the twelve English poets, whose portraits, engraved by Vertue, were the favourite ornament of his parlour: but he set so modest and humble a value on his poetical compositions, that they were seldom committed to paper, and are therefore very imperfectly preserved in the memory of those to whom he sometimes recited them. His taste and judgment in poetry appear indeed very striking in many parts of his learned and elaborate *Connexion of Coins*. His illustration of Nestor's cup, in particular, may be esteemed as one of the happiest examples of that light and beauty which the learning and spirit of an elegant antiquarian may throw on a cloudy and mistaken passage of an ancient poet. In strict attention to all the duties of his station, in the most active and unwearied charity, he might be regarded as a model to the ministers of God. Though his income was never large, it was his custom to devote a shilling in every guinea that he received to the service of the poor. As a master, as a husband, and a father, his conduct was amiable and endearing; and to close this imperfect sketch of him with his most striking features, he was a man of genuine unaffected piety.

CLARO-OBSCURO, or CLAIR-OBSCURE, in painting, the art of distributing to advantage the lights and shades of a piece, both with respect to the easing of the eye and the effect of the whole piece. See PAINTING.

CLARO-Obscuro, or *Chiaro-scuro*, is also used to signify a design consisting only of two colours, most usually black and white, but sometimes black and yellow; or it is a design washed only with one colour, the shadows being of a dusky brown, and the lights heightened up by white.

The word is also applied to prints of two colours taken off at twice; whereof there are volumes in the cabinets of those who are curious in prints.

CLARUS, or CLAROS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Ionia, famous for an oracle of Apollo. It was built by Manto, daughter of Tiresias, who fled from Thebes after it had been destroyed by the Epigoni. She was so afflicted with her misfortunes, that a lake was formed with her tears, where she first founded the oracle. Apollo was from thence surnamed *Clarius*. Also an island of the Ægean sea, between Tenedos and Scios.

CLARY. See SALVIA, BOTANY *Index*.

CLARY-Water, is composed of brandy, sugar, clary-flowers, and cinnamon, with a little ambergis dissolved in it. It helps digestion, and is cardiac. This water is rendered either purgative or emetic, by adding resin of jalap and scammony, or *crocus metallorum*. Some make clary-water of brandy, juice of cherries, strawberries, and gooseberries, sugar, cloves, white pepper, and coriander seeds; infused, sugared, and strained.

CLASMIUM, an old term in *Natural History*, applied to some fossils, of the class of gypsums; the characters of which are, that they are of a soft texture, and of a dull opaque look, being composed, as all the other gypsums, of irregularly arranged flat particles.

The word is derived from the Greek κλασμος, a fragment or small particle; from the flaky small particles of which these bodies are composed. Of this genus there is only one known species: this is of a tolerably regular and even structure; though very coarse and harsh to the touch. It is of a very lively and beautiful red in colour; and is found in thick roundish masses, which, when broken, are to be seen composed of irregular arrangements of flat particles; and emulate a striated texture. It will neither give fire with steel nor ferment with acids; but calcines very freely and easily, and affords a very valuable plaster of Paris, as do all the purer gypsums. It is common in Italy, and is greatly esteemed there; it is also found in some parts of England, particularly Derbyshire, but there it is not much regarded.

CLASPERS, or TENDRILS. See CIRRHUS.

CLASS, an appellation given to the most general subdivisions of any thing; thus, *animal* is subdivided into

into the claſſes quadrupeds, birds, fiſhes, &c. which are again ſubdivided into ſerieſes or orders; and theſe laſt into genera. See BOTANY.

CLASS, is alſo uſed in ſchools, in a ſynonymous ſenſe with *form*, for a number of boys all learning the ſame thing.

CLASSIC, or CLASSICAL, an epithet chiefly applied to authors read in the claſſes at ſchools.

This term ſeems to owe its origin to Tullius Servius, who, in order to make an eſtimate of every perſon's eſtate, divided the Roman people into ſix bands, which he called *claſſes*. The eſtate of the firſt claſs was not to be under 200l. and theſe by way of eminence were called *claſſici*, "claſſics:" hence authors of the firſt rank came to be called *claſſics*, all the reſt being ſaid to be *infra-claſſem*: thus Ariſtotle is a claſſic author in philoſophy; Aquinas in ſchool divinity, &c.

CLASSICUM was the alarm for battle, given by the Roman generals, and ſounded by trumpets and other martial muſic throughout the army.

CLATHRI, in antiquity, bars of wood or iron, uſed in ſecuring doors and windows. There was a goddeſs called *Clathra*, that preſided over the clathri.

CLAVARIA, CLUB-TOP. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLAVARIUM, in antiquity, an allowance the Roman ſoldiers had for furniſhing nails to ſecure their ſhoes with. They raiſed frequent mutinies, demanding largeſſes of the emperors under this pretence.

CLAVATA VESTIMENTA, in antiquity, habits adorned with purple clavi, which were either broad or narrow. See CLAVUS.

CLAUBERG, JOHN, a learned profeſſor of philoſophy and divinity at Diuſburg, was born at Solingen in 1622. He travelled into Holland, France, and England, and in each country obtained the eſteem of the learned. The elector of Brandenburg gave him public teſtimonies of his eſteem. He died in 1665. His works were printed at Amſterdam in 2 vols 4to. The moſt celebrated of theſe is his treatiſe, entitled *Logica vetus et nova*, &c.

CLAUDE LE LORRAIN, or CLAUDE GELEE, a celebrated landſcape painter, and a ſtriking example of the efficacy of induſtry to ſupply, or at leaſt to call forth genius. Claude was born in the dioceſe of Toul in Lorrain in 1600; and, being dull and heavy at ſchool, was put an apprentice to a paſtry-cook; he afterwards rambled to Rome to ſeek a livelihood; but, being very ill-bred, and unacquainted with the language, nobody cared to employ him. Chance threw him at laſt in the way of Auguſtin Taſſi, a painter, who hired him to grind his colours, and to do all the houſehold drudgery. His maſter hoping to make him ſerviceable to him in ſome of his greateſt works, taught him by degrees the rules of perſpective and the elements of deſign. Claude at firſt did not know what to make of thoſe principles of art; but being encouraged, and not failing in application, he came at length to underſtand them. Then his mind began to expand, and he cultivated the art with wonderful eagerneſs. He exerted his utmoſt induſtry to explore the true principles of painting by an inceſſant examination of nature, that genuine ſource of excellence; for which purpoſe, he made his ſtudies in the open fields; where he very frequently continued from ſunriſe till the duſk of the evening compelled him to withdraw himſelf from his contemplations. It was his cuſtom to ſketch whatever he thought beautiful or ſtriking; and every curious tinge of light, on all kinds of objects, he marked in his ſketches, with a ſimilar colour; from which he perfected his landſcapes with ſuch a look of real nature, and gave them ſuch an appearance of truth, as proved ſuperior to any artiſt that had ever painted in that ſtyle.

The beauties of his paintings are derived from nature herſelf, which he examined with uncommon aſſiduity; and Sandrart relates, that Claude uſed to explain to him, as they walked through the fields, the cauſes of the different appearances of the ſame proſpect at different hours of the day, from the reflections or refractions of light, from dews or vapours in the evening or morning, with all the preciſion of a philoſopher. He worked on his pictures with great care, endeavouring to bring them to perfection, by touching them frequently over again; and if any performance did not anſwer his ideas, it was cuſtomary with him to alter, to deface, and repaint it ſeveral times over till it correſponded with the image pictured in his mind. But whatever ſtruck his imagination, while he obſerved nature abroad, it was ſo ſtrongly impreſſed on his memory, that on his return to his work, he never failed to make the happieſt uſe of it.

His ſkies are warm and full of luſtre, and every object is properly illumined. His diſtances are admirable, and in every part a delightful union and harmony not only excite our applauſe but our admiration. His invention is pleaſing, his colouring delicate, and his tints have ſuch an agreeable ſweetneſs and variety, as have been but imperfectly imitated by the beſt ſubſequent artiſts, but were never equalled. He frequently gave an uncommon tenderneſs to his finiſhed trees by glazing; and in his large compoſitions which he painted in freſco, he was ſo exact that the diſtinct ſpecies of every tree might readily be diſtinguiſhed. As to his figures, when he painted them himſelf, they are very indifferent; but he was ſo conſcious of his deficiency in this reſpect, that he uſually engaged other artiſts who were eminent to paint them for him; of which number were Courtois and Philippo Laura. His pictures are now very rare, eſpecially ſuch as are undamaged; and thoſe are at this time ſo valued, that no price, however great, is thought to be ſuperior to their merit. In order to avoid a repetition of the ſame ſubject, and alſo to detect ſuch copies of his works as might be injurious to his fame, by being ſold for originals, it was his cuſtom to draw (in a paper book prepared for this purpoſe) the deſigns of all thoſe pictures which were tranſmitted to different countries; and on the back of the drawings, he wrote the name of the perſon who had been the purchaſer. That book, which he titled *Libro di Verita*, is now in the poſſeſſion of the duke of Devonſhire.

CLAUDE, *John*, a Proteſtant divine, born in the province of Angenois in 1619. Meſſ. de Port Royal uſing their utmoſt endeavours to convert M. de Turenne to the Catholic faith, preſented him with a piece calculated to that end, which his lady engaged Mr Claude to anſwer; and his performance gave riſe to the moſt famous controverſy that was ever carried on in France between the Roman Catholics and Proteſtants.

ſtants. On the revocation of the edict of Nantz, he retired to Holland, where he met with a kind reception, and was honoured with a conſiderable penſion by the prince of Orange. He died in 1687; and left a ſon, Iſaac Claude, whom he lived to ſee miniſter of the Walloon church at the Hague, and who publiſhed ſeveral excellent works of his deceaſed father.

CLAUDIA, a veſtal virgin at Rome, who being ſuſpected of unchaſtity, is ſaid to have been cleared from that imputation in the following manner: the image of Cybele being brought out of Phrygia to Rome in a barge, and it happening to ſtick ſo faſt in the river Tiber that it could not be moved, ſhe tying her girdle, the badge of chaſtity, to the barge, drew it along to the city, which a thouſand men were unable to do.

CLAUDIA Aqua (Frontinus), water conveyed to Rome by a canal or aqueduct of eleven miles in length, the contrivance of Appius Claudius the Cenſor, and the firſt ſtructure of the kind, in the year of Rome 441. Called alſo *Aqua Appia.*

CLAUDIA Copia (Inſcriptions), a name of *Lugdunum*, or Lyons in France, the birthplace of the emperor Claudius: a Roman colony called *Claudia*, from its benefactor the emperor; and *Copia* from its plenty of all neceſſaries, eſpecially corn. See LUGDUNUM.

CLAUDIA, or *Clodia Via* (Ovid), was that road which, beginning at the Pons Milvius, joined the Flaminia, paſſing through Etruria on the ſouth ſide of the Lacus Sabatinus, and ſtriking off from the Caſſia, and leading to Luca (Antonine): large remains of it are to be ſeen above Bracciano (Holſtenius).

CLAUDIA Lex, de Comitiis, was enacted by M. Cl. Marcellus in the year of Rome 702. It ordained, that at public elections of magiſtrates no notice ſhould be taken of the votes of ſuch as were abſent. Another, *de Uſura*, which forbade people to lend money to minors on condition of payment, after the deceaſe of their parents. Another, *de Negotiatione*, by Q. Claudius the tribune, 535. It forbade any ſenator or father of a ſenator to have any veſſel containing above 300 amphoræ, for fear of their engaging themſelves in commercial ſchemes. The ſame law alſo forbade the ſame thing to the ſcribes and the attendants of the queſtors, as it was naturally ſuppoſed that people who had any commercial connexions could not be faithful to their truſt, nor promote the intereſt of the ſtate. Another, 576, to permit the allies to return to their reſpective cities, after their names were inrolled. Liv. 41. c. 8. Another, to take away the freedom of the city of Rome from the coloniſts which Cæſar had carried to Novicomum.

CLAUDIANUS, CLAUDIUS, a Latin poet, flouriſhed in the 4th century, under the emperor Theodoſius, and under his ſons Arcadius and Honorius. It is not agreed of what country he was a native; but he came to Rome in the year of Chriſt 395, when he was about 20 years old; and there inſinuated himſelf into Stilicho's favour; who, being a perſon of great abilities both for civil and military affairs, though a Goth by birth, was ſo conſiderable a perſon under Honorius, that he may be ſaid for many years to have governed the weſtern empire. Stilicho afterwards fell into diſgrace, and was put to death; and it is more than probable that the poet was involved in the misfortunes of his patrons, and ſeverely perſecuted in his perſon and fortunes by Hadrian, an Egyptian by birth, who was captain of the guards to Honorius, and ſucceeded Stilicho. There is reaſon, however, to think that he roſe afterwards to great favour, and obtained ſeveral honours both civil and military. The princeſs Serena had a great eſteem for Claudian, and recommended and married him to a lady of great quality and fortune in Libya. There are a few little poems on ſacred ſubjects, which through miſtake have been aſcribed by ſome critics to Claudian; and ſo have made him be thought a Chriſtian. But St Auſtin, who was cotemporary with him, expreſsly ſays that he was a Heathen. The time of Claudian's death is uncertain, nor do we know any farther particulars of his life than what are to be collected from his works, and which we have already related above. He is thought to have more of Virgil in his ſtyle than all the other imitators of him.

CLAUDIUS I. Roman emperor, A. D. 41. The beginning of his reign was very promiſing; but it was ſoon diſcovered that little better than an idiot filled the throne, who might eaſily be made a tyrant: accordingly he became a very cruel one, through the influence of his empreſs, the infamous Meſſalina: after her death, he married his niece Agrippina, who cauſed him to be poiſoned to make room for Nero, A. D. 54. See (*Hiſtory of*) ROME.

CLAUDIUS II. *Aurelius*, ſurnamed *Gothicus*, ſignalized himſelf by his courage and prudence under the reigns of Valerian and Julian; and on the death of the latter was declared emperor in 268. He put to death Aureolus, the murderer of Gallienus; defeated the Germans; and in 269 marched againſt the Goths, who ravaged the empire with an army of 300,000 men, which he at firſt haraſſed, and next year entirely defeated; but a contagious diſeaſe, which had ſpread through that vaſt army, was caught by the Romans; and the emperor himſelf died of it a ſhort time after, aged 56. Pollio ſays, that this prince had the moderation of Auguſtus, the virtue of Trajan, and the piety of Antoninus.

CLAVES INSULÆ, a term uſed in the Iſle of Man, where all weighty and ambiguous cauſes are referred to a jury of twelve, who are called *claves inſulæ*, the keys of the iſland.

CLAVICHORD, and CLAVICITHERIUM, two muſical inſtruments uſed in the 16th century. They were of the nature of the ſpinet, but of an oblong figure. The firſt is ſtill uſed by the nuns in convents; and that the practitioners may not diſturb the ſiſters in the dormitory, the ſtrings are muffled with ſmall bits of fine woollen cloth.

CLAVICLE. See ANATOMY *Index.*

CLAVICYMBALUM, in antiquity, a muſical inſtrument of 30 ſtrings. Modern writers apply the name to our harpſichords.

CLAVI VESTIUM, were flowers or ſtuds of purple, interwoven with or ſewed upon the garments of knights or ſenators; only, for diſtinction, the former uſed them narrow, the latter broad.

CLAVIS properly ſignifies a KEY; and is ſometimes uſed in Engliſh to denote an explanation of ſome obſcure paſſages of any book in writing.

CLAVIUS, CHRISTOPHER, a German Jeſuit, born

Clavius || Clay-lands.

born at Bamberg, excelled in the knowledge of the mathematics, and was one of the chief persons employed to rectify the kalendar; the defence of which he also undertook against those who censured it, especially Scaliger. He died at Rome in 1612, aged 75. His works have been printed in five volumes folio; the principal of which is his Commentary on Euclid's Elements.

CLAUSE, in *Grammar*, denotes a member of a period or sentence.

CLAUSE signifies also an article or particular stipulation in a contract, a charge or condition in a testament, &c.

CLAUSENBURG, a large city of Transilvania, situated on the river Samos, in E. Long. 23. 20. N. Lat. 46. 53.

CLAVUS, in antiquity, an ornament upon the robes of the Roman senators and knights, which was more or less broad, according to the dignity of the person; hence the distinction of tunica angusti-clavia and lati-clavia.

CLAVUS, in *Medicine* and *Surgery*, is used in several significations: 1. Clavus hystericus, is a shooting pain in the head, between the pericranium and cranium, which affects such as have the green sickness. 2. Clavus oculorum, according to Celsus, is a callous tubercle on the white of the eye taking its denomination from its figure. 3. Clavus imports indurated tubercles of the uterus. 4. It also imports a chirurgical instrument of gold, mentioned by Amatus Lusitanus, designed to be introduced into an exulcerated palate, for the better articulation of the voice. And, 5. It signifies a callus, or corn on the foot.

CLAVUS Annalis, in antiquity. So rude and ignorant were the Romans towards the rise of their state, that the driving or fixing a nail was the only method they had of keeping a register of time; for which reason it was called *clavus annalis*. There was an ancient law, ordaining the chief prætor to fix a nail every year on the Ides of September; it was driven into the right side of the temple of Jupiter Opt. Max. towards Minerva's temple. This custom of keeping an account of time by means of fixing nails was not peculiar to the Romans; for the Etrurians used likewise to drive nails into the temple of their goddess Nortia with the same view.

CLAW, among zoologists, denotes the sharp pointed nails with which the feet of certain quadrupeds and birds are furnished.

CLAY, in *Natural History*, is applied to earths, the characters of which are these: They are firmly coherent, weighty, and compact; stiff, viscid, and ductile to a great degree, whilst moist; smooth to the touch; not easily breaking between the fingers, nor readily diffusible in water; and, when mixed, not readily subsiding from it. See CHEMISTRY and MINERALOGY *Index*.

CLAY, a town of Norfolk in England, seated on an arm of the sea between two rivers, in E. Long. 0. 30. N. Lat. 47. 28.

CLAY-Lands, those abounding with clay, whether black, blue, yellow, white, &c. of which the black and the yellow are the best for corn.

All clay soils are apt to chill the plants growing on them in moist seasons, as they retain too much water: in dry seasons, on the contrary, they turn hard and choke the plants. The natural produce of clay soils is goose-grass, large daisies, thistles, docks, poppies, &c. Some bear clover, and rye-grass; and, if well manured, produce the best grain: they hold manure the best of all lands; and the most proper for them are horse-dung, pigeons-dung, some kinds of marle, folding of sheep, malt-dust, ashes, chalk, lime, soot, &c.

Clay-lands || Clazomenæ.

CLAYTON, DR ROBERT, a prelate of great learning, of distinguished worth and probity, and a respectable member of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies at London, was advanced to the bishopric of Killala, Jan. 23. 1729; translated to the see of Corke, Dec. 19. 1735; to that of Clogher, Aug. 26. 1745; and died much lamented, Feb. 25. 1758. His publications are, 1. A Letter in the Philosophical Transactions, N° 461. p. 813. giving an account of a Frenchman 70 years old (at Inishanan, in his diocese of Corke), who said he gave suck to a child.—2. The Chronology of the Hebrew Bible vindicated, &c. 1751, 4to.—3. An impartial Inquiry into the time of the Coming of the Messiah, 1751, 8vo.—4. An Essay on Spirit, 1751, 8vo.—5. A Vindication of the Histories of the Old and New Testament, in answer to the Objections of the late Lord Bolingbroke; in Two Letters to a young Nobleman, 1752, 8vo, reprinted in 1753.—6. A Defence of the Essay on Spirit, with Remarks on the several pretended Answers; and which may serve as an antidote against all that shall ever appear against it, 1753, 8vo.—7. A Journal from Grand Cairo to Mount Sinai, and back again, translated from a manuscript, written by the Prefetto of Egypt, in Company with some Missionaries *de propaganda fide* at Grand Cairo: to which are added, Remarks on the Origin of Hieroglyphics, and the Mythology of the ancient Heathens, 1753, 8vo, two editions, 4to and 8vo. It was soon after this publication that his Lordship became (in March 1754) a fellow of the Society of Antiquarians.—8. Some Thoughts on Self-love, Innate Ideas, Free-will, Taste, Sentiments, Liberty, and Necessity, &c. occasioned by reading Mr Hume's Works, and the short Treatise written in French by Lord Bolingbroke on Compassion, 1754, 8vo.—9. A Vindication of the Histories of the Old and New Testament, Part II. Adorned with several Explanatory Cuts, 1754, 8vo.—10. Letters between the bishop of Clogher and Mr William Penn, concerning Baptism, 1755, 8vo.—11. A speech made in the House of Lords in Ireland, on Monday, February 2. 1756, for omitting the Nicene and Athanasian Creeds out of the Liturgy, &c. 1756, 8vo.—12. A Vindication, Part III. 1758, 8vo. The three parts of the Essay on Spirit were reprinted by Mr Bowyer, in one vol. 8vo, 1759; with some additional notes, and an index of texts of Scripture illustrated or explained.

CLAYTONIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLAZOMENÆ, -ARUM, (Herodotus, Strabo, Velleius, Pliny); *Clazomena*, -æ, (Mela); one of the twelve ancient cities of Ionia. The country of Anaxagoras; situated in the neighbourhood of Colophon. The city was small, its port on the N. N. W. side of the island. Dr Chandler informs us, that traces of the walls are found by the sea; and in a hill are vestiges of a theatre. Three or four trees grew on it; and by

Clazomenæ || Cleevers

by one is a cave hewn in the rock, and affording water. A vaulted room with a chimney at one end, and a hovel or two made with ſtones piled, are all the preſent ſtructures; and theſe are chiefly frequented by fiſhermen and by perſons employed to watch and to drive away birds when the grain ripens. Referring to this confined ſituation of Clazomenæ, a famous ſophiſt, when importuned to adorn his native city by reſiding in it rather than at Smyrna, replied, *The nightingale refuſes to ſing in a cage.*

CLEANTHES, a Stoic philoſopher, diſciple of Zeno, flouriſhed 240 years before Chriſt. He maintained himſelf in the day by working in the night: being queſtioned by the magiſtrates how he ſubſiſted, he brought a woman for whom he kneaded bread, and a gardener for whom he drew water; and refuſed a preſent from them. He compoſed ſeveral works, of which there are now only a few fragments remaining.

CLEAR, as a naval term, is variouſly applied to the weather, the ſea-coaſts, cordage, navigation, &c. The weather is ſaid to be clear when it is fair and open, as oppoſed to cloudy or foggy. The ſea coaſt is called clear when the navigation is not interrupted, or rendered dangerous by rocks, ſands, or breakers; &c. It is expreſſed of cordage, cables, &c. when they are unembarraſſed or diſentangled, ſo as to be ready for immediate ſervice. It is uſually oppoſed to *foul* in all theſe ſenſes.

CLEARCHUS, a tyrant of Heraclea in Pontus, who was killed by Chion and Leonidas, Plato's pupils, during the celebration of the feſtivals of Bacchus. He had enjoyed the ſovereign power during 12 years. A Lacedæmonian ſent to quiet the Byzantines. He was recalled, but refuſed to obey, and fled to Cyrus the younger, who made him captain of 13,000 Greek ſoldiers. He obtained a victory over Artaxerxes, who was ſo enraged at the defeat, that when Clearchus fell into his hands by the treachery of Tiſſaphernes, he put him immediately to death.

CLEATS, in naval affairs, pieces of wood having one or two projecting ends whereby to faſten the ropes: ſome of them are faſtened to the ſhrouds below for this purpoſe, and others nailed to different places of the ſhip's deck or ſides.

CLECHE, in *Heraldry*, a kind of croſs, charged with another croſs of the ſame figure, but of the colour of the field.

CLEDGE, among miners, denotes the upper ſtratum of fullers earth.

CLEDONISM, Cledonismus, a kind of divination, in uſe among the ancients. The word is formed from κληδων, which ſignifies two things, *rumor*, "a report," and *avis*, "a bird." In the firſt ſenſe, cledoniſm ſhould denote a kind of divination drawn from words occaſionally uttered. Cicero obſerves, that the Pythagoreans made obſervation not only of the words of the gods, but of thoſe of men; and accordingly believed the pronouncing of certain words, e. g. *incendium*, at a meal, very unhappy. Thus, inſtead of priſon, they uſed the word *domicilium;* and to avoid *erinnys*, furies, ſaid *eumenides*. In the ſecond ſenſe, *cledoniſm* ſhould ſeem a divination drawn from birds; the ſame with ornithomantia.

CLEEVERS. See Clivers.

Clef.

CLEF, or Cliff, in *Muſic*, derived from the Latin word *clavis*, "a key;" becauſe by it is expreſſed the fundamental ſound in the diatonic ſcale, which requires a determined ſucceſſion of tones or ſemitones, whether major or minor, peculiar to the note from whence we ſet out, and reſulting from its poſition in the ſcale. Hence, as it opens a way to this ſucceſſion, and diſcovers it, the technical term *key* is uſed with great propriety. But clefs rather point out the poſition of different muſical parts in the general ſyſtem, and the relations which they bear one to another.

A clef, ſays Rouſſeau, is a character in muſic placed at the beginning of a ſtave, to determine the degree of elevation occupied by that ſtave in the general claviary or ſyſtem, and to point out the names of all the notes which it contains in the line of that clef.

Anciently the letters by which the notes of the gamut were ſignified were called *clefs*. Thus the letter A was the clef of the note *la*, C the clef of *ut*, E the clef of *mi*, &c. In proportion as the ſyſtem was extended, the embarraſſment and ſuperfluity of this multitude of clefs were felt.

Gui d'Arezzo, who had invented them, marked a letter or clef at the beginning of each line in the ſtave; for as yet he had placed no notes in the ſpaces. In proceſs of time they marked no more than one of the ſeven clefs at the beginning of one of the lines only; and this was ſufficient to fix the poſition of all the reſt, according to their natural order: at laſt, of theſe ſeven lines or clefs they ſelected four, which were called *claves ſignatæ*, or *diſcriminating clefs*, becauſe they ſatisfied themſelves with marking one of them upon one of the lines, from which the powers of all the others might be recognized. Preſently afterwards they even retrenched one of theſe four, viz. the gamma, of which they made uſe to mark the *ſol* below, that is to ſay, the hypoproſlambanomene added to the ſyſtem of the Greeks.

In reality Kircher aſſerts, that if we underſtood the characters in which ancient muſic was written, and examined minutely the forms of our clefs, we ſhould find that each of them repreſents the letter a little altered in its form, by which the note was originally named. Thus the clef of *ſol* was originally a G, the clef of ut a C, and the clef of *fa* an F.

We have then three clefs, one a fifth above the other: the clef of F, or *fa*, which is the loweſt; the clef of *ut*, or C, which is the fifth above the former; and the clef of *ſol*, or G, which is a fifth above that of *ut*. Theſe clefs, both as marked by foreigners and in Britain, may be ſeen in art. 170 of Music; upon which it is neceſſary to remark, that by a remain of ancient practice, the clef is always placed upon a line, and never in a ſpace. It deſerves notice, that the clef of *fa* is marked in three different manners: one in muſic which is printed; another in muſic which is written or engraved; and a third in the full harmony of the chorus. Plate CXLIV. fig. 9. Vol. V.

By adding four lines above the clef of *ſol*, and three lines beneath the clef of *fa*, which gives both above and below the greateſt extent of permanent or eſtabliſhed lines, it appears, that the whole ſcale of notes which can be placed upon the gradations relative to theſe clefs amounts to 24; that is to ſay, three octaves and

and a fourth from the F, or *fa*, which is found beneath the first line, to the *si*, or B, which is found above the last, and all this together forms what we call the *general claviary;* from whence we may judge, that this compass has, for a long time, constituted the extent of the system. But as at present it is continually acquiring new degrees, as well above as below, the degrees are marked by larger lines, which are added above or below as occasion requires.

Instead of joining all the lines, as has been done by Rousseau in his Dictionary, (plate A, fig. 5.) to mark the relation which one clef bears to another, they separate them five by five; because it is pretty nearly within the degrees to which the compass of ordinary voices extends. This collection of five lines is called a *stave;* and in these they place a clef, to determine the names of the notes, the positions of semitones, and to show what station the stave occupies in the claviary or general scale.

In whatever manner we take five successive lines in the claviary, we shall find one clef comprehended; nay, sometimes two, in which case one may be retrenched as useless. Custom has even prescribed which of the two should be retrenched, and which retained; it is this likewise which has determined the number of positions assigned to each clef.

If I form a stave of the first five lines in the claviary, beginning from below, I find the clef of *fa* in the fourth line. This then is one position of the clef, and this position evidently relates to the lowest note; thus likewise it is that of the base clef.

If I wish to gain a third in ascent, I must add a line above; I must then obliterate one below, otherwise the stave will contain more than five lines. The clef of *fa* then is found transferred from the fourth to the third, and the clef of *ut* is likewise found upon the fifth; but as two clefs are useless, they retrench here that of *ut*. It is evident, that the stave of this clef is a third higher than the former.

By throwing away still one line below to gain another above, we have a third kind of a stave, where the clef of *fa* will be found upon the second line, and that of *ut* upon the fourth. Here we leave out the clef of *fa*, and retain that of *ut*. We have now gained another third above, and lost it below.

By continuing these alterations from line to line, we pass successively through four different positions of the clef of *ut*. Having arrived at that of *sol*, we find it placed upon the second line, and then upon the first. This position includes the five highest lines, and gives the sharpest diapason which the clefs can signify.

The reader may see in Rousseau's Musical Dictionary, Plate A, fig. 5. this succession of clefs from the lowest to the highest; which in all constitutes eight staves, clefs, or different positions of clefs.

Whatever might be the character and genius of any voice or instrument, if its extent above or below does not surpass that of the general claviary, in this number may be found a station and a clef suitable to it; and there are, in reality, clefs determined for all the parts in music. If the extent of a part is very considerable, so that the number of lines necessary to be added above or below may become inconvenient, the clef is then changed in the course of the music. It may be plainly perceived by the figure, what clef it is necessary to choose, for raising or depressing any part, under whatever clef it may be actually placed.

It will likewise appear, that in order to adjust one clef to another, both must be compared by the general claviary, by means of which we may determine what every note under one of the clefs is with respect to the other. It is by this exercise repeated that we acquire the habit of reading with ease all the parts.

From this manœuvre it follows, that we may place whatever note we please of the gamut upon any line or space whatever of the stave, since we have the choice of eight different positions, which is equal to the number of notes in the octave. Thus you may mark a whole tune upon the same line, by changing the clef at each gradation. The 7th fig. of the same plate in Rousseau's Musical Dictionary, to which we formerly referred, shows by the series of clefs the order of the notes, *re*, *fa*, *la*, *ut*, *mi*, *sol*, *si*, *re*, rising by thirds, although all placed upon the same line. The fig. following represents upon the order of the same clefs the note *ut*, which appears to descend by thirds upon all the lines of the stave; and further, which yet, by means of changing the clef, still preserves its unison. It is upon such examples as this, that scholars ought to exercise themselves, in order to understand at the first glance the powers of all the clefs, and their simultaneous effect.

There are two of their positions, viz. the clef of *sol* upon the first line, and that of *fa* upon the third, which seem daily to fall more and more into desuetude. The first of these may seem less necessary, because it produces nothing but a position entirely similar to that of *fa* upon the fourth line, from which, however, it differs by two octaves. As to the clef of *fa*, it is plain, that in removing it entirely from the third line, we shall no longer have any equivalent position, and that the composition of the claviary, which is at present complete, will by these means become defective.

Thus much for Rousseau's account of clefs. He proceeds to explain their transposition; but as this would render the present article too long and intricate, we refer the curious to his *Musical Dictionary*, vol. i. page 162. See also *Malcom's Dissertation on Music*.

CLEFT, in a general sense, is a space made by the separation of parts. Green timber is very apt to split and cleave in several places, after it is wrought into form; and these cracks in it are very disagreeable to the sight. The common method of the country carpenters is to fill up these cracks with a mixture of grease and saw dust; but the neatest way of all is, the soaking both sides well with the fat of beef broth, and then dipping pieces of sponge into the same broth, and filling up all the cracks with them: they swell out so as to fill the whole crack; and accommodate themselves so well to it, that the deficiency is hardly seen.

CLEFTS, or *Cracks*, in *Farriery*, appear on the bought of the pasterns, and are caused by a sharp and malignant humour. See FARRIERY *Index*.

CLEMA, in antiquity, a twig of the vine, which serves as a badge of the centurion's office.

CLEMATIS, VIRGINS'-BOWER. See BOTANY *Index*.

Clemency. CLEMENCY, denotes much the ſame with mercy, and implies a remiſſion of ſeverity towards offenders. The term is moſt generally uſed in ſpeaking of the forgiveneſs exerciſed by princes or perſons of high authority. It is the reſult, indeed, of a diſpoſition which ought to be cultivated by all ranks, though its effects cannot be equally conſpicuous or extenſive. In praiſe of clemency joined with power, it is obſerved, that it is not only the privilege, the honour, and the duty of a prince, but it is alſo his ſecurity, and better than all his garriſons, forts, and guards, to preſerve himſelf and his dominions in ſafety: That that prince is truly royal, who maſters himſelf; looks upon all injuries as below him; and governs by equity and reaſon, not by paſſion or caprice. In illuſtration of this ſubject, the following examples are ſelected out of many recorded in hiſtory.

Sueton. c. 9. 1. Two patricians having conſpired againſt Titus the Roman emperor, were diſcovered, convicted, and ſentenced to death by the ſenate; but the good-natured prince ſent for them, and in private admoniſhed them, that in vain they aſpired to the empire, which was given by deſtiny; exhorting them to be ſatisfied with the rank in which by Providence they had been placed, and offering them any thing elſe which was in his power to grant. At the ſame time he diſpatched a meſſenger to the mother of one of them, who was then at a great diſtance, and under deep concern about the fate of her ſon, to aſſure her, that her ſon was not only alive, but forgiven.

Zoſ. ii. 674. 2. Licinius having raiſed a numerous army, Zoſimus ſays 130,000 men, endeavoured to wreſt the government out of the hands of his brother-in-law Conſtantine the emperor. But his army being defeated, Licinius fled with what forces he could rally to Nicomedia, whither Conſtantine purſued him, and immediately inveſted the place; but on the ſecond day of the ſiege, the emperor's ſiſter intreating him, with a flood of tears, by the tenderneſs he had ever ſhown for her, to forgive her huſband, and grant him at leaſt his life, he was prevailed upon to comply with her requeſt; and the next day, Licinius, finding no means of making his eſcape, preſented himſelf before the conqueror, and throwing himſelf at his feet, yielded to him the purple and the other enſigns of ſovereignty. Conſtantine received him in a very friendly manner, entertained him at his table, and afterwards ſent him to Theſſalonica, aſſuring him, that he ſhould live unmoleſted ſo long as he raiſed no new diſturbances.

3. The council of thirty, eſtabliſhed at Athens by Lyſander, committed the moſt execrable cruelties. Upon pretence of reſtraining the multitude within their duty, and to prevent ſeditions, they had cauſed guards to be aſſigned them, had armed 3000 of the citizens for that purpoſe, and at the ſame time diſarmed all the reſt. The whole city was in the utmoſt terror and diſmay. Whoever oppoſed their injuſtice and violence fell a victim to their reſentment. Riches were a crime that never failed of drawing a ſentence upon their owners, always followed with death and the confiſcation of eſtates; which the thirty tyrants divided amongſt themſelves. They put more people to death (ſays Xenophon) in eight months of a peace, than their enemies had done in a war of thirty years. All the citizens of any conſideration in Athens, and who retained a love of liberty, quitted a place reduced to ſo hard and ſhameful a ſlavery, and ſought elſewhere an aſylum and retreat where they might live in ſafety. At the head of theſe was Thraſybulus, a perſon of extraordinary merit, who beheld with the moſt lively affliction the miſeries of his country.

The Lacedæmonians had the inhumanity to endeavour to deprive thoſe unhappy fugitives of this laſt reſource. They publiſhed an edict to prohibit the cities of Greece from giving them refuge, decreed that they ſhould be delivered up to the thirty tyrants, and condemned all ſuch as ſhould contravene the execution of this edict to pay a fine of five talents. Only two cities rejected with diſdain ſo unjuſt an ordinance, Megara and Thebes; the latter of which made a decree to puniſh all perſons whatſoever that ſhould ſee an Athenian attacked by his enemies without doing his utmoſt to aſſiſt him. Lyſias, an orator of Syracuſe who had been baniſhed by the thirty, raiſed 500 ſoldiers at his own expence, and ſent them to the aid of the common country of Eloquence. Thraſybulus loſt no time. After having taken Phyta, a ſmall fort in Attica, he marched to the Piræus, of which he made himſelf maſter. The thirty flew thither with their troops, and a battle enſued. The tyrants were overthrown. Critias, the moſt ſavage of them all, was killed on the ſpot: and as the army was taking to flight, Thraſybulus cried out, "Wherefore do you fly from me as from a victor, rather than aſſiſt me as the avenger of your liberty? We are not enemies, but fellow-citizens, nor have we declared war againſt the city, but againſt the thirty tyrants." He continued to remind them, that they had the ſame origin, country, laws, and religion: he exhorted them to compaſſionate their exiled brethren, to reſtore their country to them, and reſume their own liberty. This diſcourſe had the deſired effect. The army, upon their return to Athens, expelled the thirty, and ſubſtituted ten perſons to govern in their room, whoſe conduct proved no better than theirs; but King Pauſanias, moved with compaſſion for the deplorable condition to which a city, once ſo flouriſhing, was reduced, had the generoſity to favour the Athenians in ſecret, and at length obtained a peace for them. It was ſealed with the blood of the tyrants, who having taken arms to reinſtate themſelves in the government, were all put to the ſword, and left Athens in the full poſſeſſion of its liberty. All the exiles were recalled. Thraſybulus at that time propoſed the celebrated amneſty, by which the citizens engaged upon oath, that all paſt tranſactions ſhould be buried in oblivion. The government was re-eſtabliſhed upon its ancient footing, the laws were reſtored to their priſtine vigour, and magiſtrates elected with the uſual form.

This (ſays Rollin) is one of the fineſt events in ancient hiſtory, worthy the Athenian clemency and benevolence, and has ſerved as a model to ſucceeding ages in all good governments. Never had tyranny been more cruel and bloody than that which the Athenians had lately thrown off. Every houſe was in mourning, every family bewailed the loſs of ſome relation: it had been a ſeries of public robbery and rapine, in which licenſe and impunity had authorized all manner of crimes. The people ſeemed to have a right to demand the blood of all accomplices in ſuch notorious malverſations,

Clemency. ſations, and even the intereſt of the ſtate to authorize ſuch a claim, that by the exemplary ſeverities ſuch enormous crimes might be prevented for the future. But Thraſybulus riſing above theſe ſentiments, from the ſuperiority of his more extenſive genius, and the views of a more diſcerning and profound policy, foreſaw, that by giving into the puniſhment of the guilty, eternal ſeeds of diſcord and enmity would remain, to weaken the public by domeſtic diviſions, when it was neceſſary to unite againſt the common enemy, and alſo occaſion the loſs to the ſtate of a great number of citizens, who might render it important ſervices from the view of making amends for paſt miſbehaviour.

4. Such conduct, after great troubles in a ſtate, has always appeared to the ableſt politicians, the moſt certain and ready means to reſtore the public peace and tranquillity. Cicero, when Rome was divided into two factions upon the occaſion of Cæſar's death, who had been killed by the conſpirators, calling to mind this celebrated amneſty, propoſed, after the example of the Athenians, to bury all that had paſſed in eternal oblivion.

5. Cardinal Mazarine obſerved to Don Lewis de Haro, prime miniſter of Spain, that this gentle and humane conduct in France had prevented the troubles and revolts of that kingdom from having any fatal conſequences, and "that the king had not loſt a foot of land by them to that day;" whereas "the inflexible ſeverity of the Spaniards was the occaſion that the ſubjects of that monarchy, whenever they threw off the maſk, never returned to their obedience but by the force of arms; which ſufficiently appears (ſays he) in the example of the Hollanders, who are in the peaceable poſſeſſion of ſo many provinces, that not an age ago were the patrimony of the king of Spain."

Herod. lib. ix. c. 77, 78. 6. Leonidas the Lacedæmonian having, with 300 men only, diſputed the paſs of Thermopylæ againſt the whole army of Xerxes, and being killed in that engagement, Xerxes, by the advice of Mardonius one of his generals, cauſed his dead body to be hung upon a gallows, making thereby the intended diſhonour of his enemy his own immortal ſhame. But ſome time after, Xerxes being defeated, and Mardonius ſlain, one of the principal citizens of Ægina came and addreſſed himſelf to Pauſanias, deſiring him to avenge the indignity that Mardonius and Xerxes had ſhown to Leonidas, by treating Mardonius's body after the ſame manner. As a farther motive for doing ſo, he added, that by thus ſatisfying the manes of thoſe who were killed at Thermopylæ, he would be ſure to immortalize his own name throughout all Greece, and make his memory precious to the lateſt poſterity: "Carry thy baſe counſels elſewhere (replied Pauſanias); thou muſt have a very wrong notion of true glory to imagine, that the way for me to acquire it is to reſemble the barbarians. If the eſteem of the people of Ægina is not to be purchaſed but by ſuch a proceeding, I ſhall be content with preſerving that of the Lacedæmonians only, amongſt whom the baſe and ungenerous pleaſure of revenge is never put in competition with that of ſhowing clemency and moderation to their enemies, eſpecially after their death. As for the ſouls of my departed countrymen, they are ſufficiently avenged by the death of the many thouſand Perſians ſlain upon the ſpot in the laſt engagement."

CLEMENS ROMANUS, biſhop of Rome, where he is ſaid to have been born; and to have been fellow-labourer with St Peter and St Paul. We have nothing remaining of his works that is clearly genuine, excepting one epiſtle, written to quiet ſome diſturbances in the church of Corinth; which, next to holy writ, is eſteemed one of the moſt valuable remains of eccleſiaſtical antiquity. Clemens, Clement.

CLEMENS Alexandrinus, ſo called to diſtinguiſh him from the former, was an eminent father of the church, who flouriſhed at the end of the ſecond and beginning of the third centuries. He was the ſcholar of Pantænus, and the inſtructor of Origen. The beſt edition of his works is that in 2 vols folio, publiſhed in 1715, by Archbiſhop Potter.

CLEMENT V. POPE, the firſt who made a public ſale of indulgences. He tranſplanted the holy ſee to Avignon in France; greatly contributed to the ſuppreſſion of the knights templars; and was author of a compilation of the decrees of the general councils of Vienne, ſtyled *Clementines*. He died in 1314.

CLEMENT VII. *Julius de Medicis*, Pope, memorable for his refuſing to divorce Catharine of Arragon from Henry VIII.; and for the bull he publiſhed upon the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn, which, according to the Romiſh authors, loſt him England. He died in 1534.

CLEMENT XIV. *Francis Laurentius Ganganelli*, Pope, was born at St Angelo, in the duchy of Urbino, in October 1705; and choſen pope, though not yet a biſhop, in 1769: at which time the ſee of Rome was involved in a moſt diſagreeable and dangerous conteſt with the houſe of Bourbon. His reign was rendered troubleſome by the colliſion of parties on the affairs of the Jeſuits; and it is pretended that his latter days were embittered by the apprehenſions of poiſon. Though this report was probably apocryphal, it is ſaid that he often complained of the heavy burden which he was obliged to bear; and regretted, with great ſenſibility, the loſs of that tranquillity which he enjoyed in his retirement when only a ſimple Franciſcan. He was, however, fortunate in having an opportunity, by a ſingle act, to diſtinguiſh a ſhort adminiſtration of five years in ſuch a manner as will ever prevent its ſinking into obſcurity. His death was immediately attributed to poiſon, as if an old man of 70, loaded with infirmities and diſorders, could not quit the world without violence. His proceedings againſt the Jeſuits furniſhed a plauſible pretence for this charge, and the malevolence of their enemies embelliſhed it with circumſtances. It even ſeems as if the miniſters of thoſe powers who had procured their diſſolution did not think it beneath them to countenance the report; as if falſehood was neceſſary to prevent the revival of a body which had already ſunk, in its full ſtrength, under the weight of real miſconduct. The charge was the more ridiculous, as the pontiff had undergone a long and painful illneſs, which originally proceeded from a ſuppreſſion of urine, to which he was ſubject; yet the report was propagated with the greateſt induſtry; and though the French and Spaniſh miniſters were preſent at the opening of his body, the moſt horrible circumſtances were publiſhed relative to that operation. It was confidently told that the head fell off from the body, and that the ſtench poiſoned and killed the

the operators. It availed but little that the operators showed themselves alive and in good health, and that the surgeons and physicians proved the falsehood of every part of the report. Clement XIV. appears to have been a man of a virtuous character, and possessed of considerable abilities. He died much regretted by his subjects.

CLEMENTINE, a term used among the Augustins, who apply it to a person who, after having been nine years a superior, ceases to be so, and becomes a private monk, under the command of a superior. The word has its rise hence, that Pope Clement, by a bull, prohibited any superior among the Augustins from continuing above nine years in his office.

CLEMENTINES, in the canon law, are the constitutions of Pope Clement V. and the canons of the council of Vienne.

CLENARD, NICHOLAS, a celebrated grammarian in the 16th century, was born at Diest; and after having taught humanity at Louvain, travelled into France, Spain, Portugal, and Africa. He wrote in Latin, 1. Letters relating to his Travels, which are very curious and scarce. 2. A Greek Grammar, which has been revised and corrected by many grammarians; and other works. He died at Grenoble in 1542.

CLEOBIS and BITON, two youths, sons of Cydippe the priestess of Juno at Argos. When oxen could not be procured to draw their mother's chariot to the temple of Juno, they put themselves under the yoke, and drew it 45 stadia to the temple, amidst the acclamations of the multitude, who congratulated the mother on account of the piety of her sons. Cydippe intreated the goddess to reward the piety of her sons with the best gift that could be granted to a mortal. They went to rest and awoke no more; and by this the goddess showed that death is the only true happy event that can happen to a man. The Argives raised them statues at Delphi.

CLEOBULUS, son of Evagoras, and one of the Grecian sages; he was valiant, a lover of learning, and an enemy to vice. Flourished about 560 years before Christ.

CLEOMBROTUS, a king of Sparta, son of Anaxandrides. He was deterred from building a wall across the isthmus of Corinth against the approach of the Persians, by an eclipse of the sun. He died in the 75th Olympiad, and was succeeded by Plistarchus, son of Leonidas, a minor.

CLEOMBROTUS II. son of Pausanias king of Sparta, after his brother Agesipolis I. He made war against the Bœotians, and lest he should be suspected of treacherous communications with Epaminondas, he gave that general battle at Leuctra, in a very disadvantageous place. He was killed in the engagement, and his army destroyed, in the year of Rome 382.

CLEOMBROTUS III. a son-in-law of Leonidas king of Sparta, who for a while usurped the kingdom after the expulsion of his father-in-law. When Leonidas was recalled, Cleombrotus was banished, and his wife Chelonis, who had accompanied her father, now accompanied her husband in his exile.

CLEOME, in *Botany*, a genus of the siliquosa order, belonging to the tetradynamia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 25th order, *Putamineæ*. There are three nectariferous glandules, one at each sinus of the calyx except the lowest; the petals all rising upwards; the siliqua unilocular and bivalved. There are 15 species, all of them, except two, natives of warm climates. They are herbaceous plants, rising from one to two feet high; and are adorned with flowers of various colours, as red, yellow, flesh-colour, &c. They are propagated by seeds, and require no other care than what is common to other exotics which are natives of warm countries.

CLEOMENES, king of Sparta, conquered the Argives, and freed Athens from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ. By bribing the oracle, he pronounced Demaratus, his colleague on the throne, illegitimate, because he refused to punish the people of Ægina, who had deserted the Greeks. He killed himself in a fit of madness.

CLEOMENES II. succeeded his brother Agesipolis II. He reigned 34 years in the greatest tranquillity, and was father to Acrotatus and Cleonymus. He was succeeded by Areus I. son of Acrotatus.

CLEOMENES III. succeeded his father Leonidas. He was of an enterprising spirit, and resolved to restore the ancient discipline of Lycurgus in its full force. He killed the Ephori, and removed by poison his royal colleague Eurydamides, and made his own brother Euclidas king, against the laws of the state, which forbade more than one of the same family to sit on the throne. He made war against the Achæans, and attempted to destroy the Achæan league. Aratus the general of the Achæans, who supposed himself inferior to his enemy, called Antigonus to his assistance; and Cleomenes, when he had fought the unfortunate battle of Sellasia, retired into Egypt to the court of Ptolemy Euergetes, where his wife and children had gone before him. Ptolemy received him with great cordiality; but his successor, weak and suspicious, soon expressed his jealousy of this noble stranger, and imprisoned him. Cleomenes killed himself, and his body was flayed and exposed on a cross, 140 Olymp.

CLEON, the name of several noted men of antiquity. 1. Of an Athenian, who, though originally a tanner, became general of the armies of the state by his intrigues and eloquence. He took Thoron in Thrace, and was killed at Amphipolis in a battle with Brasidas the Spartan general, Olymp. 89th. 2. A general of Messenia, who disputed with Aristodemus for the sovereignty. 3. A statuary. 4. A poet, who wrote a poem on the Argonauts. 5. An orator of Halicarnassus who composed an oration for Lysander, in which he intimated the propriety of making the kingdom of Sparta elective. 6. A Magnesian who wrote some commentaries, in which he speaks of portentous events, &c.

CLEONÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Argolis, above Mycenæ, on the road which leads from Argos to Corinth; standing on an eminence, on every side occupied by houses. In the forest near this town was slain by Hercules the huge lion (Sil. Italicus, Seneca). *Cleonæus* the epithet. *Cleonæum Sidus*, the lion.——Another *Cleonæ* on Mount Athos in Chalcidice.

CLEOPATRA, the celebrated queen of Egypt, was daughter of Ptolemy Auletes. By her extraordinary beauty, she subdued the two renowned Roman generals Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony; the latter of whom, it is thought, lost the empire of Rome by his attachment

attachment to her. At length Mark Antony being subdued by Octavius Cæsar, she tried the force of her declining charms upon the conqueror, but in vain; upon which, expecting no mercy from him, she poisoned herself, 30 years before Christ. According to some authors, she was the restorer of the Alexandrian library, to which she added that of Pergamos; and it is said, that she studied philosophy to console her for the absence of Antony. With her death ended the family of the Ptolemies in Egypt, after it had reigned from the death of Alexander 294 years: for Egypt, after this, was reduced to a Roman province, in which dependence it remained till it was taken from them by the Saracens, A. D. 641.

CLEOPATRIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Egypt, on the Arabian gulf. See ARSINOE. Now said to be *Suez*, situated at the bottom of the gulf of the Red sea. E. Long. 34. 30. N. Lat. 30. 0.

CLEOSTRATUS, a celebrated astronomer, born in Tenedos, was, according to Pliny, the first who discovered the signs of the zodiac; others say, that he only discovered the signs Aries and Sagittarius. He also corrected the errors of the Grecian year about the 306th year before Christ.

CLEPSYDRA, an instrument or machine serving to measure time by the fall of a certain quantity of water.

The word comes from κλεπτω, *condo*, and ὑδωρ, *aqua*, "water;" though there have likewise been clepsydræ made with mercury.

The Egyptians, by this machine, measured the course of the sun. Tycho Brahe, in our days, made use of it to measure the motion of the stars, &c. and Dudley used the same contrivance in making all his maritime observations. The use of clepsydræ is very ancient; they were invented in Egypt under the Ptolemies, as were also sun-dials. Their use was chiefly in the winter; the sun-dials served in the summer. They had two great defects; the one, that the water ran out with a greater or less facility, as the air was more or less dense; the other, that the water ran more readily at the beginning than towards the conclusion. M. Amontons has invented a clepsydra free from both these inconveniences; and which has these three grand advantages, of serving the ordinary purpose of clocks, of serving in navigation for the discovery of the longitude, and of measuring the motion of the arteries.

Construction of a CLEPSYDRA. To divide any cylindric vessel into parts to be emptied in each division of time; the time wherein the whole, and that wherein any part, is to be evacuated, being given.

Suppose, for example, a cylindric vessel, whose charge of water throws out in 12 hours, were required to be divided into parts to be evacuated each hour. 1. As the part of time 1 is to the whole time 12; so is the same time 12 to a fourth proportional, 144. 2. Divide the altitude of the vessel into 144 equal parts: here the last will fall to the last hour; the three next above to the last part but one; the five next to the tenth hour, &c.; lastly, the 23 last to the first hour. For since the times increase in the series of the natural numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. and the altitudes, if the numeration be in retrograde order from the twelfth hour, increase in the series of the unequal numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, &c. the altitude, computed from the twelfth hour, will be as the squares of the times, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, &c. therefore the square of the whole time 144 comprehends all the parts of the altitude of the vessel to be evacuated. But a third proportional to 1 and 12 is the square of 12, and consequently it is the number of equal parts into which the altitude is to be divided, to be distributed according to the series of the unequal numbers, through the equal intervals of hours. Since in lieu of parts of the same vessel, other less vessels equal thereto may be substituted, the altitude of a vessel emptied in a given space of time being given, the altitude of another vessel to be emptied in a given time may be found; viz. by making the altitudes as the squares of the time. For a further description, see HYDRODYNAMICS *Index*.

CLERC, JOHN LE, a most celebrated writer and universal scholar, born at Geneva in 1657. After he had passed through the usual course of study at Geneva, and had lost his father in 1676, he went to France in 1678; but returning the year after, he was ordained with the general applause of all his examiners. In 1682, Le Clerc visited England with a view to learning the language. He preached several times in the French churches in London, and visited several bishops and men of learning; but the smoky air of the town not agreeing with his lungs, he returned to Holland within the year, where he at length settled. He preached before a synod held at Rotterdam by the remonstrants in 1684; and was admitted professor of philosophy, polite literature, and the Hebrew tongue, in their school at Amsterdam. The remainder of his life affords nothing but the history of his works, and of the controversies he was engaged in; but these would lead into too extensive a detail. He continued to read regular lectures; and because there was no single author full enough for his purpose, he drew up and published his Logic, Ontology, Pneumatology, and Natural Philosophy. He published *Ars Critica*; a Commentary on the Old Testament; a Compendium of Universal History; an Ecclesiastical History of the two first Centuries; a French Translation of the New Testament, &c. In 1686, he began, jointly with M. de Crose, his *Bibliotheque Universelle et Historique*, in imitation of other literary journals; which was continued to the year 1693 inclusive, in 26 vols. In 1703, he began his *Bibliotheque Choisie*, and continued it to 1714, and then commenced another work on the same plan, called *Bibliotheque Ancienne et Moderne*, which he continued to the year 1728; all of them justly deemed excellent stores of useful knowledge. In 1728 he was seized with a palsy and fever; and after spending the last six years of his life with little or no understanding, died in 1736.

CLERC, *John le*, called *Chevalier*, an eminent historical painter, was born at Nanci in 1587, but studied in Italy, where he resided for 20 years; and was a disciple of Carlo Venetiano, with whom he worked a long time, and whose style he so effectually studied and imitated, that several of the pictures which were finished by Le Clerc were taken for the work of Venetiano. He was most highly esteemed at Venice for his extraordinary merit; and as a token of public respect, he was made a knight of St Mark. His freedom of hand was remarkable; he had a light pencil; and

and in his colouring he resembled his master. He died in 1633.

CLERC, *Sebastian le*, engraver, and designer in ordinary to the French king, was born at Metz in 1637. After having learnt designing, he applied himself to mathematics, and was engineer to the marshal de la Ferté. He went to Paris in 1665, where he applied himself to designing and engraving with such success, that M. Colbert gave him a pension of 600 crowns. In 1672 he was admitted into the royal academy of painting and sculpture; and in 1680 was made professor of geometry and perspective in the same academy. He published, besides a great number of designs and prints, 1. A Treatise on theoretical and practical Geometry. 2. A Treatise on Architecture; and other works: and died in 1714.—He was an excellent artist, but chiefly in the petit style. His genius seldom exceeds the dimensions of six inches. Within those limits he could draw up 20,000 men with great dexterity. No artist except Callot and Della Bella could touch a small figure with so much spirit. His most esteemed prints are: 1. The *passion of our Saviour*, on 36 small plates, lengthwise, from his own compositions. The best impressions are without the borders. 2. The *miracle of the feeding five thousand*, a middling sized plate, lengthwise. In the first impressions, which are very rare, a town appears in the back-ground; in place of which a mountain is substituted in the common ones. 3. The *elevation of the large stones used in building the front of the Louvre*, a large plate, lengthwise. The first impressions are without the date 1677, which was afterwards added. 4. The *academy of the sciences*, a middling-sized plate, lengthwise. The first impressions are before the skeleton of the stag and tortoise were added. The second impressions are before the shadow was enlarged at the bottom, towards the right-hand side of the print. Both these impressions are very scarce. The first is rarely met with. This print was copied for Chambers's Dictionary. 5. The *May of the Gobelins*, a middle-sized plate, lengthwise. The first impression is before the woman was introduced, who covers the wheel of the coach. 6. The *four conquests*, large plates, lengthwise, representing the taking of Tournay, the taking of Douay, the defeat of the comptc de Marsin, and the Switzerland alliance. 7. The *battles of Alexander*, from Le Brun, six small long plates, including the title, which represents the picture gallery at the Gobelins. The first impressions of the tent of Darius, which plate makes part of this set, is distinguished by the shoulder of the woman, who is seated in the front, being without the shadow, which was afterwards added; for which reason they are called the *prints with the naked shoulder*. 8. The *entry of Alexander into Babylon*, a middle-sized plate, lengthwise. In the first impressions, the face of Alexander is seen in profile; in the second, it is a three-quarter face, and therefore called *the print with the head turned*.

CLERC, *George le*. See BUFFON.

CLERGY, a general name given to the body of ecclesiastics of the Christian church, in contradistinction to the laity. See LAITY.

The distinction of Christians into clergy and laity was derived from the Jewish church, and adopted into the Christian by the apostles themselves: whenever any number of converts was made, as soon as they were capable of being formed into a congregation or church, a bishop or presbyter, with a deacon, were ordained to minister to them. Of the bishops, priests, and deacons, the clergy originally consisted; but in the third century, many inferior orders were appointed, as subservient to the office of deacon, such as ACOLUTHISTS, READERS, &c.

This venerable body of men being separated and set apart from the rest of the people, in order to attend the more closely to the service of Almighty God, have therefore large privileges allowed them by our municipal laws; and had formerly much greater, which were abridged at the time of the reformation, on account of the ill use which the Popish clergy had endeavoured to make of them. For, the laws having exempted them from almost every personal duty, they attempted a total exemption from every secular tie. But it is observed by Sir Edward Cooke, that as the overflowing of waters doth many times make the river to lose its proper channel, so, in times past, ecclesiastical persons seeking to extend their liberties beyond their due bounds, either lost, or enjoyed not, those which of right belonged to them. The personal exemptions do indeed for the most part continue: a clergyman cannot be compelled to serve on a jury, nor to appear at a court-leet, or view of frank-pledge, which almost every other person is obliged to do; but if a layman is summoned on a jury, and before the trial takes orders, he shall notwithstanding appear and be sworn. Neither can he be chosen to any temporal office, as bailiff, reeve, constable, or the like; in regard of his own continual attendance on the sacred function. During his attendance on divine service, he is privileged from arrests in civil suits. In cases also of felony, a clerk in orders shall have the benefit of his clergy, without being branded in the hand; and may likewise have it more than once; in both which particulars he is distinguished from a layman. But, as they have their privileges, so also they have their disabilities, on account of their spiritual avocations. Clergymen are incapable of sitting in the house of commons; and by statute 21 Hen. VIII. c. 13. are not in general allowed to take any lands or tenements to farm, upon pain of 10l. per month, and total avoidance of the lease; nor, upon like pain, to keep any tap-house or brew-house; nor engage in any manner of trade, nor sell any merchandise, under forfeiture of treble value. Which prohibition is consonant to the canon law.

Blackst. Comment.

Benefit of CLERGY, is an ancient privilege whereby one in orders claimed to be delivered to his ordinary to purge himself of felony.

After trial and conviction * of a criminal, the judgment of the court regularly follows, unless suspended or arrested by some intervening circumstances, of which the principal is *benefit of clergy*; a title of no small curiosity as well as use; and concerning which, therefore, it may not be improper to enquire, 1. Into its original, and the various mutations which this privilege of the clergy has sustained. 2. To what persons it is to be allowed at this day. 3. In what cases. 4. The consequences of allowing it.

* See the articles *Arraignment*, *Plea*, *Trial* and *Conviction*.

I. Clergy, the *privilegium clericale*, or (in common speech, the benefit of clergy) had its original from the pious

Blackst. Comment.

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pious regard paid by Chriſtian princes to the church in its infant ſtate, and the ill uſe which the popiſh eccleſiaſtics ſoon made of that pious regard. The exemptions which they granted to the church were principally of two kinds: 1. Exemptions of places conſecrated to religious duties from criminal arreſts; which was the foundation of ſanctuaries. 2. Exemption of the perſons of clergymen from criminal proceſs before the ſecular judge in a few particular caſes; which was the true original and meaning of the *privilegium clericale*.

But the clergy increaſing in wealth, power, honour, number, and intereſt, ſoon began to ſet up for themſelves; and that which they obtained by the favour of the civil government, they now claimed as their inherent right, and as a right of the higheſt nature, indefeaſible, and *jure divino*. By their canons, therefore, and conſtitutions, they endeavoured at, and where they met with eaſy princes, obtained, a vaſt extenſion of thoſe exemptions; as well in regard to the crimes themſelves, of which the liſt became quite univerſal, as in regard to the perſons exempted; among whom were at length comprehended, not only every little ſubordinate officer belonging to the church or clergy, but even many that were totally laymen.

In England, however, although the uſurpations of the pope were very many and grievous, till Henry VIII. totally exterminated his ſupremacy, yet a total exemption of the clergy from ſecular juriſdiction could never be thoroughly effected, though often endeavoured by the clergy; and therefore, though the ancient *privilegium clericale* was in ſome capital caſes, yet it was not univerſally allowed. And in thoſe particular caſes, the uſe was for the biſhop or ordinary to demand his clerks to be remitted out of the king's courts as ſoon as they were indicted; concerning the allowance of which demand there was for many years a great uncertainty; till at length it was finally ſettled in the reign of Henry VI. that the priſoner ſhould firſt be arraigned; and might either then claim his benefit of clergy by way of declinatory plea; or, after conviction, by way of arreſt of judgment. This latter way is moſt uſually practiſed, as it is more to the ſatisfaction of the court to have the crime previouſly aſcertained by confeſſion or the verdict of a jury; and alſo it is more advantageous to the priſoner himſelf, who may poſſibly be acquitted, and ſo need not the benefit of his clergy at all.

Originally the law was held that no man ſhould be admitted to the benefit of clergy, but ſuch as had the *habitum et tonſuram clericalem*. But, in proceſs of time, a much wider and more comprehenſive criterion was eſtabliſhed; every one that could read (a great mark of learning in thoſe days of ignorance and her ſiſter ſuperſtition) being accounted a clerk, or *clericus*, and allowed the benefit of clerkſhip, though neither initiated in clerkſhip, nor trimmed with the holy tonſure. But when learning, by means of the invention of printing, and other concurrent cauſes, began to be more generally diſſeminated than formerly, and reading was no longer a competent proof of clerkſhip, or being in holy orders; it was found that as many laymen as divines were admitted to the *privilegium clericale*; and therefore by ſtatute 4 Henry VII. c. 13. a diſtinction was once more drawn between mere lay ſcholars and clerks that were really in orders. And, though it was thought reaſonable ſtill to mitigate the ſeverity of the law with regard to the former, yet they were not put upon the ſame footing with actual clergy; being ſubjected to a ſlight degree of puniſhment, and not allowed to claim the clerical privilege more than once. Accordingly the ſtatute directs, that no perſon, once admitted to the benefit of clergy, ſhall be admitted thereto a ſecond time, until he produces his orders; and in order to diſtinguiſh their perſon, all laymen who are allowed this privilege, ſhall be burned with a hot iron in the brawn of the left thumb. This diſtinction between learned laymen and real clerks in orders, was aboliſhed for a time by the ſtatutes 28 Hen. VIII. c. 1. and 32 Hen. VIII. c. 3.; but is held to have been virtually reſtored by ſtatute 1 Edw. VI. c. 12. which ſtatute alſo enacts, that lords of parliament and peers of the realm may have the benefit of their peerage, equivalent to that of clergy, for the firſt offence (although they cannot read, and without being burnt in the hand), for all offences then clergyable to commoners, and alſo for the crimes of houſebreaking, highway robbery, horſe-ſtealing, and robbing of churches.

After this burning, the laity, and before it the real clergy, were diſcharged from the ſentence of the law in the king's courts, and delivered over to the ordinary, to be dealt with according to the eccleſiaſtical canons. Whereupon the ordinary, not ſatisfied with the proofs adduced in the profane ſecular court, ſet himſelf formally to make a purgation of the offender by a new canonical trial; although he had been previouſly convicted by his country, or perhaps by his own confeſſion. This trial was held before the biſhop in perſon, or his deputy; and by a jury of twelve clerks: And there, firſt, the party himſelf was required to make oath of his own innocence; next, there was to be the oath of twelve compurgators, who ſwore they believed he ſpoke the truth; then, witneſſes were to be examined upon oath, but on behalf of the priſoner only; and, laſtly, the jury were to bring in their verdict upon oath, which uſually acquitted the priſoner; otherwiſe, if a clerk, he was degraded or put to penance. A learned judge, in the beginning of laſt century, remarks with much indignation the vaſt complication of perjury and ſubornation of perjury, in this ſolemn farce of a mock trial; the witneſſes, the compurgators, and the jury, being all of them partakers in the guilt: the delinquent party alſo, though convicted in the cleareſt manner, and conſcious of his own offence, yet was permitted, and almoſt compelled to ſwear himſelf not guilty; nor was the good biſhop himſelf, under whoſe countenance this ſcene was tranſacted, by any means exempt from a ſhare of it. And yet, by this purgation, the party was reſtored to his credit, his liberty, his lands, and his capacity of purchaſing afreſh, and was entirely made a new and an innocent man.

This ſcandalous proſtitution of oaths, and the forms of juſtice, in the almoſt conſtant acquittal of felonious clerks by purgation, was the occaſion that, upon very heinous and notorious circumſtances of guilt, temporal courts would not truſt the ordinary with the trial of the offender, but delivered over to him the convicted

Clergy. convicted clerk, *absque purgatione faciendo;* in which situation the clerk convict could not make purgation; but was to continue in prison during life, and was incapable of acquiring any personal property, or receiving the profits of his lands, unless the king should please to pardon him. Both these courses were in some degree exceptionable; the latter perhaps being too rigid, as the former was productive of the most abandoned perjury. As therefore these mock trials took their rise from factious and popish tenets, tending to exempt one part of the nation from the general municipal law, it became high time, when the reformation was thoroughly established, to abolish so vain and impious a ceremony.

Accordingly the statute 18 Eliz. c. 7. enacts, that, for the avoiding such perjuries and abuses, after the offender has been allowed his clergy, he shall not be delivered to the ordinary as formerly; but, upon such allowance, and burning of the hand, he shall forthwith be enlarged and delivered out of prison, with proviso, that the judge may, if he thinks fit, continue the offender in gaol for any time not exceeding a year. And thus the law continued unaltered for above a century; except only, that the statute 21 Jac. I. c. 6. allowed, that women convicted of simple larcenies under the value of 10s. should (not properly have the benefit of clergy, for they were not called upon to read; but) be burned in the hand, whipped, or stocked, or imprisoned for any time not exceeding a year. And a similar indulgence by the statutes 3 and 4 Will. and Mary, c. 9. and 4 and 5 Will. and Mary, c. 24. was extended to women guilty of any clergyable felony whatever; who were allowed once to claim the benefit of the statute, in like manner as men might claim the benefit of clergy, and to be discharged upon being burned in the hand, and imprisoned for any time not exceeding a year. All women, all peers, and all male commoners who could read, were therefore discharged in such felonies absolutely, if clerks in orders; and for the first offence upon burning in the hand, if lay; yet all liable (except peers), if the judge saw occasion, to imprisonment not exceeding a year. And these men who could not read, if under the degree of peerage, were hanged.

Afterwards, indeed, it was considered, that education and learning were not extenuations of guilt, but quite the reverse; and that if the punishment of death for simple felony was too severe for those who had been liberally instructed, it was, *à fortiori*, too severe for the ignorant also. And thereupon, by statute 5 Anne, c. 6. it was enacted that the benefit of clergy should be granted to all those who were entitled to ask it, without requiring them to read by way of conditional merit. And experience having shown that so universal a lenity was frequently inconvenient, and an encouragement to commit the lower degrees of felony; and that though capital punishments were too rigorous for these inferior offences, yet no punishment at all (or next to none, as branding or whipping), was as much too gentle; it was enacted by the same statute 5 Anne, c. 6. that when any person is convicted of any theft or larceny, and burnt in the hand for the same, he shall, at the discretion of the judge, be committed to the house of correction or public work-house, to be there kept to hard labour for any time not less than six months, and not exceeding two years; with a power of inflicting a double confinement in case of the party's escape from the first. And it is also enacted by the statutes 4 Geo. I. c. 11. and 6 Geo. I. c. 23. that when any persons shall be convicted of any larceny, either grand or petit, or any felonious stealing or taking of money or goods and chattels, either from the person or the house of any other, or in any other manner, and who by the law shall be entitled to the benefit of clergy, and liable only to the penalties of burning in the hand, or whipping; the court in their discretion, instead of such burning in the hand, or whipping, may direct such offenders to be transported to America for seven years; and if they return, or are seen at large in this kingdom within that time, it shall be felony without benefit of clergy.

In this state does the benefit of clergy at present stand; very considerably different from its original institution; the wisdom of the English legislature having, in the course of a long and laborious process, extracted, by a noble alchemy, rich medicines out of poisonous ingredients; and converted, by gradual mutations, what was at first an unreasonable exemption of particular popish ecclesiastics, into a merciful mitigation of the general law with respect to capital punishments.

From the whole of this detail, we may collect, that however in times of ignorance and superstition, that monster in true policy may for a while subsist, of a body of men residing in a state, and yet independent of its laws; yet when learning and rational religion have a little enlightened men's minds, society can no longer endure an absurdity so gross, as must destroy its very fundamentals. For, by the original contract of government. the price of protection by the united force of individuals, is that of obedience to the united will of the community. This united will is declared in the laws of the land; and that united force is exerted in their due, and universal, execution.

II. We are next to inquire, to what persons the benefit of clergy is to be allowed at this day; and this must chiefly be collected from what has been observed in the preceding article. For, upon the whole, we may pronounce, that all clerks in orders are, without any branding, and of course without any transportation (for that is only substituted in lieu of the other), to be admitted to this privilege, and immediately discharged, or at most only confined for one year; and this as often as they offend. Again, all lords of parliament, and peers of the realm, by the statute 1 Edw. VI. c. 12. shall be discharged in all clergyable and other felonies provided for by the act without any burning in the hand, in the same manner as real clerks convict; but this is only for the first offence. Lastly, all the commons of the realm, not in orders, whether male or female, shall, for the first offence, be discharged of the punishment of felonies, within the benefit of clergy, upon being burnt in the hand, and suffering discretionary imprisonment; or, in case of larceny, upon being transported for seven years, if the court shall think proper.

III. The third point to be considered is, for what crimes the *privilegium clericale*, or benefit of clergy, is to be allowed. And it is to be observed, that neither

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ther in high treason, nor in petit larceny, nor in any mere misdemeanors, it was indulged at the common law; and therefore we may lay it down as a rule, that it was allowable only in petit treason and capital felonies; which for the most part became legally entitled to this indulgence by the statute *de clero*, 25 Edw. III. stat. 3. c. 4. which provides, that clerks convict for treason or felonies, touching other persons than the king himself or his royal majesty, shall have the privilege of holy church. But yet it was not allowed in all cases whatsoever; for in some it was denied even in common law, viz. *insidatio viarum*, or lying in wait for one on the highway; *depopulatio agrorum*, or destroying and ravaging a country; *combustio domorum*, or arson, that is, burning of houses; all which are a kind of hostile acts, and in some degree border upon treason. And farther, all these identical crimes, together with petit treason, and very many other acts of felony, are ousted of clergy by particular acts of parliament.

Upon the whole, we may observe the following rules. 1. That in all felonies, whether new created, or by common law, clergy is now allowable, unless taken away by act of parliament. 2. That where clergy is taken away from the principal, it is not of course taken away from the accessory, unless he be also particularly included in the words of the statute. 3. That when the benefit of clergy is taken away from the offence (as in case of murder, buggery, robbery, rape, and burglary), a principal in the second degree, being present, aiding and abetting the crime, is as well excluded from his clergy as he that is a principal in the first degree: but, 4. That where it is only taken away from the person committing the offence (as in the case of stabbing, or committing larceny in a dwelling-house), his aiders and abettors are not excluded, through the tenderness of the law, which hath determined that such statutes shall not be taken literally.

IV. Lastly, We are to inquire what the consequences are to the party, of allowing him this benefit of clergy. We speak not of the branding, imprisonment, or transportation; which are rather concomitant conditions, than consequences, of receiving this indulgence. The consequences are such as affect his present interest, and future credit and capacity; as having been once a felon, but now purged from that guilt by the privilege of clergy; which operates as a kind of statute pardon. And we may observe, 1. That, by his conviction, he forfeits all his goods to the king; which, being once vested in the crown, shall not afterwards be restored to the offender. 2. That, after conviction, and till he receives the judgment of the law by branding or the like, or else is pardoned by the king, he is, to all intents and purposes, a felon; and subject to all the disabilities and other incidents of a felon. 3. That, after burning or pardon, he is discharged for ever of that, and all other felonies before committed, within the benefit of clergy; but not of felonies from which such benefit is excluded; and this by statutes 8 Eliz. c. 4. and 18 Eliz. c. 7. 4. That by the burning, or pardon of it, he is restored to all capacities and credits, and the possession of his lands, as if he had never been convicted. 5. That what is said with regard to the advantages of commoners and laymen, subsequent to the burning in the hand, is equally applicable to all peers and clergymen, although never branded at all. For they have the same privileges, without any burning, to which others are entitled after it.

Clerk.

CLERK (*clericus*), a word formerly used to signify a learned man, or man of letters. The word comes from the Greek κληρος, used for *clergy*; but more properly signifying *lot* or *heritage*, in regard the lot and portion of clerks or ecclesiastics is to serve God. Accordingly *clerus* was at first used to signify those who had a particular attachment to the service of God. The origin of the expression is derived from the Old Testament, where the tribe of Levi is called the *lot*, *heritage*, κληρος; and God is reciprocally called *their portion*; by reason that tribe was consecrated to the service of God, and lived on the offerings made to God, without any other settled provision as the rest had. Thus, Pasquier observes, the officers of the counts (*comites*) were anciently created under the title of *clerks of accompts*; and secretaries of state were called *clerks of the secret*. So *clericus domini regis*, in the time of Edward I. was Englished, *the king's secretary*, or *clerk of his council*. The term was applied indifferently to all who made any profession of learning; or who knew how to manage the pen; though originally it was appropriated to ecclesiastics. As the nobility and gentry were usually brought up to the exercise of arms, there were none but the clergy left to cultivate the sciences: hence, as it was the clergy alone who had made any profession of letters, a very learned man came to be called a *great clerk*, and a stupid ignorant man a *bad clerk*.

CLERK is also applied to such as by their course of life exercise their pens in any court or office; of which there are various kinds: thus,

CLERK of the Bails, an officer in the court of king's bench, whose business is to file all bail-pieces taken in that court, where he always attends.

CLERK of the Check, an officer belonging to the king's court; so called, because he has the check and controulment of the yeomen that belong to the king, queen, or prince. He likewise, by himself or deputy, sets the watch in the court. There is also an officer in the navy of the same name, belonging to the king's yards.

CLERK of the Crown, an officer in the king's bench, who frames, reads, and records all indictments against offenders, there arraigned or indicted of any public crime. He is likewise termed *clerk of the crown-office*, in which capacity he exhibits information by order of the court for divers offences.

CLERK of the Crown, in chancery, an officer whose business it is constantly to attend the lord chancellor in person or by deputy; to write and prepare for the great seal special matters of state by commission, both ordinary and extraordinary, viz. commissions of lieutenancy, of justices of assize, oyer and terminer, gaol-delivery, and of the peace; all general pardons, granted either at the king's coronation, or in parliament; the writs of parliament, with the names of the knights, citizens, and burgesses, are also returned into his office. He also makes out special pardons and writs of execution on bonds of statute-staple forfeited.

CLERK of the Deliveries of the Ordnance. See ORDNANCE.

Clerk.

CLERK of the Errors, in the court of common pleas, an officer who transcribes and certifies into the king's bench the tenor of the record of the action on which the writ of error, made out by the cursitor, is brought there to be determined. In the king's bench, the clerk of the errors transcribes and certifies the records of causes, by bill, in that court, into the exchequer. And the business of the clerk of the errors in the exchequer, is to transcribe the records certified thither out of the king's bench, and to prepare them for judgment in the exchequer chamber.

CLERK of the Essoins, in the court of common pleas, keeps the essoin roll, or enters essoins: he also provides parchment, cuts it into rolls, marks the numbers on them, delivers out all the rolls to every officer, and receives them again when written. See ESSOIN.

CLERK of the Estreats, an officer in the exchequer, who every term receives the estreats out of the lord-treasurer's remembrancer's office, and writes them out to be levied for the crown.

CLERK of the Green Cloth, formerly an officer in chancery, but now abolished.

CLERK of the Hamper or *Hanaper*, an officer in chancery, whose business is to receive all money due to the king for the seals of charters, letters patent, commissions, and writs; also the fees due to the officers for enrolling and examining them.

CLERK-Comptroller of the King's Household, an officer of the king's court, authorised to allow or disallow the charges of pursuivants, messengers of the green-cloth, &c. to inspect and controul all defects of any of the inferior officers; and to sit in the counting-house with the lord-steward and other officers of the household for regulating such matters.

CLERK of the King's Silver, an officer of the common pleas, to whom every fine is brought, after it has passed the office of the *custos brevium*; and who enters the effect of writs of covenant, into a book kept for that purpose, according to which all the fines of that term are recorded in the rolls of the court.

CLERK of the Market, an officer of the king's house, to whom is given the charge of the king's measure and weights, the standards of those that ought to be used all over England.

CLERK of the Nichils or *Nihils*, an officer of the exchequer, who makes a roll of all such sums as are nichilled by the sheriffs upon their estreats of green wax, and delivers them into the remembrancer of the treasury, to have execution done upon them for the king. See NIHIL.

CLERK of the Ordnance. See ORDNANCE.

CLERK of the Outlawries, an officer of the common pleas, and deputy to the attorney-general, for making out all writs of *capias utlegatum* after outlawry, to which there must be the king's attorney's name.

CLERK of the Paper-office, an officer belonging to the king's bench, whose business is to make up the paper-books of special pleadings in that court.

CLERK of the Peace, an officer belonging to the sessions of the peace, whose business is to read indictments, inrol the proceedings, and draw the process: he likewise certifies into the king's bench transcripts of indictments, outlawries, attainders, and convictions had before the justices of peace, within the time limited by statute, under a certain penalty. This office is in the gift of the *custos rotulorum*, and may be executed by deputy.

CLERK of the Pells, an officer that belongs to the exchequer, whose business is to enter every teller's bill into a parchment roll called *pellis receptorum*; and to make another roll of payments called *pellis exituum*.

CLERK of the Petty Bag, an officer of the court of chancery, whereof there are three, the master of the rolls being the chief: their business is to record the return of all inquisitions out of every shire; to make out patents of customers, gaugers, comptrollers, &c.; liberates upon extent of statutes-staple; *conge d'elires* for bishops; summons of the nobility, clergy, and burgesses to parliament; and commissions directed to knights and others of every shire, for assessing subsidies and taxes.

CLERK of the Pipe, an officer of the exchequer, who having the account of all debts due to the king, delivered out of the remembrancer's office, charges them in a great roll folded up like a pipe. He writes out warrants to sheriffs, to levy the said debts on the goods and chattels of the debtors; and if they have no goods, then he draws them down to the treasurer's remembrancer to write estreats against their lands.

CLERK of the Pleas, an officer of the exchequer, in whose office all the officers of the court, having special privilege, ought to sue or to be sued in any action. In this office also actions at law may be prosecuted by other persons, but the plaintiff ought to be tenant or debtor to the king, or some way accountable to him. The under clerks are attorneys in all suits.

CLERKS of the Privy-seal, four officers that attend the lord privy seal, for writing and making out all things that are sent by warrant from the signet to the privy seal, and to be passed the great seal; and likewise to make out privy seals, upon special occasions of his majesty's affairs, as for loan of money or the like.

CLERK of the Rolls, an officer of the chancery, whose business is to make searches after, and copies of deeds, officers, &c.

CLERK of the Signet, an officer continually attending upon his majesty's principal secretary, who has the custody of the privy signet, as well for sealing the king's private letters as those grants which pass the king's hand by bill signed. There are four of these officers who have their diet at the secretary's table.

Six CLERKS, officers in chancery next in degree below the twelve masters, whose business is to inrol commissions, pardons, patents, warrants, &c. which pass the great seal. They were anciently *clerici*, and forfeited their places if they married. These are also attorneys for parties in suits depending in the court of chancery.

CLERK of the Treasury, an officer belonging to the court of common pleas, who has the charge of keeping the records of the court, makes out all records of *nisi prius*, and likewise all exemplifications of records being in the treasury. He has the fees due for all searches; and has under him an under keeper, who always keeps one key of the treasury-door.

CLERK of the Warrants, an officer of the common pleas, whose business is to enter all warrants of attorney for plaintiffs and defendants in suit; and to inrol deeds of bargain and sale, that are acknowledged in court, or before a judge. His office is likewise to estreat

Clerk || Clermont Manuſcript.

eſtreat into the exchequer all iſſues, fines, eſtreats, and amercements, which grow due to the crown in that court.

CLERKE, Captain Charles, a celebrated Engliſh navigator, was bred up in the navy from his youth, and was preſent in ſeveral actions during the war of 1755. In the engagement between the Bellona and Courageux he was in great danger; for having been ſtationed in the mizen-top on board the former, the maſt was carried overboard, by a ſhot, and he fell into the ſea along with it; but, however, was taken up without having received any injury. When Commodore Byron made his firſt voyage round the world, Mr Clerke ſerved on board his ſhip in quality of a midſhipman; and was afterwards on the American ſtation. In the year 1768, he ſailed round the world a ſecond time in the Endeavour, on board of which he ſerved in the ſtation of maſter's mate; but, during the voyage, ſucceeded to a lieutenancy. He returned in 1775, and was ſoon after appointed maſter and commander. When Captain Cook undertook his laſt voyage, Mr Clerke was appointed captain of the Diſcovery; and in conſequence of the death of Captain Cook, naturally ſucceeded to the ſupreme command. He did not, however, long enjoy his new dignity. Before his departure from England, he had manifeſt ſymptoms of a conſumption. Of this diſeaſe he lingered during the whole of the voyage; and his long reſidence in the cold northern climates cut off all hopes of recovery; but though ſenſible that the only chance he had of prolonging his life was by a ſpeedy return to a warmer climate, his attention to his duty was ſo great, that he perſevered in ſearch of a paſſage between the Aſiatic and American continents until every one of the officers was of opinion that it was impracticable. He bore his diſtemper with great firmneſs and equanimity, retaining a good flow of ſpirits to the laſt; and died on the 22d of Auguſt 1778, in the 38th year of his age, the ſhip then being within view of the coaſt of Kamtſchatka.

Clerke's Iſland lies on the weſtern ſide of the American continent, in N. Lat. 63. 15. and E. Long. 169. 30. It was diſcovered by Captain Cook in his laſt voyage, but a landing could not be effected. At a diſtance it appeared to be of conſiderable extent, and to have ſeveral hills connected with the low grounds in ſuch a manner as to make it look like a group of iſlands. Near its eaſtern extremity is a little iſland remarkable for having three elevated rocks upon it. Both the large and ſmall iſland are uninhabited.

CLERMONT, a conſiderable, rich, and populous town of France, in Auvergne, with a biſhop's ſee. The cathedral, the public ſquares, and the walks, are very fine. Here is a bridge naturally formed, as they pretend, by the petrifying quality of a fountain. E. Long. 3. 10. N. Lat. 45. 47.

Clermont Manuſcript, is a copy of St Paul's Epiſtles, found in the monaſtery of Clermont in France, and uſed by Beza, together with the Cambridge MS. in preparing his edition of the New Teſtament. This copy is in the octavo form, and is written on fine vellum in Greek and Latin, with ſome mutilations. Beza ſuppoſes that it is of equal antiquity with the Cambridge copy; but both were probably written by a Latin ſcribe in a later period than he aſſigns to them. The various readings of this MS. were communicated to Archbiſhop Uſher, and they are preſerved by Walton. The MS. itſelf was in the poſſeſſion of Morinus; and after his death depoſited among the MS. copies of the royal library at Paris, N° 2245.

Clermont Manuſcript || Cleves.

CLEROMANCY, a kind of divination performed by the throwing of dice, or little bones; and obſerving the points, or marks, turned up. The word comes from κληρος, "lot," and μαντεια "divination." At Bura, a city of Achaia, was a temple and celebrated oracle of Hercules, where ſuch as conſulted the oracle, after praying to the idol, threw four dice, the points whereof being well ſcanned by the prieſt, he was ſuppoſed to draw an anſwer from them.

Something of this kind ſeems to have been practiſed with regard to Jonah.

CLERVAL, a town of France, in the Franche Comté, ſeated on the river Doux, belonging to the houſe of Wirtemburgh, but depends on the crown of France. E. Long. 5. 57. N. Lat. 46. 35.

CLERVAUX, one of the moſt celebrated and fineſt abbeys of France, in Champagne, five miles from Barſur-Aube, and ſeated in a valley ſurrounded with woods and mountains. It is the chief of the Ciſtercian order. Here is the famous Tun of St Bernard, which will hold 800 tuns of wine. Near this abbey is a ſmall town.

CLESIDES, a Greek painter, about 276 years before Chriſt, in the reign of Antiochus I. He revenged the injuries he had received from Queen Stratonice, by repreſenting her in the arms of a fiſherman. However indecent the painter might repreſent the queen, ſhe was drawn with ſuch perſonal beauty, that ſhe preſerved the piece and liberally rewarded the artiſt.

CLETHRA. See Botany *Index*.

CLEVELAND, a diſtrict in the north riding of Yorkſhire in England, from whence the noble family of Fitzroy took the title of duke, but which is now extinct.

Cleveland, *John*, an Engliſh poet of ſome eminence in his time, who during the civil war under Charles I. engaged as a literary champion in the royal cauſe againſt the parliamentarians. He died in 1658, and was much extolled by his party. His works, which conſiſt of poems, characters, orations, epiſtles, &c. were printed in octavo in 1677.

CLEVES, the duchy of, a province of the circle of Weſtphalia, in Germany. It is divided into two parts by the Rhine, and is about 40 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 20 in breadth from north to ſouth. It is a fine agreeable country, and pretty populous. The towns are Cleves, the capital, Calcar, Gennet, Santen, Orſoy, Bureck, and Greit. Theſe lie on the left ſide of the river. On the right, Dayſburgh, Weſe, Rees, and Emmerick. There have been great conteſts about this duchy, but it now belongs to the king of Pruſſia.

Cleves, a city of Germany, in the duchy of Cleves, of which it is the capital. It ſtands upon a pleaſant hill, about a mile from the Rhine, with which it communicates, by means of a canal which is large enough for great barges. The caſtle ſtands upon a mountain, and, though old, is very agreeable. It was built in the time of Julius Cæſar. It was taken by the French

French in 1794. Calvinists, Lutherans, and Roman Catholics, are all tolerated in this city. E. Long. 5. 50. N. Lat. 51. 45.

CLIENT, among the Romans, a citizen who put himself under the protection of some great man, who in respect of that relation was called *patron*.

This patron assisted his client with his protection, interest, and goods; and the client gave his vote for his patron, when he sought any office for himself or his friends. Clients owed respect to their patrons, as these owed them their protection.

The right of patronage was appointed by Romulus, to unite the rich and poor together, in such a manner as that one might live without contempt and the other without envy; but the condition of a client, in course of time, became little else than a moderate slavery.

CLIENT is now used for a party in a law-suit, who has turned over his cause into the hands of a counsellor or solicitor.

CLIFFORTIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLIMACTERIC, among physicians, (from *climacter*, "a ladder"), a critical year in a person's life.

According to some, this is every seventh year; but others allow only these years produced by multiplying 7 by the odd number 3, 5, 7, and 9, to be climacterical. These years, they say, bring with them some remarkable change with respect to health, life, or fortune: the grand climacteric is the 63d year; but some, making two, add to this the 81st: the other remarkable climacterics are the 7th, 21st, 35th, 49th, and 56th.

CLIMATE, or CLIME, in *Geography*, a part of the surface of the earth, bounded by two circles parallel to the equator, and of such a breadth, as that the longest day in the parallel nearest the pole exceeds the longest day in that next the equator by some certain spaces, viz. half an hour. The word comes from the Greek κλιμα, *inclinamentum*, "an inclination."

The *beginning* of the climate is a parallel circle wherein the day is the shortest. The *end* of the climate, is that wherein the day is the longest. The climates therefore are reckoned from the equator to the pole; and are so many bands, or zones, terminated by lines parallel to the equator; though, in strictness, there are several climates in the breadth of one zone. Each climate only differs from its contiguous ones, in that the longest day in summer is longer or shorter by half an hour in the one place than in the other. As the climates commence from the equator, the first climate at its beginning has its longest day precisely 12 hours long; at its end, 12 hours and a half: the second, which begins where the first ends, viz. at twelve hours and a half, ends at 13 hours; and so of the rest, as far as the polar circles, where, what the geographers call *hour-climates*, terminate, and *month-climates* commence. An hour climate is a space comprised between two parallels of the equator, in the first of which the longest day exceeds that in the latter by half an hour; so the month-climate is a space terminated between two circles parallel to the polar circles, whose longest day is longer or shorter than that of its contiguous one by a month or 30 days.

The ancients who confined the climates to what they imagined the habitable parts of the earth, only allowed of seven. The first they made to pass through Meroë, the second through Sienna, the third through Alexandria, the fourth through Rhodes, the fifth through Rome, the sixth through Pontus, and the seventh through the mouth of the Borysthenes. The moderns, who have sailed further toward the poles, make 30 climates on each side; and, in regard the obliquity of the sphere makes a little difference in the length of the longest day, instead of half an hour, some of them only make the difference of climates a quarter.

Vulgarly the term *climate* is bestowed on any country or region differing from another either in respect of the seasons, the quality of the soil, or even the manners of the inhabitants; without any regard to the length of the longest day. Abulfeda, an Arabian author, distinguishes the first kind of climates by the term *real climates*, and the latter by that of *apparent climates*. Varenius gives us a table of 30 climates; but without any regard to the refraction. Ricciolus furnishes a more accurate one, wherein the refractions are allowed for; an abstract of which follows:

Middle of *Clim.*	Longest Day.		Latit.		Middle of *Clim.*	Longest Day.		Latit.		Middle of *Clim.*	Latit.		Cont. Light.	North Night.	Cont. Light.	South Night.
I	12th	30	7°	18	VIII	16th	0	48	15	XV	66	53	31d	27d	30d	28d
II	13	0	15	36	IX	17	0	53	46	XVI	69	30	62	58	60	59
III	13	30	23	8	X	18	0	57	44	XVII	73	0	93	87	89	88
IV	14	0	29	49	XI	19	0	60	39	XVIII	78	6	124	117	120	118
V	14	30	35	35	XII	20	0	62	44	XIX	84	0	156	148	150	149
VI	15	0	40	32	XIII	22	0	65	10	XX	90	0	188	180	178	177
VII	15	30	44	42	XIV	24	0	65	54							

CLIMAX, or GRADATION, in *Rhetoric*, a figure wherein the word or expression which ends the first member of a period begins the second, and so on; so that every member will make a distinct sentence, taking its rise from the next foregoing, till the argument and period be beautifully finished; as in the following gradation of Dr Tillotson. "After we have practised good actions a while, they become easy; and when they are easy, we begin to take pleasure in them; and when they please us we do them frequently; and by frequency of acts, a thing grows into a habit; and confirmed habit is a kind of second nature: and so far as any

any thing is natural, ſo far it is neceſſary; and we can hardly do otherwiſe; nay, we do it many times when we do not think of it."

CLINCH, in the ſea language, that part of a cable which is bended about the ring of the anchor, and then ſeized or made faſt.

CLINCHING, in the ſea language, a kind of ſlight caulking uſed at ſea, in a proſpect of foul weather, about the poſts: it conſiſts in driving a little oakum into their ſeams, to prevent the water coming in at them.

CLINIC, a term applied by the ancient church-hiſtorians to thoſe who receive baptiſm on their death-bed.

CLINIC Medicine, was particularly uſed for the method of viſiting and treating ſick perſons in bed, for the more exact diſcovery of all the ſymptoms of their diſeaſe.

CLINIAS, a Pythagorean philoſopher, and muſician, in the 65th Olympiad. He was wont to aſſuage his paſſion, being very choleric, by his lyre.

CLINOPODIUM, FIELD BASIL. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLIO, in Pagan mythology, the firſt of the muſes, daughter of Jupiter and Mnemoſyne. She preſided over hiſtory. She is repreſented crowned with laurels, holding in one hand a trumpet, and a book in the other. Sometimes ſhe holds a plectrum or quill with a lute. Her name ſignifies honour and reputation, κλεος, *gloria;* and it was her office faithfully to record the actions of brave and illuſtrious heroes. She had Hyacintha by Pierius, ſon of Magnes.

CLIO, in *Zoology*, a genus of inſects belonging to the order of vermes molluſca. The body is oblong and fitted for ſwimming; and it has two membranaceous wings placed oppoſite to each other. The ſpecies are three, principally diſtinguiſhed by the ſhape of their vagina, and are all natives of the ocean.

CLIPEUS, an old term in *Natural Hiſtory*, which is given to the flat depreſſed centroniæ, from their reſembling a ſhield.

CLISTHENES, a famous Athenian magiſtrate, the author of the mode of baniſhing ambitious citizens by oſtraciſm, or writing their names upon a ſhell; the intention was patriotic, but it was abuſed like all other human inſtitutions: ſome of the worthieſt citizens of Athens being thus exiled. He died 510 years before Chriſt.

CLITOMACHUS, the philoſopher, flouriſhed about 140 years before Chriſt. He was born at Carthage; quitted his country at 40 years of age; and went to Athens, where he became the diſciple and ſucceſſor of Carneades. He compoſed many books, but they are all loſt.

CLITORIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLITORIS, in *Anatomy*, is a part of the external pudenda, ſituated at the angle which the nymphæ form with each other. Like the penis it has an erection, and is thought to be the principal ſeat of venereal pleaſure. The clitoris is of different ſizes in different women; but in general it is ſmall, and covered with the labia. The preternaturally enlarged clitoris is what conſtitutes a hermaphrodite. When the clitoris is too large, it may be ſo extirpated as to remove the unneceſſary part; but this requires much care, for a farther extirpation ſubjects the patient to an involuntary diſcharge of urine.

CLITUMNUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Umbria, on this ſide the Apennines. According to Pliny, it was a fountain conſiſting of ſeveral veins, ſituated between Hiſpellum and Spoletium; which ſoon after ſwelled into a very large and navigable river, running from eaſt to weſt into the Tinia, and both together into the Tiber. A river famous for its milk-white flocks and herds, (Virgil). The god of the river was called *Clitumnus*.

CLITUS, brother to Alexander the Great's nurſe, followed that prince in his conqueſts, and ſaved his life by cutting off the hand of Roſaces, who held an axe lifted up to kill him at the paſſage of the Granicus. Alexander, who had a great regard for him, ſome time after invited him to ſupper; when Clitus, at the end of the repaſt, being heated with wine, diminiſhed the exploits of that prince, in order to magnify thoſe of Philip his father. This ſo enraged Alexander, that he killed him with his own hand; but he was afterwards ſo afflicted at it, that he attempted his own life.

CLIVE, ROBERT, Lord, ſon of Richard Clive, Eſq. of Styche near Drayton in Salop, was born in 1725. Toward the cloſe of the war in 1741, he was ſent as a writer in the Eaſt India ſervice to Madras; but being fonder of the camp than the compting-houſe, he ſoon availed himſelf of an opportunity to exchange his pen for a pair of colours. He firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the ſiege of Pondicherry in 1748; acted under Major Laurence at the taking of Devi Cotta in Tanjore, who wrote of his military talents in high terms; commanded a ſmall party for the taking of Arcot, and afterwards defended that place againſt the French; and performed many other exploits, which, conſidering the remoteneſs of the ſcene of action, would require a long detail to render ſufficiently intelligible. He was, however, in brief, looked upon and acknowledged as the man who firſt rouſed his countrymen to ſpirited action, and raiſed their reputation in the Eaſt; ſo that when he came over to England in 1753, he was preſented, by the court of directors, with a rich ſword ſet with diamonds, as an acknowledgment of paſt, and an incitement to future, ſervices. Captain Clive returned to India, in 1755, as governor of Fort St David, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the king's troops; when as commander of the company's troops, he, in conjunction with Admiral Watſon, reduced Angria the pirate, and became maſter of Geria, his capital, with all his accumulated treaſure. On the loſs of Calcutta, and the well known barbarity of the ſoubah Surajah Dowla, they ſailed to Bengal; where they took Fort William, in January 1757; and Colonel Clive defeating the ſoubah's army ſoon after, accelerated a peace. Surajah Dowla's perfidy, however, ſoon produced freſh hoſtilities, which ended in his ruin; he being totally defeated by Colonel Clive at the famous battle of Plaſſey. The next day, the conqueror entered Muxadabad in triumph; and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn, one of the principal generals, on the throne; the depoſed ſoubah was ſoon after taken, and privately put to death by Jaffier's ſon. Admiral Watſon died at Calcutta; but Colonel Clive commanded in Bengal the two ſucceeding years; he

Clive || Clock.

was honoured by the Mogul with the dignity of an omrah of the empire; and was rewarded by the new ſoubah with a grant of lands, or a jaghire, producing 27,000l. a-year. In 1760, he returned to England, where he received the unanimous thanks of the company, was elected member of parliament for Shrewſbury, and was raiſed to an Iriſh peerage by the title of Lord Clive, Baron of Plaſſey. In 1764, freſh diſturbances taking place in Bengal, Lord Clive was eſteemed the only man qualified to ſettle them, and was accordingly again appointed to that preſidency; after being honoured with the order of the Bath, and with the rank of major-general. When he arrived in India, he exceeded the moſt ſanguine expectation, in reſtoring tranquillity to the province without ſtriking a blow, and fixed the higheſt ideas of the Britiſh power in the minds of the natives. He returned home in 1767; and in 1772, when a parliamentary inquiry into the conduct of the Eaſt India Company was agitated, he entered into an able juſtification of himſelf in a maſterly ſpeech in the houſe of commons. He died *ſuddenly* towards the cloſe of the year 1774.

CLOACÆ, in antiquity, the common ſewers of Rome, to carry off the dirt and ſoil of the city into the Tiber; juſtly reckoned among the grand works of the Romans. The firſt common ſewer, called *Cloaca Maxima*, was built by Tarquinius, ſome ſay Priſcus, others Superbus, of huge blocks of ſtone joined together without any cement, in the manner of the edifices of thoſe early times, conſiſting of three rows of arches one above another, which at length conjoin and unite together; meaſuring in the clear 18 palms in height, and as many in width. Under theſe arches, they rowed in boats, which made Pliny ſay that the city was ſuſpended in air, and that they ſailed beneath the houſes. Under theſe arches alſo were ways through which carts loaded with hay could paſs with eaſe. It began in the Forum Romanum; meaſured 300 paces in length; and emptied itſelf between the temple of Veſta and the Pons Senatorius. There were as many principal ſewers as there were hills. Pliny concludes their firmneſs and ſtrength from their ſtanding for ſo many ages the ſhocks of earthquakes, the fall of houſes, and the vaſt loads and weights moved over them.

CLOACINA, the goddeſs of jakes and common ſewers, among the Romans.

CLOCK, a machine conſtructed in ſuch a manner, and regulated ſo by the uniform motion of a pendulum (A), as to meaſure time, and all its ſubdiviſions, with great exactneſs.

The invention of clocks with wheels is referred to Pacificus, archdeacon of Verona, who lived in the time of Lotharius ſon of Louis the Debonnair, on the credit of an epitaph quoted by Ughelli, and borrowed by him from Panvinius. They were at firſt called *nocturnal dials*, to diſtinguiſh them from ſun-dials, which ſhowed the hour by the ſun's ſhadow. Others aſcribe the invention to Boethius, about the year 510. Mr Derham makes clock-work of a much older ſtanding; and ranks Archimedes's ſphere mentioned by Claudian, and that of Poſidonius mentioned by Cicero, among the machines of this kind: not that either their form or uſe was the ſame with thoſe of ours, but that they had their motion from ſome hidden weights or ſprings, with wheels or pullies, or ſome ſuch clock-work principle. But be this as it will, it is certain the art of making clocks, ſuch as are now in uſe, was either firſt invented, or at leaſt retrieved, in Germany, about 200 years ago. The water-clocks, or clepſydræ, and ſun-dials, have both a much better claim to antiquity. The French annals mention one of the former kind ſent by Aaron, king of Perſia, to Charlemagne, about the year 807, which ſeemed to bear ſome reſemblance to the modern clocks: it was of braſs, and ſhowed the hours by twelve little balls of the ſame metal, which fell at the end of each hour, and in falling ſtruck a bell and made it ſound. There were alſo figures of 12 cavaliers, which at the end of each hour came forth at certain apertures or windows in the ſide of the clock, and ſhut them again, &c.

The invention of pendulum clocks is owing to the happy induſtry of the laſt age: the honour of it is diſputed by Huygens and Galileo. The former, who has written a volume on the ſubject, declares it was firſt put in practice in the year 1657, and the deſcription thereof printed in 1657. Becker, *de Nova Temporis dimetiendi Theoria*, *anno* 1680, contends for Galileo; and relates, though at ſecond-hand, the whole hiſtory of the invention; adding, that one Treſler, at that time clock-maker to the father of the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, made the firſt pendulum-clock at Florence, by direction of Galileo Galilei; a pattern of which was brought into Holland. The Academy del' Cimenta ſay expreſsly, that the application of the pendulum to the movement of a clock was firſt propoſed by Galileo, and firſt put in practice by his ſon Vincenzo Galilei, in 1649. Be the inventor who he will, it is certain the invention never flouriſhed till it came into Huygen's hands, who inſiſts on it, that if ever Galileo thought of ſuch a thing, he never brought it to any degree of perfection. The firſt pendulum-clock made in England was in the year 1662, by Mr Fromantil, a Dutchman.

Among the modern clocks, thoſe of Straſburg and Lyons are very eminent for the richneſs of their furniture, and the variety of their motions and figures. In the firſt, a cock claps his wings, and proclaims the hour; the angel opens a door and ſalutes the virgin; and the Holy Spirit deſcends on her, &c. In the ſecond, two horſemen encounter, and beat the hour on each other; a door opens, and there appears on the theatre the Virgin, with Jeſus Chriſt in her arms; the Magi with their retinue, marching in order, and preſenting their gifts; two trumpeters ſounding all the while to proclaim the proceſſion. Theſe, however, are excelled by two lately made by Engliſh artiſts, and intended as a preſent from the Eaſt India Company to the emperor of China. The clocks we ſpeak of are in the form of chariots, in which are placed, in a fine attitude,

(A) A balance not unlike the fly of a kitchen-jack was formerly uſed in place of the pendulum.

Clock. attitude, a lady, leaning her right hand upon a part of the chariot, under which is a clock of curious workmanſhip, little larger than a ſhilling, that ſtrikes and repeats, and goes eight days. Upon her finger ſits a bird finely modelled, and ſet with diamonds and rubies, with its wings expanded in a flying poſture, and actually flutters for a conſiderable time on touching a diamond button below it; the body of the bird (which contains part of the wheels that in a manner give life to it) is not the bigneſs of the 16th part of an inch. The lady holds in her left hand a gold tube not much thicker than a large pin, on the top of which is a ſmall round box, to which a circular ornament ſet with diamonds not larger than a ſixpence is fixed, which goes round near three hours in a conſtant regular motion. Over the lady's head, ſupported by a ſmall fluted pillar no bigger than a quill, is a double umbrella, under the largeſt of which a bell is fixed at a conſiderable diſtance from the clock, and ſeems to have no connection with it; but from which a communication is ſecretly conveyed to a hammer, that regularly ſtrikes the hour, and repeats the ſame at pleaſure, by touching a diamond button fixed to the clock below. At the feet of the lady is a gold dog; before which from the point of the chariot are two birds fixed on ſpiral ſprings; the wings and feathers of which are ſet with ſtones of various colours, and appear as if flying away with the chariot, which, from another ſecret motion, is contrived to run in a ſtraight, circular, or any other direction; a boy that lays hold of the chariot, behind, ſeems alſo to puſh it forward. Above the umbrella are flowers and ornaments of precious ſtones; and it terminates with a flying dragon ſet in the ſame manner. The whole is of gold, moſt curiouſly executed, and embelliſhed with rubies and pearls.

Plate CXLVI. fig. 1. *Of the general Mechaniſm of* CLOCKS, *and how they meaſure Time.* The firſt figure of Plate CXLVI. is a profile of a clock: P is a weight that is ſuſpended by a rope that winds about the cylinder or barrel C, which is fixed upon the axis *a a;* the pivots *b b* go into holes made in the plates TS, TS, in which they turn freely. Theſe plates are made of braſs or iron, and are connected by means of *four pillars* ZZ; and the whole together is called the *frame.*

The weight P, if not reſtrained, would neceſſarily turn the barrel C with an uniformly accelerated motion, in the ſame manner as if the weight was falling freely from a height. But the barrel is furniſhed with a ratchet-wheel KK, the right ſide of whoſe teeth ſtrikes againſt the click, which is fixed with a ſcrew to the wheel DD, as repreſented in fig. 2. ſo that the action of the weight is communicated to the wheel DD, the teeth of which act upon the teeth of the ſmall wheel *d* which turns upon the pivots *c c.* The communication or action of one wheel with another is called the *pitching;* a ſmall wheel like *d* is called a *pinion,* and its teeth are leaves of the pinion. Several things are requiſite to form a good pitching, the advantages of which are obvious in all machinery where teeth and pinions are employed. The teeth and pinion leaves ſhould be of a proper ſhape, and perfectly equal among themſelves; the ſize alſo of the pinion ſhould be of a juſt proportion to the wheel acting into it; and its place muſt be at a certain diſtance from the wheel, beyond or within which it will make a bad pitching.

The wheel EE is fixed upon the axis of the pinion *d;* and the motion communicated to the wheel DD by the weight is tranſmitted to the pinion *d,* conſequently to the wheel EE, as likewiſe to the pinion *e* and wheel FF, which moves the pinion *f,* upon the axis of which the crown or balance wheel GH is fixed. The pivots of the pinion *f* play in holes of the plates LM, which are fixed horizontally to the plates TS. In a word, the motion begun by the weight is tranſmitted from the wheel GH to the palettes IK, and, by means of the fork UX rivetted on the palettes, communicates motion to the pendulum AB, which is ſuſpended upon the hook A. The pendulum AB deſcribes, round the point A, an arc of a circle alternately going and returning. If then the pendulum be once put in motion by a puſh of the hand, the weight of the pendulum at B will make it return upon itſelf, and it will continue to go alternately backward and forward, till the reſiſtance of the air upon the pendulum, and the friction at the point of ſuſpenſion at A, deſtroy the originally impreſſed force. But as, at every vibration of the pendulum, the teeth of the balance-wheel GH, act ſo upon the palettes IK (the pivots upon the axis of theſe palettes play in two holes of the potence *s t*), that after one tooth H has communicated motion to the palette K, that tooth eſcapes; then the oppoſite tooth G acts upon the palette I, and eſcapes in the ſame manner; and thus each tooth of the wheel eſcapes the palettes IK, after having communicated their motion to the palettes in ſuch a manner that the pendulum, inſtead of being ſtopt, continues to move.

The wheel EE revolves in an hour; the pivot *e* of the wheel paſſes through the plate, and is continued to *r;* upon the pivot is a wheel NN with a long ſocket faſtened in the centre; upon the extremity of this ſocket *r* the minute-hand is fixed. The wheel NN acts upon the wheel O; the pinion of which *p* acts upon the wheel *g g,* fixed upon a ſocket which turns along with the wheel N. This wheel *gg* makes its revolution in 12 hours, upon the ſocket of which the hour-hand is fixed.

From the above deſcription it is eaſy to ſee, 1. That the weight *p* turns all the wheels, and at the ſame time continues the motion of the pendulum. 2. That the quickneſs of the motion of the wheel is determined by that of the pendulum. 3. That the wheels point out the parts of time divided by the uniform motion of the pendulum.

When the cord from which the weight is ſuſpended is entirely run down from off the barrel, it is wound up again by means of a key, which goes on the ſquare end of the arbor at Q by turning it in a contrary direction from that in which the weight deſcends. For this purpoſe, the inclined ſide of the teeth of the wheel R (fig. 2.) removes the click C, ſo that the ratchet-wheel R turns while the wheel D is at reſt; but as ſoon as the cord is wound up, the click falls in between the teeth of the wheel D, and the right ſide of the teeth again act upon the end of the click, which obliges the wheel D to turn along with the barrel; and the ſpring A keeps the click between the teeth of the ratchet-wheel R. Fig. 2.

We ſhall now explain how time is meaſured by the motion of the pendulum; and how the wheel E, upon the

Clock.

the axis of which the minute-hand is fixed, makes but one precise revolution in an hour. The vibrations of a pendulum are performed in a shorter or longer time in proportion to the length of the pendulum itself. A pendulum of 3 feet $8\frac{1}{2}$ French lines in length, makes 3600 vibrations in an hour, *i. e.* each vibration is performed in a second of time, and for that reason it is called a *second pendulum*. But a pendulum of 9 inches $2\frac{1}{4}$ French lines makes 7200 vibrations in an hour, or two vibrations in a second of time, and is called *a half-second pendulum*. Hence, in constructing a wheel whose revolution must be performed in a given time, the time of the vibrations of the pendulum which regulates its motion must be considered. Supposing, then, that the pendulum A B makes 7200 vibrations in an hour, let us consider how the wheel E shall take up an hour in making one revolution. This entirely depends on the number of teeth in the wheels and pinions. If the balance-wheel consists of 30 teeth, it will turn once in the time that the pendulum makes 60 vibrations; for at every turn of the wheel, the same tooth acts once on the palette I, and once on the palette K, which occasions two separate vibrations in the pendulum; and the wheel having 30 teeth, it occasions twice 30, or 60 vibrations. Consequently, this wheel must perform 120 revolutions in an hour; because 60 vibrations, which it occasions at every revolution, are contained 120 times in 7200, the number of vibrations performed by the pendulum in an hour. Now, in order to determine the number of teeth for the wheels EF, and the pinions *e f*, it must be remarked, that one revolution of the wheel E must turn the pinion *e* as many times as the number of teeth in the pinions is contained in the number of teeth in the wheel. Thus, if the wheel E contains 72 teeth, and the pinion *e* 6, the pinion will make 12 revolutions in the time that the wheel makes 1; for each tooth of the wheel drives forward a tooth of the pinion, and when the 6 teeth of the pinion are moved, a complete revolution is performed; but the wheel E has by that time only advanced 6 teeth, and has still 66 to advance before its revolution be completed, which will occasion 11 more revolutions of the pinion. For the same reason, the wheel F having 60 teeth, and the pinion *f* 6, the pinion will make 10 revolutions while the wheel performs one. Now, the wheel F being turned by the pinion *e*, makes 12 revolutions for one of the wheel E; and the pinion *f* makes 10 revolutions for one of the wheel F; consequently, the pinion *f* performs 10 times 12 or 120 revolutions in the time the wheel E performs one. But the wheel G, which is turned by the pinion *f*, occasions 60 vibrations in the pendulum each time it turns round; consequently the wheel G occasions 60 times 120 or 7200 vibrations of the pendulum while the wheel E performs one revolution; but 7200 is the number of vibrations made by the pendulum in an hour, and consequently the wheel E performs but one revolution in an hour; and so of the rest.

From this reasoning, it is easy to discover how a clock may be made to go for any length of time without being wound up: 1. By increasing the number of teeth in the wheels; 2. By diminishing the number of teeth in the pinions; 3. By increasing the length of the cord that suspends the weight; 4. By increasing the length of the pendulum; and, 5. By adding to the number of wheels and pinions. But in proportion as the time is augmented, if the weight continues the same, the force which it communicates to the last wheel GH will be diminished.

It only remains to take notice of the number of teeth in the wheels which turn the hour and minute-hands.

The wheel E performs one revolution in an hour; the wheel NN, which is turned by the axis of the wheel E, must likewise make only one revolution in the same time; and the minute-hand is fixed to the socket of this wheel. The wheel N has 30 teeth, and acts upon the wheel O, which has likewise 30 teeth, and the same diameter; consequently the wheel O takes one hour to a revolution: now the wheel O carries the pinion *p*, which has 6 teeth, and which acts upon the wheel *q q* of 72 teeth; consequently the pinion *p* makes 12 revolutions while the wheel *q q* makes one, and of course the wheel *q q* takes 12 hours to one revolution; and upon the socket of this wheel the hour hand is fixed. All that has been said here concerning the revolutions of the wheels, &c. is equally applicable to watches as to clocks.

The ingenious Dr Franklin contrived a clock to show the hours, minutes, and seconds, with only three wheels and two pinions in the whole movement. The dial-plate (fig. 3.) has the hours engraven upon it in spiral spaces along two diameters of a circle containing four times 60 minutes. The index A goes round in four hours, and counts the minutes from any hour by which it has passed to the next following hour. The time, therefore, in the position of the index shown in the figure is either $32\frac{1}{4}$ minutes past XII. III. or VIII.; and so in every other quarter of the circle it points to the number of minutes after the hours which the index last left in its motion. The small hand B, in the arch at top, goes round once in a minute, and shows the seconds. The wheel-work of this clock may be seen in fig. 4. A is the first or great wheel, containing 160 teeth, and going round in four hours with the index A in fig. 3. let down by a hole on its axis. This wheel turns a pinion B of 10 leaves, which therefore goes round in a quarter of an hour. On the axis of this pinion is the wheel C of 120 teeth; which goes round in the same time, and turns a pinion D of eight leaves round in a minute, with the second hand B of fig. 3. fixed on its axis, and also the common wheel E of 30 teeth for moving a pendulum (by palettes) that vibrates seconds, as in a common clock. This clock is wound up by a line going over a pulley on the axis of the great wheel, like a common thirty-hour clock. Many of these admirably simple machines have been constructed, which measure time exceedingly well. It is subject, however, to the inconvenience of requiring frequent winding by drawing up the weight, and likewise to some uncertainty as to the particular hour shown by the index A. Mr Ferguson has proposed to remedy these inconveniences by the following construction. In the dial-plate of his clock (fig. 5.) there is an opening, *a b c d*, below the centre, through which appears part of a flat plate, on which the 12 hours, with their divisions into quarters, are engraved. This plate turns round in 12 hours; and the index A points out the true hour, &c. B is the

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

Clock.

the minute-hand, which goes round the large circle of 60 minutes whilst the plate *a b c d* shifts its place one hour under the fixed index A. There is another opening, *e f g*, through which the seconds are seen on a flat moveable ring at the extremity of a fleur-de-lis engraved on the dial-plate. A in fig. 6. is the great wheel of this clock, containing 120 teeth, and turning round in 12 hours. The axis of this wheel bears the plate of hours, which may be moved by a pin passing through small holes drilled in the plate, without affecting the wheel-work. The great wheel A turns a pinion B of ten leaves round in an hour, and carries the minute hand B on its axis round the dial-plate in the same time. On this axis is a wheel C of 120 teeth, turning round a pinion D of six leaves in three minutes; on the axis of which there is a wheel E of 90 teeth, that keeps a pendulum in motion, vibrating seconds by palettes, as in a common clock, when the pendulum-wheel has only 30 teeth, and goes round in a minute. In order to show the seconds by this clock, a thin plate must be divided into three times sixty, or 180 equal parts, and numbered 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, three times successively; and fixed on the same axis with the wheel of 90 teeth, so as to turn round near the back of the dial-plate; and these divisions will show the seconds through the opening *e f g h*, fig. 5. This clock will go a week without winding, and always show the precise hour; but this clock, as Mr Ferguson candidly acknowledges, has two disadvantages of which Dr Franklin's clock is free. When the minute-hand B is adjusted, the hour plate must also be set right by means of a pin; and the smallness of the teeth in the pendulum wheel will cause the pendulum-ball to describe but small arcs in its vibrations; and therefore the momentum of the ball will be less, and the times of the vibrations will be more affected by any unequal impulse of the pendulum-wheel on the palettes. Besides, the weight of the flat ring on which the seconds are engraved will load the pivots of the axis of the pendulum-wheel with a great deal of friction, which ought by all possible means to be avoided. To remedy this inconvenience, the second plate might be omitted.

Fig. 6.

A clock similar to Dr Franklin's was made in Lincolnshire about the end of the 17th century or beginning of the 18th; and is said to be in London in the possession of a grandson of the person who made it.

A clock, showing the apparent diurnal motions of the sun and moon, the age and phases of the moon, with the time of her coming to the meridian, and the times of high and low water, by having only two wheels and a pinion added to the common movement, was contrived by Mr Ferguson, and described in his Select Exercises. The dial-plate of this clock (fig. 7.) contains all the twenty-four hours, of the day and night. S is the sun, which serves as an hour index by going round the dial-plate in twenty-four hours; and M is the moon, which goes round in twenty-four hours fifty minutes and a half, the time of her going round in the heavens from one meridian to the same meridian again. The sun is fixed to a circular plate (see fig. 8.) and carried round by the motion of that plate on which the twenty-four hours are engraven; and within them is a circle divided into twenty-nine and a half equal parts for the days of the moon's age, reckoning from new moon to new moon; and each day stands directly under the time, in the twenty-four hour circle, of the moon's coming to the meridian; the XII under the sun standing for noon, and the opposite XII for midnight. The moon M is fixed to another circular plate (fig. 6.) of the same diameter with that which carries the sun, part of which may be seen through the opening, over which the small wires *r* and *b* pass in the moon-plate. The wire *a* shows the moon's age and time of her coming to the meridian, and *b* shows the time of high-water for that day in the sun-plate. The distance of these wires answers to the difference of time between the moon's coming to the meridian and high-water at the place for which the clock is made. At London their difference is two hours and a half. Above the moon-plate there is a fixed plate N, supported by a wire A, joined to it at one end, and fixed at right angles into the dial-plate at the midnight XII. This plate may represent the earth, and the dot L London, or the place to which the clock is adapted. Around this plate there is an elliptic shade on the moon-plate, the highest points of which are marked high-water, and the lowest low-water. As this plate turns round below the plate N, these points come successively even with L, and stand over it at the times when it is high or low water at the given place; which times are pointed by the sun S on the dial-plate; and the plate H above XII at noon rises or falls with the tide. As the sun S goes round the dial-plate in twenty-four hours, and the moon M in twenty-four hours fifty minutes and a half, it is plain that the moon makes only twenty-eight revolutions and a half, whilst the sun makes twenty-nine and a half; so that it will be twenty-nine days and a half from conjunction to conjunction. And thus the wire *a* shifts over one day of the moon's age on the sun-plate in twenty-four hours. The phases of the moon for every day of her age may be seen through a round hole *m* in the moon-plate: thus at conjunction or new-moon, the whole space seen through *m* is black; at opposition or full moon this space is white; at either quadrature half black and half white; and at every position the white part resembles the visible part of the moon for every day of her age. The black-shaded space N *f* F *l* (fig. 8.) on the sun-plate serves for these appearances. N represents the new moon, F the full moon, and *f* her first quarter, and *l* her last quarter, &c. The wheel-work and tide-work of this clock are represented in fig. 9. A and B are two wheels of equal diameters; A has fifty-seven teeth, with a hollow axis that passes through the dial of the clock, and carries the sun-plate with the sun S. B has fifty-nine teeth, with a solid spindle for its axis, which turns within the hollow axis of A, and carries the moon-plate with the moon M: both wheels are turned round by a pinion C of nineteen leaves, and this pinion is turned round by the common clock-work in eight hours; and as nineteen is the third part of fifty-seven, the wheel A will go round in twenty-four hours; and the wheel B in twenty-four hours fifty minutes and a half; fifty-seven being to twenty-four as fifty-nine to twenty-four hours fifty minutes and a half very nearly. On the back of the wheel B is fixed an elliptical ring D, which, in its revolution, raises and lets down a lever EF, whose centre of motion is on a pin at F; and this, by the up-

Plate CXLVII fig. 7.

Fig. 8

Fig. 9

Clock.

right bar G, raiſes and lets down the tide-plate H twice in the time of the moon's revolving from the meridian to the meridian again: this plate moves between four rollers R, R, R, R. A clock of this kind was adapted by Mr Ferguſon to the movement of an old watch: the great wheel of a watch goes round in four hours; on the axis of this he fixed a wheel of twenty teeth, to turn a wheel of forty teeth on the axis of the pinion C; by which means that pinion was turned round in eight hours, the wheel A in twenty-four, and the wheel B in twenty-four hours fifty minutes and a half.

To this article we ſhall ſubjoin a brief account of two curious contrivances. The firſt, for giving motion to the parts of a clock by making it to deſcend along an inclined plane, is the invention of Mr Maurice Wheeler; the clock itſelf was formerly ſeen in Don Saltero's coffee-houſe at Chelſea. DE, fig. 10. is the inclined plane on which the clock ABC deſcends; this conſiſts externally of a hoop about an inch broad, and two ſides or plates ſtanding out beyond the hoop about one-eighth of an inch all round, with indented edges, that the clock may not ſlide, but turn round whilſt it moves down. One of theſe plates is inſcribed with the twenty-four hours, which paſs ſucceſſively under the index LP, fig. 11. which is always in a poſition perpendicular to the horizon, and ſhows the hour on the top of the machine: for this reaſon the lower part of the index, or HL, is heavieſt, that it may preponderate the other HP, and always keep it pendulous, with its point to the vertical hour, as the movement goes on. Inſtead of this index, an image may be fixed for ornament on the axis *g*, which with an erected finger performs the office of an index. In order to deſcribe the internal part or mechaniſm of this clock, let LETQ be the external circumference of the hoop, and *ff* the ſame plate, on which is placed the train of wheel work 1, 2, 3, 4, which is much the ſame as in other clocks, and is governed by a balance and regulator as in them. But there is no need of a ſpring and fuſee in this clock: their effects being otherwiſe anſwered as we ſhall ſee. In this machine the great wheel of 1 is placed in the centre, or upon the axis of the movement, and the other wheels and parts towards one ſide, which would therefore prove a bias to the body of the clock, and cauſe it to move, even on a horizontal plane, for ſome ſhort diſtance: this makes it neceſſary to fix a thin plate of lead at C, on the oppoſite part of the hoop, to reſtore the equilibrium of the movement. This being done, the machine will abide at reſt in any poſition on the horizontal plane HH; but if that plane be changed into the inclined plane DE, it will touch it in the point D; but it cannot reſt there, becauſe the centre of gravity at M acting in the direction MI, and the point T having nothing to ſupport it, muſt continually deſcend, and carry the body down the plane. But now if any weight P be fixed on the other ſide of the machine, ſuch as ſhall remove the centre of gravity from M to the point V in the line LD which paſſes through the point D, it will then reſt upon the inclined plane, as in the caſe of the rolling cylinder. If this weight P be ſuppoſed not fixed, but ſuſpended at the end of an arm, or vectis, which arm or lever is at the ſame time faſtened to a centrical wheel 1, moving on the axis M of the machine, which wheel by its teeth ſhall communicate with the train of wheels, &c. on the other ſide, and the power of the weight be juſt equal to the friction or reſiſtance of the train, it will remain motionleſs as it did before when it was fixed; and conſequently the clock alſo will be at reſt on the inclined plane. But ſuppoſing the power of the weight P to be ſuperior to the reſiſtance of the train, it will then put it into motion, and of courſe the clock likewiſe; which will then commence a motion down the plane; while the weight P, its vectis PM, and the wheel 1, all conſtantly retain the ſame poſition which they have at firſt when the clock begins to move. Hence it is eaſy to underſtand, that the weight P may have ſuch an intrinſic gravity as ſhall cauſe it to act upon the train with any required force, ſo as to produce a motion in the machine of any required velocity; ſuch, for inſtance, as ſhall carry it once round in twenty-four hours: then, if the diameters of the plates ABC be four inches, it will deſcribe the length of their circumference, viz. 1256 inches, in one natural day; and therefore, if the plane be of a ſufficient breadth, ſuch a clock may go ſeveral days, and would furniſh a perpetual motion, if the plane were infinitely extended. Let SD be drawn through M perpendicular to the inclined plane in the point D; alſo let LD be perpendicular to the horizontal line HH, paſſing through D; then is the angle HDE=LDS=DMT; whence it follows that the greater the angle of the plane's elevation is, the greater will be the arch DT; and conſequently the further will the common centre of gravity be removed from M; therefore the power of P will be augmented, and of courſe the motion of the whole machine accelerated. Thus it appears, that by duly adjuſting the intrinſic weight of P, at firſt to produce a motion ſhowing the mean time as near as poſſible, the time may be afterwards corrected, or the clock made to go faſter or ſlower by raiſing or depreſſing the plane, by means of the ſcrew at S. The angle to which the plane is firſt raiſed is about ten degrees. The marquis of Worceſter is alſo ſaid to have contrived a watch that moved on a declivity. See farther *Phil. Tranſ. Abr.* vol. i. p. 468, &c. or N° 161.

Plate CXLVIII. fig. 10.

Fig. 11.

The other contrivance is that of M. de Gennes for making a clock aſcend on an inclined plane. To this end let ABC (fig. 12.) be the machine on the inclined plane EDE, and let it be kept at reſt upon it, or in equilibrio by the weight P at the end of the level PM. The circular area CF is one end of a ſpring barrel in the middle of the movement, in which is included a ſpring as in a common watch. To this end of the barrel the arm or lever PM is fixed upon the centre M; and thus, when the clock is wound up, the ſpring moves the barrel, and therefore the lever and weight P in the ſituation PM. In doing this, the centre of gravity is conſtantly removed farther from the centre of the machine, and therefore it muſt determine the clock to move upwards, which it will continue to do as long as the ſpring is unbending itſelf; and thus the weight and its lever PM will preſerve the ſituation they firſt have, and to do the office of a chain and fuſee. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 140. or Abridg. vol. i. p. 467.

Fig. 12.

By ſtat. 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 28. § 2. no perſon ſhall export, or endeavour to export out of this king-

dom,

Clock.

dom, any outward or inward box-case or dial-plate, of gold, silver, brass, or other metal, for clock or watch, without the movement in or with every such box, &c. made up fit for use, with the maker's name engraven thereon; nor shall any person make up any clock or watch without putting his name and place of abode or freedom, and no other name or place, on every clock or watch; on penalty of forfeiting every such box, case, and dial-plate, clock and watch, not made up and engraven as aforesaid; and 20l. one moiety to the king, the other to those that shall sue for the same.

CLOCKS, *Portable*, or *Pocket*, commonly denominated *Watches*. See the article WATCH.

CLOCK-Work, properly so called, is that part of the movement which strikes the hours, &c. on a bell; in contradistinction to that part of the movement of a clock or watch which is designed to measure and exhibit the time on a dial-plate, and which is termed *Watch-work*.

Plate CXLVIII. fig. 13.

I. Of the *Clock* part. The wheels composing this part are: The great or first wheel H, which is moved by the weight or spring at the barrel G: in sixteen or thirty-hour clocks, this has usually pins, and is called the *pin-wheel;* in eight-day pieces, the second wheel I is commonly the pin-wheel, or striking wheel, which is moved by the former. Next the striking wheel is the detent-wheel, or hoop-wheel K, having a hoop almost round it, wherein is a vacancy at which the clock locks. The next is the third or fourth wheel, according to its distance from the first, called the *warning-wheel* L. The last is the flying pinion Q, with a fly or fan, to gather air, and so bridle the rapidity of the clock's motion. To these must be added the pinion of report, which drives round the locking-wheel, called also the *count-wheel;* ordinarily with eleven notches in it, unequally distant, to make the clock strike the hours.

Besides the wheels, to the clock part belongs the rash or ratch; a kind of wheel with twelve large fangs, running concentrical to the dial-wheel, and serving to lift up the detents every hour, and make the clock strike: the detents or stops, which being lifted up and let fall, lock and unlock the clock in striking the hammer, as S, which strikes the bell R; the hammer-tails, as T, by which the striking pins draw back the hammers; latches, whereby the work is lifted up and unlocked; and lifting-pieces, as P, which lift up and unlock the detents.

The method of calculating the numbers of a piece of clock-work having something in it very entertaining, and at the same time very easy and useful, we shall give our readers the rules relating thereto: 1. Regard here needs only be had to the counting-wheel, striking-wheel, and detent-wheel, which move round in this proportion: the court-wheel commonly goes round once in 12 or 24 hours; the detent-wheel moves round every stroke the clock strikes, or sometimes but once in two strokes: wherefore it follows, that, 2. As many pins as are in the pin-wheel, so many turns hath the detent-wheel in one turn of the pin-wheel; or, which is the same, the pins of the pin-wheel are the quotients of that wheel divided by the pinion of the detent-wheel. But if the detent-wheel moves but once round in two strokes of the clock, then the said quotient is but half the number of pins. 3. As many turns of the pin-wheel as are required to perform the strokes of 12 hours (which are 78), so many turns must the pinion of report have to turn round the count-wheel once; or thus the quotient of 78, divided by the number of striking-pins, shall be the quotient for the pinion of report and the count wheel; and this is in case the pinion of report be fixed to the arbor of the pin-wheel, which is commonly done.

An example will make all plain: The locking-wheel being 48, the pinion of report 8, the pin-wheel 78, the striking pins are 13, and so of the rest. Note also, that 78 divided by 13 gives 6, the quotient of the pinion of report, As for the warning-wheel and fly-wheel, it matters little what numbers they have; their use being only to bridle the rapidity of the motion of the other wheels.

8) 48 (6
6) 78 (13
6) 60 (10
6) 48 (8

The following rules will be of great service in this calculation. 1. *To find how many strokes a clock strikes in one turn of the fusee or barrel:* As the turns of the great wheel or fusee are to the days of the clock's continuance; so is the number of strokes in 24 hours, viz. 156, to the strokes of one turn of the fusee.

2. *To find how many days a clock will go:* As the strokes in 24 hours are to those in one turn of the fusee; so are the turns of the fusee to the days of the clock's going.

3. *To find the number of turns of the fusee or barrel:* As the strokes in one turn of the fusee are to those of 24 hours; so is the clock's continuance to the turns of the fusee or great wheel.

4. *To find the number of leaves in the pinion of report on the axis of the great wheel:* As the number of strokes in the clock's continuance is to the turns of the fusee; so are the strokes in 12 hours, viz. 78, to the quotient of the pinion of report fixed on the arbor of the great wheel.

5. *To find the strokes in the clock's continuance:* As 12 is to 78; so are the hours of the clock's continuance to the number of strokes in that time.

By means of the following table, clocks and watches may be so regulated as to measure true equal time.

The stars make 366 revolutions from any point of the compass to the same point again in 365 days and one minute; and therefore they gain a 365th of a revolution every 24 hours of mean solar time, near enough for regulating any clock or watch.

This acceleration is at the rate of 3 min. 55 sec. 53 thirds, 59 fourths in 24 hours; or in the nearest round numbers, 3 minutes, 56 seconds; by which quantity of time every star comes round sooner than it did on the day before.

Therefore if you mark the precise moment shown by a clock or watch when any star vanishes behind a chimney, or any other object, as seen through a small hole in a thin plate of metal, fixed in a window-shutter;

Days.	H.	M.	S.
1	0	3	56
2	0	7	52
3	0	11	48
4	0	15	44
5	0	19	40
6	0	23	36
7	0	27	32
8	0	31	28
9	0	35	24
10	0	39	20
11	0	43	16
12	0	47	12
13	0	51	8
14	0	55	4
15	0	59	0
16	1	2	56
17	1	6	52

Clock.

Days.	H.	M.	S.
18	1	10	48
19	1	14	44
20	1	18	40
21	1	22	36
22	1	26	32
23	1	30	28
24	1	34	24
25	1	38	20
26	1	42	16
27	1	46	12
28	1	50	8
29	1	54	4
30	1	58	0

and do this for ſeveral nights ſucceſſively (as ſuppoſe twenty); if, at the end of that time, the ſtar vaniſhes as much ſooner than it did the firſt night, by the clock, as anſwers to the time denoted in the table for ſo many days, the clock goes true; otherwiſe not. If the difference between the clock and ſtar be leſs than the table ſhows, the clock goes too faſt; if greater, it goes too ſlow; and muſt be regulated accordingly, by letting down or raiſing up the ball of the pendulum, by little and little, by turning the ſcrew-nut under the ball, till you find it keeps true equal time.

Thus ſuppoſing the ſtar ſhould diſappear behind a chimney, any night when it is XII. by the clock; and that, on the 20th night afterward, the ſame ſtar ſhould diſappear when the time is 41 minutes 22 ſeconds paſt X, by the clock; which being ſubtracted from 12 hours 0 min. 0 ſec. leaves remaining 1 hour 18 minutes 40 ſeconds for the time the ſtar is then faſter than the clock: look in the table, and againſt 20, in the left hand column, you will find the acceleration of the ſtar to be 1 hour 18 min. 40 ſec. agreeing exactly with what the difference ought to be between the clock and ſtar; which ſhows that the clock meaſures true equal time, and agrees with the mean ſolar time, as it ought to do.

II. Of the *Watch* part of a clock or watch. This is that part of the movement which is deſigned to meaſure and exhibit the time on a dial-plate; in contradiſtinction to that part which contributes to the ſtriking of the hour, &c.

The ſeveral members of the watch part are, 1. The balance, conſiſting of the rim, which is its circular part; and the verge, which is its ſpindle; to which belong two palettes or leaves, that play in the teeth of the crown-wheel. 2. The potence, or pottance, which is the ſtrong ſtud in pocket watches, whereon the lower pivot of the verge plays, and in the middle of which one pivot of the balance-wheel plays; the bottom of the pottance is called the foot, the middle part the noſe, and the upper part the ſhoulder. 3. The cock, which is the piece covering the balance. 4. The regulator, or pendulum ſpring, which is the ſmall ſpring, in the new pocket-watches, underneath the balance. 5. The pendulum (fig. 13.); whoſe parts are, the verge *x*, palettes 5, 5, cocks *y y y*, the rod, the fork, *z*, the flatt 2, the bob or great ball 3, and the corrector or regulator, 4, being a contrivance of Dr Derham for bringing the pendulum to its nice vibrations. 6. The wheels, which are the crown wheel F in pocket-pieces, and ſwing-wheel in pendulums; ſerving to drive the balance or pendulum. 7. The contrate-wheel E, which is that next the crown-wheel, &c. and whoſe teeth and hoop lie contrary to thoſe of other wheels; whence the name. 8. The great, or firſt wheel C; which is that the fuſee B, &c. immediately drives, by means of the chain or ſtring of the ſpring-box or barrel A; after which are the ſecond wheel D, third wheel, &c. Laſtly, between the frame and dial-plate, is the pinion of report, which is that fixed on the arbor of the great wheel; and ſerves to drive the dial-wheel, as that ſerves to carry the hand.

For the illuſtration of this part of the work which lies concealed, let ABC (fig. 14.) repreſent the uppermoſt ſide of the frame-plate, as it appears when detached from the dial-plate: the middle of this plate is perforated with a hole, receiving that end of the arbor of the centre wheel which carries the minute hand; near the plate is fixed the pinion of report *a b* of 10 teeth; this drives a wheel *c d* of 40 teeth; this wheel carries a pinion *e f* of 12 teeth; and this again drives a wheel *g h* with 36 teeth. Fig. 14.

As in the body of the watch the wheels everywhere divide the pinions; here, on the contrary, the pinions divide the wheels, and by that means diminiſh the motion, which is here neceſſary; for the hour hand, which is carried on a ſocket fixed on the wheel *g h*, is required to move but once round, while the pinion *a b* moves twelve times round. For this purpoſe the motion of the wheel *c d* is $\frac{1}{4}$ of the pinion *a b*. Again, while the wheel *c d*, or the pinion *e f*, goes once round, it turns the wheel *g h* but $\frac{1}{3}$ part round; conſequently the motion of *g h* is but $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{4}$ of the motion of *a b*; but $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{4}$ is $\frac{1}{12}$; *i. e.* the hour-wheel *g h* moves once round in the time that the pinion of report, on the arbor of the centre of the minute wheel, makes 12 revolutions, as required. Hence the ſtructure of that part of a clock or watch which ſhows the time may be eaſily underſtood.

The cylinder A (fig. 13.) put into motion by a weight or incloſed ſpring moves the fuſee B, and the great wheel C, to which it is fixed by the line or cord that goes round each, and anſwers to the chain of a watch.

The method of calculation is eaſily underſtood by the ſequel of this article; for, ſuppoſe the great wheel C goes round once in 12 hours, then if it be a royal pendulum clock, vibrating ſeconds, we have $60 \times 60 \times 12 = 43200$ ſeconds or beats in one turn of the great wheel. But becauſe there are 60 ſwings or ſeconds in one minute, and the ſeconds are ſhown by an index on the end of the arbor of the ſwing-wheel, which in thoſe clocks is in an horizontal poſition; therefore it is neceſſary that the ſwing-wheel F ſhould have 30 teeth; whence $\frac{43200}{60} = 720$, the number to be broken into quotients for finding the number of teeth for the other wheels and pinions.

In ſpring-clocks, the diſpoſition of the wheels in the watch part is ſuch as is here repreſented in the figure, where the crown-wheel F is in an horizontal poſition; the ſeconds not being ſhown there by an index, as is done in the large pendulum clocks. Whence in theſe clocks the wheels are diſpoſed in a different manner, as repreſented in fig. 15. where C is the great wheel, and D the centre or minute wheel, as before: but the contrate wheel E is placed on one ſide, and F the ſwing-wheel is placed with its centre in the ſame perpendicular line GH with the minute-wheel, and with its plane perpendicular to the horizon, as are all the others. Thus the minute and hour hands turn on the end of the arbor of the minute wheel at *a*, and the ſecond hand on the arbor of the ſwing-wheel at *b*. Fig. 15.

Theory and calculation of the Watch-part, as laid down by

Clock. *by the Rev. Dr Derham.*—1. The ſame motion, it is evident, may be performed either by one wheel and one pinion, or many wheels and many pinions; provided the number of turns of all the wheels bear the proportion to all the pinions which that one wheel bears to its pinion: or, which is the ſame thing, if the number produced by multiplying all the wheels together be to the number produced by multiplying all the pinions together, as that one wheel to that one pinion. Thus, ſuppoſe you had occaſion for a wheel of 1440 teeth, and a pinion of 28 leaves; you make it into three wheels of 36, 8, and 5, and three pinions of 4, 7, and 1. For the three wheels, 36, 8, and 5, multiplied together, give 1440 for the wheels, and the three pinions, 4, 7, and 1, multiplied together, give 28 for the pinions. Add, that it matters not in what order the wheels and pinions are ſet, or which pinion runs in which wheel; only for convenience ſake, the biggeſt numbers are commonly put to drive the reſt.

2. Two wheels and pinions of different numbers may perform the ſame motion. Thus, a wheel of 36 drives a pinion of four; the ſame as a wheel of 45 a pinion of 5; or a wheel of 90 a pinion of 10; the turns of each being 9.

3. If, in breaking the train into parcels, any of the quotients ſhould not be liked; or if any other two numbers, to be multiplied together, are deſired to be varied, it may be done by this rule. Divide the two numbers by any other two numbers which will meaſure them; multiply the quotients by the alternate diviſors; the product of theſe two laſt numbers found will be equal to the product of the two numbers firſt given. Thus, if you would vary 46 times 8, divide theſe by any two numbers which will evenly meaſure them: ſo, 36 by 4 gives 9; and 8 by 1 gives 8; now, by the rule, 9 times 1 is 9, and 8 times 4 is 32; ſo that for 36+8, you have 32+9; each equal to 288. If you divide 36 by 6, and 8 by 2, and multiply as before, you have 24+12=36+8=288.

4. If a wheel and pinion fall out with croſs numbers, too big to be cut in wheels, and yet not to be altered by theſe rules; in ſeeking for the pinion of report, find two numbers of the ſame, or a near proportion, by this rule; as either of the two given numbers is to the other, ſo is 360 to a fourth. Divide that fourth number, as alſo 360. by 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 15, (each of which numbers exactly meaſures 360), or by any of thoſe numbers that bring a quotient neareſt to an integer. As ſuppoſe you had 147 for the wheel, and 170 for the pinion; which are too great to be cut into ſmall wheels, and yet cannot be reduced into leſs, as having no other common meaſure but unity; ſay, as 170 : 147 :: 360 : 311. Or, as 147 : 170 :: 360 : 416. Divide the fourth number and 360 by one of the foregoing numbers; as 311 and 360 by 6, it gives 52 and 60; divide them by 8, you have 39 and 45; and if you divide 360 and 416 by 8, you have 45 and 52 exactly. Wherefore, inſtead of the two numbers 147 and 170, you may take 52 and 60, or 39 and 45, or 45 and 52, &c.

5. To come to practice in calculating a piece of watch-work: Firſt pitch on the train or beats of the balance in an hour; as, whether a ſwift one of about 20,000 beats (the uſual train of a common 30 hour pocket-watch), or a ſlower of about 16,000 (the train of the new pendulum pocket-watches), or any other train. Next, reſolve on the number of turns the fuſee is intended to have, and the number of hours the piece is to go: ſuppoſe e. gr. 12 turns, and to go 30 hours, or 192 hours (i. e. 8 days), &c. Proceed now to find the beats of the balance or pendulum in one turn of the fuſee; thus in numbers; 12 : 16 :: 20,000 : 26666. Wherefore 26666 are the beats in one turn of the fuſee or great wheel, and are equal to the quotients of all the wheels unto the balance multiplied together. Now this number is to be broken into a convenient parcel of quotients; which is to be done thus: firſt, halve the number of beats, viz. 26666, and you have 13333; then pitch on the number of the crown-wheel, ſuppoſe 17: divide 13333 by 17, and you have 784 for the quotient (or turns) of the reſt of the wheels and pinions; which, being too big for one or two quotients, may be beſt broken into three. Chooſe therefore three numbers; which, when multiplied all together continually, will come neareſt 784: as ſuppoſe 10, 9, and 9, multiplied continually, give 810, which is ſomewhat too much; therefore try again other numbers, 11, 9, 8: theſe, drawn one into another continually, produce 792; which is as near as can be, and is a convenient quotient. Having thus contrived the piece from the great wheel to the balance, but the numbers not falling out exactly, as you firſt propoſed, correct the work thus: firſt multiply 792, the product of all the quotients pitched upon, by 17 (the notches of the crown-wheel); the product is 13464, which is half the number of beats in one turn of the fuſee: Then find the true number of beats in an hour. Thus, 16 : 12 :: 13464 : 10098, which is half the beats in an hour. Then find what quotient is to be laid upon the pinion of report (by the rule given under that word). Thus, 16 : 12 :: 12 : 9, the quotient of the pinion of report. Having thus found your quotients, it is eaſy to determine what numbers the wheels ſhall have, for chooſing what numbers the pinions ſhall have, and multiplying the pinions by their quotients, the product is the number for the wheels. Thus the number of the pinion of report is 4, and its quotient is 9; therefore the number for the dial-wheel muſt be 4×9, or 36: ſo the next pinion being 5, its quotient 11, therefore the great wheel muſt be 5×11=55; and ſo of the reſt.

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4) 36 ( 9
5) 55 (11
5) 45 ( 9
5) 40 ( 8
                17
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Such is the method of calculating the numbers of a 16 hour watch. Which watch may be made to go longer by leſſening the train, and altering the pinion of report. Suppoſe you could conveniently ſlacken the train to 16000; then ſay, As ½ 16000 or 8000 : 13464 :: 12 : 20; ſo that this watch will go 20 hours. Then, for the pinion of report, ſay (by the rule given under that word), as 20 : 12 :: 12 : 7. So that 7 is the quotient of the pinion of report. And as to the numbers, the operation is the ſame as before, only the dial-wheel is but 28; for its quotient is altered to 7. If you would give numbers to a watch of about 10,000 beats in an hour, to have 12 turns of the fuſee, to go 170 hours, and 17 notches in the crown-wheel; the work

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4) 28 ( 7
5) 55 (11
5) 45 ( 9
5) 40 ( 8
                17
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is

is the ſame, in a manner, as in the laſt example: and conſequently thus: as 12 : 170 :: 10000 : 141666, which fourth number is the beats in one turn of the fuſee; its half, 70833, being divided by 17, gives 4167 for the quotient; and becauſe this number is too big for three quotients, therefore chooſe four, as 10, 8, 8, 6 $\frac{3}{5}$; whoſe product into 17 makes 71808, nearly equal to half the true beats in one turn of the fuſee. Then ſay, as 170 : 12 : 71808 : 5069, which is half the true train of your watch. And again, 170 : 12 :: $12\frac{144}{170}$, the denominator of which expreſſes the pinion of report, and the numerator is the number of the dial-wheel. But theſe numbers being too big to be cut in ſmall wheels, they muſt be varied by the fourth rule above. Thus:

As 144 : 170 :: 360 : 425:
Or 170 : 144 :: 360 : 305.

24) 20 ($\frac{20}{24}$ Then dividing 360, and either of theſe
6) 60 (10 two fourth proportionals (as directed by
6) 48 (8 the rule), ſuppoſe by 15; you will have
5) 40 (8 $\frac{24}{28}$ or $\frac{20}{24}$; then the numbers of the whole
5) 33 ($6\frac{3}{5}$ movements will ſtand as in the margin.
17 Such is the calculation of ordinary watches, to ſhow the hour of the day: in ſuch as ſhow minutes, and ſeconds, the proceſs is thus:

1. Having reſolved on the beats in an hour, by dividing the deſigned train by 60, find the beats in a minute; and accordingly, find proper numbers for the crown-wheel and quotients, ſo as that the minute-wheel ſhall go round once in an hour, and the ſecond wheel once in a minute.

Suppoſe, you ſhall chooſe a pendulum of ſeven inches, which vibrates 142 ſtrokes in a minute, and 8520 in an hour. Half theſe ſums are 71, and 4260. Now, the firſt work is to break this 71 into a good proportion, which will fall into one quotient, and the crown-wheel. Let the crown-wheel have 15 notches; then 71, divided by 15, gives nearly 5; ſo a crown-wheel of 15, and a wheel and pinion whoſe quotient is 5, will go round in a minute to carry a hand to ſhow ſeconds. For a hand to go

8) 40 (5 round in an hour to ſhow minutes, becauſe
15 there are 60 minutes in an hour, it is but breaking 60 into good quotients (ſuppoſe 10 and 6, or 8 and $7\frac{1}{2}$, &c.): and it is
8) 64 (8 done. Thus, 4260 is broken as near as
8) 60 ($7\frac{1}{2}$ can be into proper numbers. But ſince
8) 40 (5 it does not fall out exactly into the above
15 mentioned numbers, you muſt correct (as before directed), and find the true number of beats in an hour, by multiplying 15 by 5, which makes 75; and 75 by 60 makes 4500, which is half the true train. Then find the beats in one turn of the fuſee; thus, 16 : 192 :: 4500 : 54000; which laſt is half the beats in one turn of the fuſee. This 54000 being divided by 4500 (the true

9) 108 (12 numbers already pitched on), the quo-
8) 64 (8 tient will be 10; which, not being too big
8) 60 ($7\frac{1}{2}$ for a ſingle quotient, needs not be divided
8) 40 (5 into more: and the work will ſtand as in the margin. As to the hour-hand, the
15 great wheel, which performs only one revolution in 12 turns of the minute-wheel, will ſhow the hour; or it may be done by the minute-wheel.

It is requiſite for thoſe who make nice aſtronomical obſervations, to have watches that make ſome exact number of beats per ſecond, without any fraction; but we ſeldom find a watch that does. As four beats per ſecond would be a very convenient number, we ſhall here give the train for ſuch a watch, which would (like moſt others) go 30 hours, but is to be wound up once in 24 hours.

The fuſee and firſt wheel to go round in four hours. This wheel has 48 teeth, and it turns a pinion of 12 leaves, on whoſe axis is the ſecond wheel, which goes round in one hour, and carries the minute-hand. This wheel has 60 teeth, and turns a pinion of 10 leaves; on whoſe axis is the third wheel of 60 teeth, turning a pinion of 6 leaves; on whoſe axis is the fourth (or contrate) wheel, turning round in a minute, and carrying the ſmall hand that ſhows the ſeconds, on a ſmall circle on the dial-plate, divided into 60 parts: this contrate wheel has 48 teeth, and turns a pinion of 6 leaves; on whoſe axis is the crown or balance-wheel of 15 teeth, which makes 30 beats in each revolution.

The crown-wheel goes 480 times round in an hour, and 30 times 480 make 14400, the number of beats in an hour. But one hour contains 3600 ſeconds; and 14400 divided by 3600 quotes 4, the required number of beats in a ſecond.

The fuſee muſt have $7\frac{1}{2}$ turns, to let the chain go ſo many times round it. Then, as 1 turn is to 4 hours, ſo is $7\frac{1}{2}$ turns to 30 hours, the time the watch would go after it is wound up.

See further the articles MOVEMENT, TURN, &c. And for the hiſtory and particular conſtruction of *Watches*, properly ſo called, ſee the article WATCH.

CLODIA LEX, *de Cypro*, was enacted by the tribune Clodius, in the year of Rome 607, to reduce Cyprus into a Roman province, and expoſe Ptolemy king of Egypt to ſale in his regal ornaments. It empowered Cato to go with the prætorean power and ſee the auction of the king's goods, and commiſſioned him to return the money to Rome. Another, *de Magiſtratibus*, 695, by Clodius the tribune. It forbade the cenſors to put a ſtigma or mark of infamy upon any perſon who had not been actually accuſed and condemned by both the cenſors. Another, *de Religione*, by the ſame, 696, to deprive the prieſt of Cybele, a native of Peſſinuns, of his office, and confer the prieſthood upon Brotigonus, a Gallogrecian. Another, *de Provinciis*, 695, which nominated the provinces of Syria, Babylon, and Perſia, to the conſul Gabinus, and Achaia, Theſſaly, Macedon, and Greece, to his colleague Piſo, with proconſular power. It empowered them to defray the expences of their march from the public treaſury. Another, 695, which required the ſame diſtribubtion of corn among the people gratis, as had been given them before at ſix aſſes and a triens the buſhel. Another, 695, by the ſame, *de Judiciis*. It called to an account ſuch as had executed a Roman citizen without a judgment of the people and all the formalities of a trial. Another, by the ſame, to pay no attention to the appearances of the heavens while any affair was before

Fig. 3.

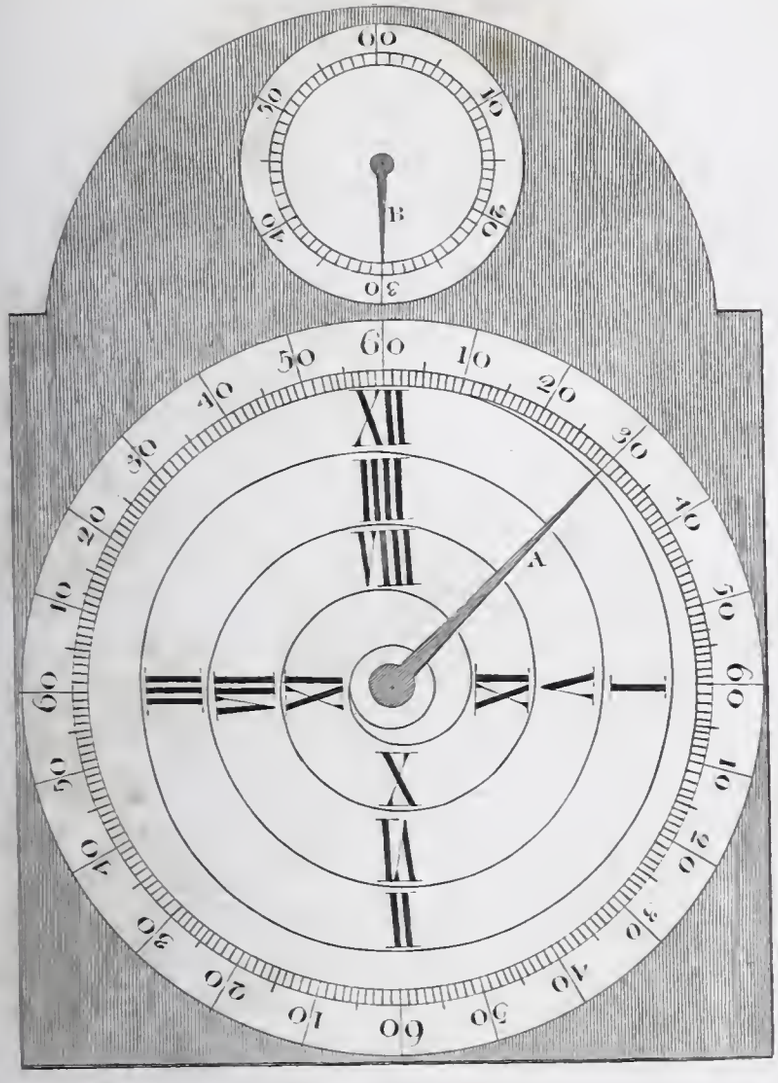


Fig. 1.

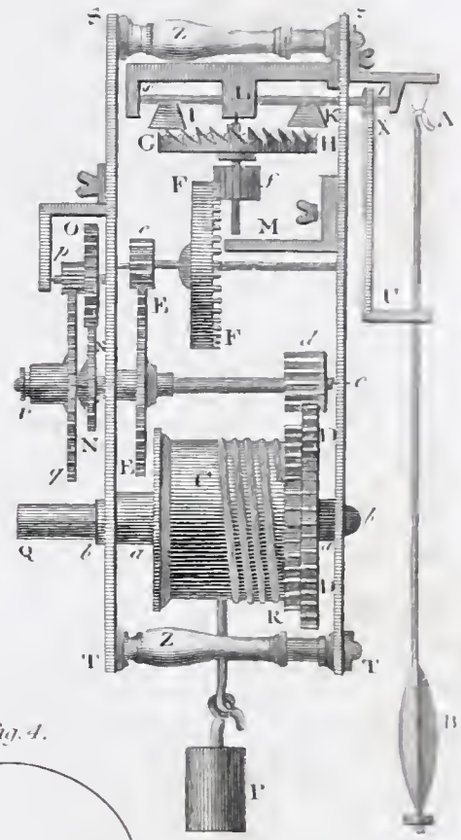


Fig. 4.

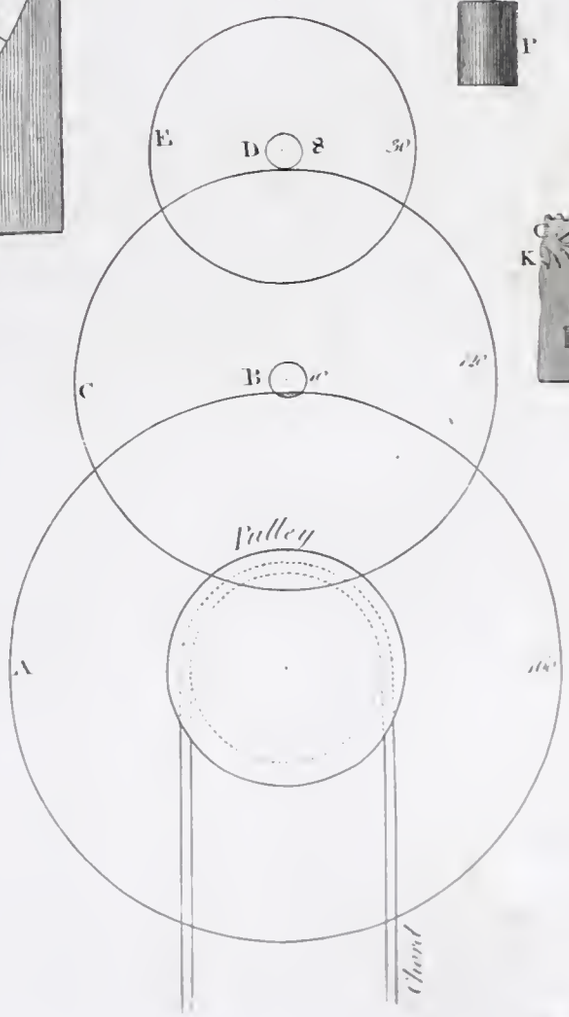
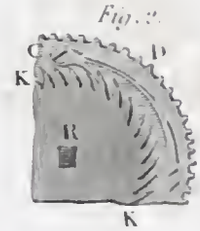


Fig. 2.



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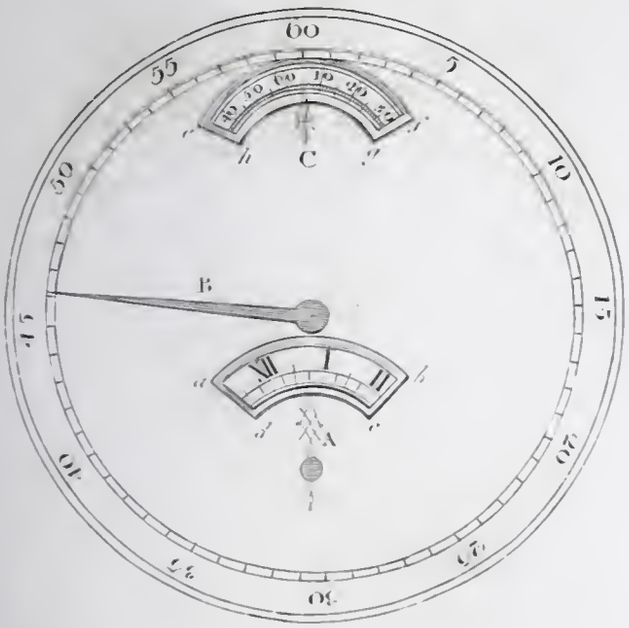

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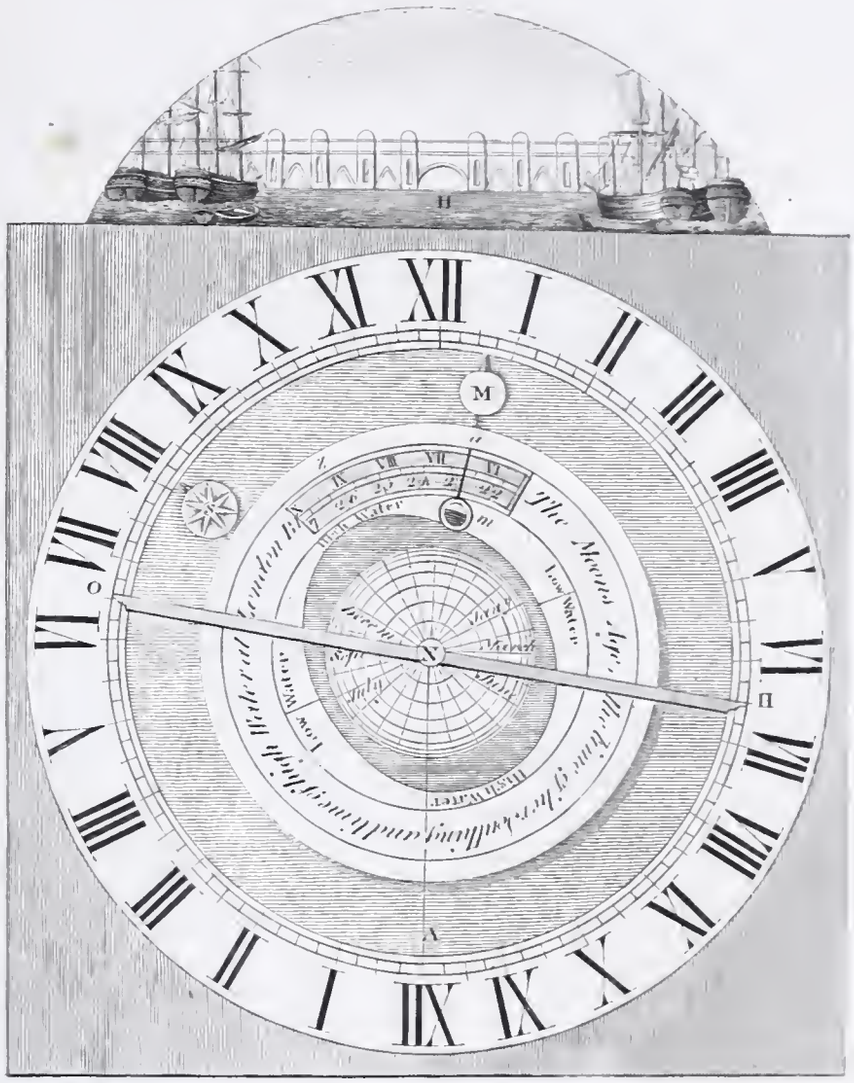

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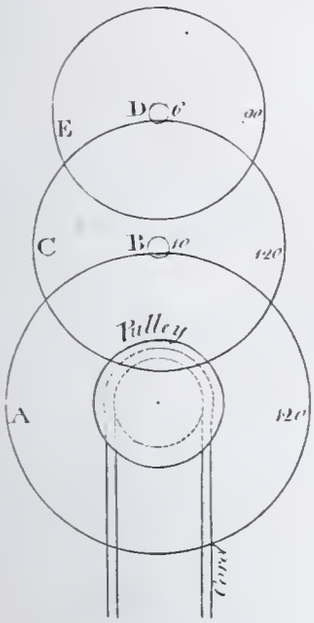


Fig. 9.

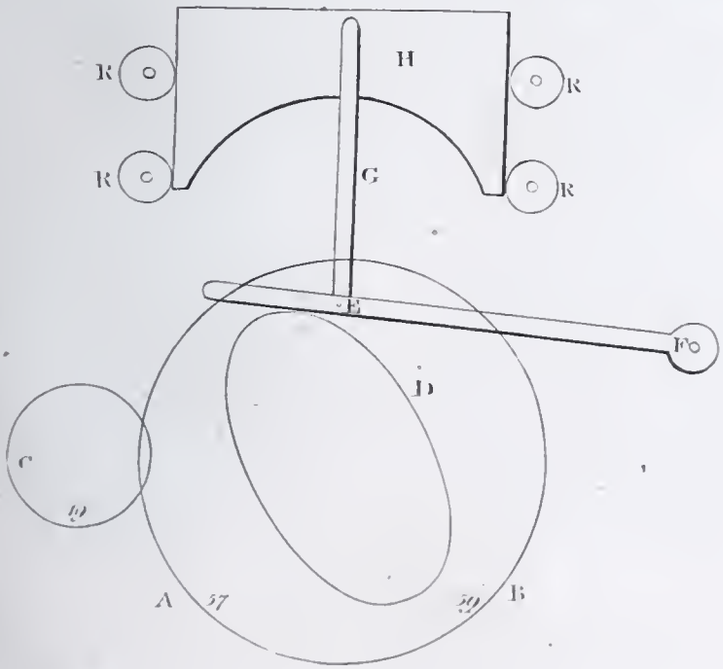
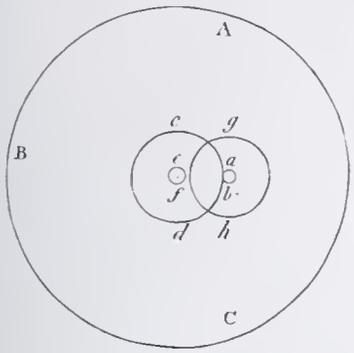


Fig. 8.

CLOCK.

PLATE CXLVIII.

Fig. 14.



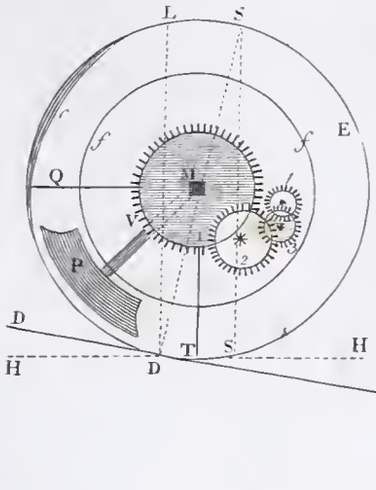


Fig. 10.

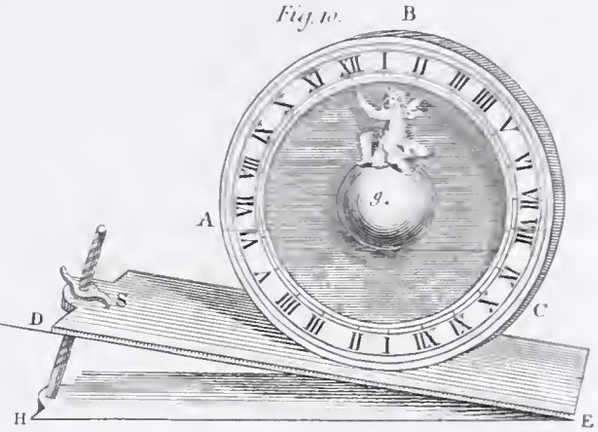


Fig. 13.

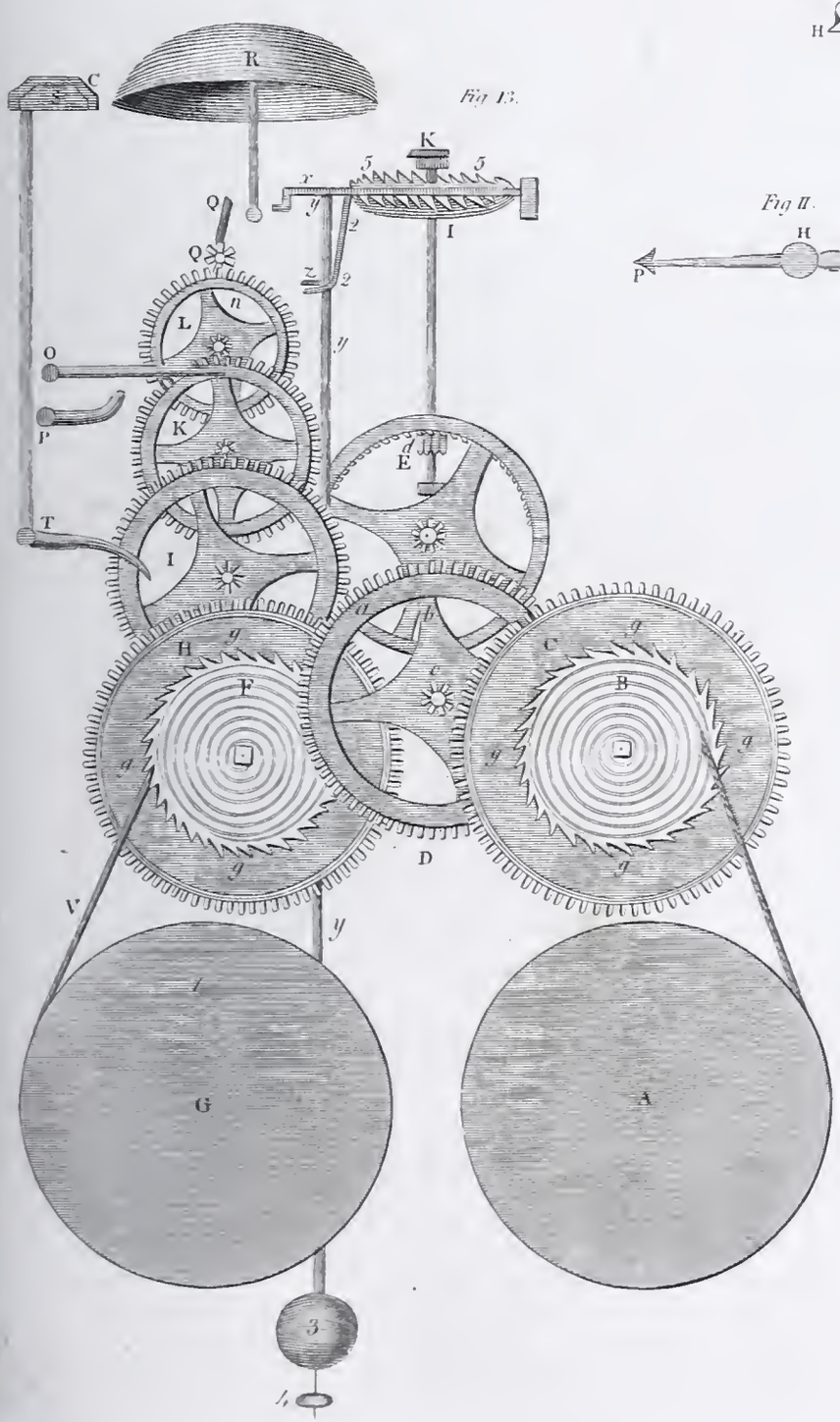


Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.

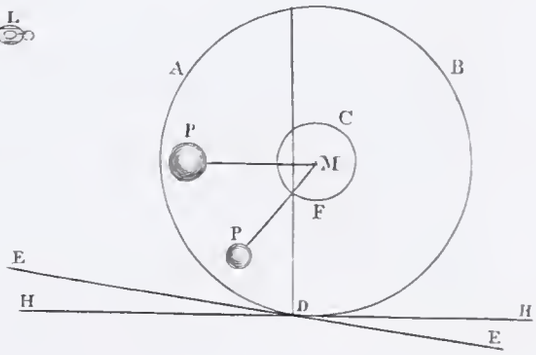
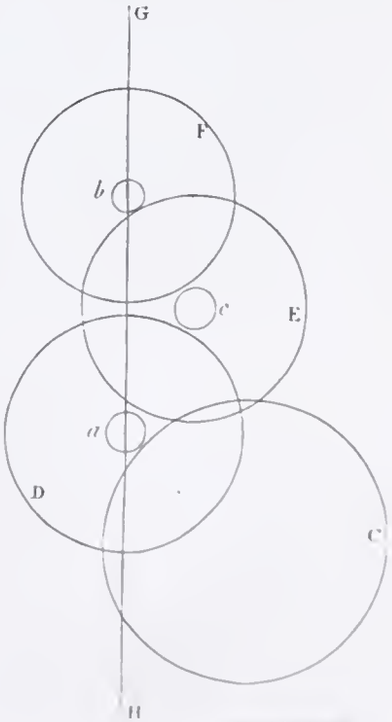


Fig. 15.



fore the people. Another, to make the power of the tribunes free in making and proposing laws. Another, to re-establish the companies of artists which had been instituted by Numa, but since his time abolished.

CLODIUS, Publius, a Roman descended of an illustrious family. He made himself famous for his licentiousness, avarice, and ambition. He committed incest with his three sisters, and introduced himself in women's clothes into the house of Julius Cæsar, whilst Pompeia, Cæsar's wife, of whom he was enamoured, was celebrating the mysteries of Ceres, where no man was permitted to appear. He was accused for this violation of human and divine laws; but he made himself tribune, and by that means screened himself from justice. He descended from a patrician into a plebeian family to become a tribune. He was such an enemy to Cato, that he made him go with prætorian power, in an expedition against Ptolemy king of Cyprus, that by the difficulty of the campaign he might ruin his reputation, and destroy his interest at Rome during his absence. Cato, however, by his uncommon success, frustrated the designs of Clodius. He was also an inveterate enemy to Cicero, and by his influence he banished him from Rome, partly on pretence that he had punished with death and without trial the adherents of Catiline. He wreaked his vengeance upon Cicero's house, which he burnt, and set all his goods to sale; which, however, to his great mortification, no one offered to buy. In spite of Clodius, Cicero was recalled, and all his goods restored to him. Clodius was some time after murdered by Milo, whose defence Cicero took upon himself.

CLOGHER, an episcopal town of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, and province of Ulster. It sent two members to the Irish parliament. In a very early age an abbey of regular canons, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, was founded here. St Patrick is said to have presided over the church of Clogher; and having appointed St Kertenn to be his successor, he resigned this government, and went to Armagh, where he founded his celebrated abbey. On the 20th of April 1396, a dreadful fire burnt to the ground the church, the two chapels, the abbey, the court of the bishops, and thirty-two other buildings, with all the sacerdotal vestments, utensils, &c. belonging to the bishop's chapter and church. In the year 1610, on the 24th of July whilst George Montgomery was bishop of Clogher, King James annexed this abbey and its revenues to that see. The see (valued in the king's books at 350l. *per annum* by extent returned 15th James I.) is reputed to be worth 4000l. annually. W. Long. 6. 50. N. Lat. 54. 30.

CLOISTER (*Claustrum*), a habitation surrounded with walls, and inhabited by canons or religious, &c. In a more general sense, cloister is used for a monastery of religious of either sex. In a more restrained sense, cloister is used for the principal part of a regular monastery, consisting of a square built around; ordinarily between the church, the chapter-house, and the refectory; and over which is the dormitory. The cloisters served for several purposes in the ancient monasteries. Petrus Blesensis observes that it was here the monks held their lectures: the lecture of morality at the north side, next the church; the school on the west, and the chapter on the east; spiritual meditation, &c. being reserved for the church. Lanfranc observes, that the proper use of the cloister was for the monks to meet in, and converse together, at certain hours of the day.

The form of the cloister was square; and it had its name *claustrum*, from *claudo*, "I shut or close;" as being inclosed on its four sides with buildings. Hence in architecture, a building is still said to be in form of a cloister, when there are buildings on each of the four sides of the court.

CLONMELL, the assize town of the county of Tipperary in Ireland, is situated on the river Suir, hath a barrack for two troops of horse, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, bailiffs, and town-clerk. The river is navigable from this town to Carrick and Waterford; and there is some trade carried on here in the woollen branch, particularly by the Quakers, who are very numerous in this neighbourhood. Near this place is a spring of Spa water, that issues from the side of a rising ground, and is overlooked by a pretty steep hill, on that side of the river Suir, which is in the county of Waterford. The cures performed by drinking this water in the scurvy, and other chronic distempers, drew thither, some years ago, a great resort of people; but fashion, which reigns with an absolute authority, has brought other waters of late into higher credit. It was in this town that the celebrated and reverend Laurence Sterne was born, on the 24th of November 1713. The town consists of four cross streets, and has a spacious bridge of 20 arches over the river Suir; the market-house is strong and well built, and there is a charter-school here for forty children, to which the late John Dawson, Esq. and Sir Charles Moore, Bart. were considerable benefactors. A Dominican friary was founded at Clonmell, in 1269, and dedicated to St Dominick. In the same year Otho de Grandison erected one of the most magnificent in Ireland. In it was kept an image of St Francis, respecting the miracles wrought by which, many marvellous stories are circulated. This town is very ancient, being built before the invasion of the Danes: it was formerly defended by a square wall. Oliver Cromwell, who found more resistance from this place than any other of his conquests in the kingdom, demolished the castles and fortifications, of which now only the ruins remain: the chief Gothic church here is still kept in good repair. W. Long. 7. 27. N. Lat. 54. 14.

CLOSE, in *Heraldry*. When any bird is drawn in a coat of arms with its wings close down about it, (i. e. not displayed), and in a standing posture, they blazon it by this word *close*; but if it be flying, they call it *volant*. See Volant.

Close, in *Music*. See Cadence.

Close-Hauled, in *Navigation*, the general arrangement or trim of a ship's sails when she endeavours to make a progress in the nearest direction possible towards that point of the compass from which the wind blows. In this manner of sailing, the keel commonly makes an angle of six points with the line of the wind; but sloops and some other small vessels are said to sail almost a point nearer. All vessels, however, are supposed to make nearly a point of leeway when close-hauled, even when they have the advantage of a good

sailing

Close-hauled || Cloth.

failing breeze and ſmooth water. The angle of leeway, however, increaſes in proportion to the increaſe of the wind and ſea. In this diſpoſition of the ſails, they are all extended ſidewiſe on the ſhip, ſo that the wind as it croſſes the ſhip obliquely toward the ſtern from forwards, may fill their cavities. But as the current of wind alſo enters the ſails in an oblique direction, the effort of it to make the ſhip advance is conſiderably diminiſhed: ſhe will therefore make the leaſt progreſs when ſailing in this manner. The ſhip is ſaid to be cloſe-hauled, becauſe at this time her *tacks*, or lower corners of the principal ſails, are drawn cloſe down to her ſide to windward, the ſheets hauled cloſe-aft, and all the bow-lines drawn to their greateſt extenſion to keep the ſails ſteady.

Close-Quarters, certain ſtrong barriers of wood, ſtretching acroſs a merchant-ſhip in ſeveral places. They are uſed as places of retreat when a ſhip is boarded by her adverſary, and are therefore fitted with ſeveral ſmall loop-holes through which to fire the ſmall arms, and thereby annoy the enemy, and defend themſelves. They are likewiſe furniſhed with ſeveral caiſons called *powder-cheſts*, which are fixed upon the deck, and filled with powder, old nails, &c. and may be fired at any time from the cloſe-quarters upon the boarders.

Falconer's Dict. of the Marine.

We have known an Engliſh merchant-ſhip of 16 guns, and properly fitted with cloſe-quarters, deſeat the united efforts of three French privateers who boarded her in the laſt war, after having engaged at ſome diſtance nearly a day and a half, with very few intervals of reſt. Two of the cruiſers were equipped with twelve guns each, and the other with eight. The French ſailors were, after boarding, ſo much expoſed to continued fire of muſquetry and cohorns charged with granadoes, that a dreadful ſcene of carnage enſued, in which the decks were ſoon covered with the dead bodies of the enemy, ſeveral of which the boarders, in their hurry to eſcape, had left behind.

CLOT-BIRD: a ſpecies of FRINGILLA. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CLOTH, in commerce, a manufacture made of wool, wove in the loom.

Cloths are of divers qualities, fine or coarſe. The goodneſs of cloth, according to ſome, conſiſts in the following particulars: 1. That the wool be of a good quality, and well dreſſed. 2. It muſt be equally ſpun, carefully obſerving that the thread of the warp be finer and better twiſted than that of the woof. 3. The cloth muſt be well wrought, and beaten on the loom, ſo as to be everywhere equally compact. 4. The wool muſt not be finer at one end of the piece than in the reſt. 5. The liſts muſt be ſufficiently ſtrong, of the ſame length with the ſtuff, and muſt conſiſt of good wool, hair, or oſtrich-feathers; or, what is ſtill better, of Daniſh dog's hair. 6. The cloth muſt be free from knots and other imperfections. 7. It muſt be well ſcoured with fullers earth, well fulled with the beſt white ſoap, and afterwards waſhed in clear water. 8. The hair or nap muſt be well drawn out with the teazel, without being too much opened. 9. It muſt be ſhorn cloſe without making it threadbare. 10. It muſt be well-dried. 11. It muſt not be tenter-ſtretched, to force it to its juſt dimenſions. 12. It muſt be preſſed cold, not hot-preſſed, the latter being very injurious to woollen cloth.

Cloth.

Manufacturing of white Cloths which are intended for dyeing. The beſt wool for the manufacturing of cloths are thoſe of England and Spain, eſpecially thoſe of Lincolnſhire and Segovia. To uſe thoſe wools to the beſt advantage, they muſt be ſcoured, by putting them into a liquor ſomewhat more than luke-warm, compoſed of three parts of fair water and one of urine. After the wool has continued long enough in the liquor to ſoak, and diſſolve the greaſe, it is drained and well waſhed in running water. When it feels dry, and has no ſmell but the natural one of the ſheep, it is ſaid to be duly ſcoured.

After this, it is hung to dry in the ſhade; the heat of the ſun making it harſh and inflexible: when dry, it is beat with rods upon hurdles of wood, or on cords, to cleanſe it from duſt and the groſſer filth; the more it is thus beat and cleanſed, the ſofter it becomes, and the better for ſpinning. After beating, it muſt be well picked, to free it from the reſt of the filth that had eſcaped the rods.

It is now in a proper condition to be oiled, and carded on large iron cards placed ſlopewiſe. Olive oil is eſteemed the beſt for this purpoſe; one-fifth of which ſhould be uſed for the wool intended for the woof, and a ninth for that deſigned for the warp. After the wool has been well oiled, it is given to the ſpinners, who firſt card it on the knee, with ſmall fine cards, and then ſpin it on the wheel, obſerving to make the thread of the warp ſmaller by one-third than that of the woof, and much compacter twiſted.

The thread thus ſpun, is reeled, and made into ſkeins. That deſigned for the woof is wound on little tubes, pieces of paper, or ruſhes, ſo diſpoſed as that they may be eaſily put in the eye of the ſhuttle. That for the warp is wound on a kind of large wooden bobbins, to diſpoſe of it for warping. When warped, it is ſtiffened with ſize; the beſt of which is that made of ſhreds of parchment; and when dry, is given to the weavers, who mount it on the loom.

The warp thus mounted, the weavers, who are two to each loom, one on each ſide, tread alternately on the treddle, firſt on the right ſtep, and then on the left, which raiſes and lowers the threads of the warp equally; between which they throw tranſverſely the ſhuttle from the one to the other; and every time that the ſhuttle is thus thrown, and a thread of the woof inſerted within the warp, they ſtrike it conjunctly with the ſame frame, wherein is faſtened the comb or reed, between whoſe teeth the threads of the warp are paſſed, repeating the ſtroke as often as is neceſſary.

The weavers having continued their work till the whole warp is filled with the woof, the cloth is finiſhed; it is then taken off the loom by unrolling it from the beam whereon it had been rolled in proportion as it was wove; and now given to be cleanſed of the knots, ends of threads, ſtraws, and other filth, which is done with iron nippers.

In this condition it is carried to the fullery, to be ſcoured with urine, or a kind of potters clay, well ſteeped in water, put along with the cloth in the trough wherein it is fulled. The cloth being again cleared

Cloth || Cloud.

cleared from the earth or urine, is returned to the former hands to have the leſſer filth, ſmall ſtraws, &c. taken off as before: then it is returned to the fuller to be beat and fulled with hot water, wherein a ſuitable quantity of ſoap has been diſſolved; after fulling, it is taken out to be ſmoothed or pulled by the liſts lengthwiſe, to take out the wrinkles, crevices, &c.

The ſmoothing is repeated every two hours, till the fulling be finiſhed, and the cloth brought to its proper breadth; after which it is waſhed in clear water, to purge it of the ſoap, and given wet to the carders to raiſe the hair or nap on the right ſide with the thiſtle or weed. After this preparation, the cloth-worker takes the cloth, and gives it its firſt cut or ſhearing; then the carders reſume it, and after wetting, give it as many more courſes with the teazle, as the quality of the ſtuff requires, always obſerving to begin againſt the grain of the hair, and to end with it; as alſo to begin with a ſmoother thiſtle, proceeding ſtill with one ſharper and ſharper, as far as the ſixth degree.

After theſe operations, the cloth being dried, is returned to the cloth-worker, who ſhears it a ſecond time, and returns it to the carders, who repeat their operation as before, till the nap be well ranged on the ſurface of the cloth, from one end of the piece to the other.

The cloth thus wove, ſcoured, napped, and ſhorn, is ſent to the dyer; when dyed, it is waſhed in fair water, and the worker takes it again wet as it is, lays the nap with a bruſh on the table, and hangs it on the tenters, where it is ſtretched both in length and breadth ſufficiently to ſmooth it, ſet it ſquare, and bring it to its proper dimenſions, without ſtraining it too much; obſerving to bruſh it afreſh, the way of the nap, while a little moiſt, on the tenters.

When quite dry, the cloth is taken off the tenters, and bruſhed again on the table, to finiſh the laying of the nap; after which it is folded, and laid cold under a preſs, to make it perfectly ſmooth and even, and give it a gloſs.

Laſtly, the cloth being taken out of the preſs, and the papers, &c. for gloſſing it removed, it is in a condition for ſale or uſe. With regard to the manufacture of mixt cloths, or thoſe wherein the wools are firſt dyed, and then mixt, ſpun, and wove of the colours intended, the proceſs, except what relates to the colour, is moſtly the ſame with that juſt repreſented.

CLOTH made from Vegetable Filaments. See BARK and FILAMENTS.

Incombuſtible CLOTH. See ASBESTOS.

CLOTHO, the youngeſt of the three Parcæ, daughters of Jupiter and Themis. She was ſuppoſed to preſide over the moment that we are born. She held the diſtaff in her hand, and ſpun the thread of life, whence her name κλωθειν, *to ſpin*. She was repreſented wearing a crown with ſeven ſtars, and covered with a variegated robe.

CLOUD, a collection of vapours ſuſpended in the atmoſphere.

1 Cauſe of the formation of clouds uncertain.

That the clouds are formed from the aqueous vapours, which before were ſo cloſely united with the atmoſphere as to be inviſible, is univerſally allowed; but it is no eaſy matter to account for the long continuance of ſome very opaque clouds without diſſolving; or to give a reaſon why the vapours, when they have once begun to condenſe, do not continue to do ſo till they at laſt fall to the ground in the form of rain or ſnow, &c. The general cauſe of the formation of clouds, it has been ſuppoſed, is a ſeparation of the latent heat from the water of which the vapour is compoſed. The conſequence of this ſeparation muſt be the condenſation of that vapour, in ſome degree at leaſt: in ſuch caſe, it will firſt appear as a ſmoke, miſt, or fog; which, if interpoſed betwixt the ſun and earth, will form a cloud; and the ſame cauſes continuing to act, the cloud will produce rain or ſnow. But though the ſeparation of this latent heat in a certain degree is the immediate cauſe of the formation of clouds, the remote cauſe, or the changes produced in the atmoſphere, whereby ſuch a ſeparation may be induced, are much more difficult to be diſcovered. In common obſervation, we ſee that vapour is moſt powerfully condenſed by cold ſubſtances, ſuch as metals, water, &c. But cold alone cannot in all caſes cauſe the condenſation of the atmoſpherical vapours, otherwiſe the nights behoved to be always foggy or cloudy, owing to the vapours, raiſed throughout the day by the heat of the ſun, being condenſed by the ſuperior coldneſs of the night. Great rains may happen in very warm weather, when the union of the vapours with the atmoſphere ought rather to be promoted than diſſolved, if cold were the only agent in their condenſation. The ſerenity of the atmoſphere, alſo, in the moſt ſevere froſts, abundantly ſhows that ſome other cauſe beſides mere heat or cold is concerned in the formation of clouds, and condenſation of the atmoſpherical vapours.

2 Not always owing to cold.

3 Electricity probably concerned.

The electric fluid is now ſo generally admitted as an agent in all the great operations of nature, that it is no wonder to find the formation of clouds attributed to it. This hath accordingly been given by S. Beccaria as the cauſe of the formation of all clouds whatſoever, whether of thunder, rain, hail, or ſnow. The firſt, he thinks, are produced by a very great power of electricity, and the others by one more moderate. But though it is certain that all clouds, or even fogs and rain, are electrified in ſome degree, it ſtill remains a queſtion, whether the clouds are formed in conſequence of the vapour whereof they are compoſed being firſt electrified, or whether they become electrified in conſequence of its being firſt ſeparated from the atmoſphere, and in ſome meaſure condenſed. This hath not yet, as far as we know, been aſcertained by the experiments of Beccaria, or any other perſon; and indeed, notwithſtanding the multitude of electrical diſcoveries that have lately been made, there ſeems to be little or no foundation for aſcertaining it. Electricity is known to be in many caſes a promoter of evaporation; but no experiments have yet been brought to prove that electrified air parts with its moiſture more readily than ſuch as is not electrified; ſo that, till the properties of electrified air are farther inveſtigated, it is impoſſible to lay down any rational theory of the formation of clouds upon this principle.

4 Clouds often prodigiously electrified.

But whether the clouds are produced, i. e. the inviſible vapours floating in the atmoſphere condenſed ſo as to become viſible, by means of electricity or not, it is certain that they do contain the electric fluid in

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prodigious and inconceivable quantities, and many very terrible and deſtructive phenomena have been occaſioned by clouds very highly electrified. The moſt extraordinary inſtance of this kind perhaps on record happened in the iſland of Java, in the Eaſt Indies, in Auguſt 1772. On the 11th of that month, at midnight, a bright cloud was obſerved covering a mountain in the diſtrict called *Cheribon*, at the ſame time ſeveral reports were heard like thoſe of a gun. The people who dwelt upon the upper parts of the mountain not being able to fly faſt enough, a great part of the cloud, almoſt three leagues in circumference, detached itſelf under them, and was ſeen at a diſtance riſing and falling like the waves of the ſea, and emitting globes of fire ſo luminous, that the night became as clear as day. The effects of it were aſtoniſhing; every thing was deſtroyed for ſeven leagues round; the houſes were demoliſhed; plantations were buried in the earth; and 2140 people loſt their lives, beſides 1500 head of cattle, and a vaſt number of horſes, goats, &c.

5 Terrible deſtruction by an electrified cloud in Java.

6 By another in the iſland of Malta.

Another inſtance of a very deſtructive cloud, the electric quality of which will at preſent ſcarcely be doubted, is related by Mr Brydone, in his Tour through Malta. It appeared on the 29th of October 1757. About three quarters of an hour after midnight, there was ſeen to the ſouth-weſt of the city of Melita, a great black cloud, which, as it approached, changed its colour, till at laſt it became like a flame of fire mixed with black ſmoke. A dreadful noiſe was heard on its approach, which alarmed the whole city. It paſſed over the port, and came firſt on an Engliſh ſhip, which in an inſtant was torn in pieces, and nothing left but the hulk; part of the maſts, ſails, and cordage, were carried to a conſiderable diſtance along with the cloud. The ſmall boats and felloques that fell in its way were all broken to pieces and ſunk. The noiſe increaſed, and became more frightful. A ſentinel, terrified at its approach, ran into his box; but both he and it were lifted up and carried into the ſea, where he periſhed. It then traverſed a conſiderable part of the city, and laid in ruins almoſt every thing that ſtood in its way. Several houſes were laid level with the ground, and it did not leave one ſteeple in its paſſage. The bells of ſome of them, together with the ſpires, were carried to a conſiderable diſtance; the roofs of the churches demoliſhed and beat down, &c. It went off at the north-eaſt point of the city, and demoliſhing the light-houſe, is ſaid to have mounted up into the air with a frightful noiſe; and paſſed over the ſea to Sicily, where it tore up ſome trees, and did other damage; but nothing conſiderable, as its fury had been moſtly ſpent at Malta. The number of killed and wounded amounted to near 200; and the loſs of ſhipping, &c. was very conſiderable.

The effects of thunder-ſtorms, and the vaſt quantity of electricity collected in the clouds which produce theſe ſtorms, are ſo well known, that it is ſuperfluous to mention them. It appears, however, that even the clouds are not ſo highly electrified as to produce their fatal effects on thoſe who are immerſed in them. It is only the diſcharge of part of their electricity upon ſuch bodies as are either not electrified at all, or not ſo highly electrified as the cloud, that does all the miſchief. We have, however, only the following inſtance on record, of any perſons being immerſed in the body of a thunder-cloud. Profeſſor Sauſſure and young Mr Jalabert, when travelling over one of the high Alps, were caught among clouds of this kind; and, to their aſtoniſhment, found their bodies ſo full of electrical fire, that ſpontaneous flaſhes darted from their fingers with a crackling noiſe, and the ſame kind of ſenſation as when ſtrongly electrified by art.

7 Inſtance of two people involved in a thunder-cloud.

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8 Height of the clouds.

The height of clouds in general is not great; the ſummits of very high mountains being commonly quite free from them, as Mr Brydone experienced in his journey up Mount Ætna; but thoſe which are moſt highly electrified deſcend loweſt, their height being often not above ſeven or eight hundred yards above the ground; nay, ſometimes thunder-clouds appear actually to touch the ground with one of their edges *: but the generality of clouds are ſuſpended at the height of a mile, or little more, above the earth. Some, however, have imagined them to ariſe to a moſt incredible and extravagant height. Maignan of Thouloufe, in his Treatiſe of Perſpective, p. 93, gives an account of an exceeding bright little cloud that appeared at midnight in the month of Auguſt, which ſpread itſelf almoſt as far as the zenith. He ſays that the ſame thing was alſo obſerved at Rome; and from thence concludes that the cloud was a collection of vapours raiſed beyond the projection of the earth's ſhadow, and of conſequence illuminated by means of the ſun. This, however, can by no means be credited; and it is much more probable that this cloud owed its ſplendor to electricity, than to the reflection of the ſolar beams.

* See *Thunder*.

9 Their various colours accounted for.

In the evenings after ſunſet, and mornings before ſunriſe, we often obſerve the clouds tinged with beautiful colours. They are moſtly red; ſometimes orange, yellow, or purple; more rarely bluiſh; and ſeldom or never green. The reaſon of this variety of colours, according to Sir Iſaac Newton, is the different ſize of the globules into which the vapours are condenſed. This is controverted by Mr Melville, who thinks that the clouds reflect the ſun's light preciſely as it is tranſmitted to them through the atmoſphere. This reflects the moſt refrangible rays in the greateſt quantity; and therefore ought to tranſmit the leaſt refrangible ones, red, orange, and yellow to the clouds, which accordingly appear moſt uſually of thoſe colours. In this opinion he was greatly confirmed by obſerving, when he was in Switzerland, that the ſnowy ſummits of the Alps turned more and more reddiſh after ſunſet, in the ſame manner as the clouds; and he imagines that the ſemitranſparency of the clouds, and the obliquity of their ſituation, tend to make the colours in them much more rich and copious than thoſe on the tops of ſnowy mountains.

10 Of the motions of clouds.

The motions of the clouds, though ſometimes directed by the wind, are not always ſo, eſpecially when thunder is about to enſue. In this caſe they ſeem to move very ſlowly, and often to be abſolutely ſtationary for ſome time. The reaſon of this moſt probably is, that they are impelled by two oppoſite ſtreams of air nearly of equal ſtrength; by which means their velocity is greatly retarded. In ſuch caſes both the aerial currents ſeem to aſcend to a very conſiderable height; for Meſſ. Charles and Roberts, when endeavouring to avoid a thunder-cloud in one of their aerial voyages, could

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could find no alteration in the course of the current, though they ascended to the height of 4000 feet from the surface of the earth. In some cases the motions of the clouds evidently depend on their electricity, independent of any current of air whatever. Thus, in a calm and warm day, we often see small clouds meeting each other in opposite directions, and setting out from such short distances, that we cannot suppose any opposite winds to be the cause. These clouds, when they meet, instead of forming a larger one, become much less, and sometimes vanish altogether; a circumstance undoubtedly owing to the discharge of opposite electricities into each other. This serves also to throw some light on the true cause of the formation of clouds; for if two clouds electrified, the one positively and the other negatively, destroy each other in contact; it follows, that any quantity of vapour suspended in the atmosphere, while it retains its natural quantity of electricity, remains invisible, but becomes a cloud when electrified either *plus* or *minus*. A difficulty, however, still occurs; viz. in what manner a small quantity of vapour surrounded by an immense ocean of the same kind of matter, can acquire either more or less electricity than that which surrounds it; and this indeed we seem not as yet to have any data to solve in a satisfactory manner.

11 Their shapes.

The shapes of the clouds are likewise undoubtedly owing to their electricity; for in those seasons in which a great commotion has been excited in the atmospherical electricity, we shall perceive the clouds assuming strange and whimsical shapes, which vary almost every moment. This, as well as the meeting of small clouds in the air, and vanishing upon contact, is an almost infallible sign of thunder.

12 Connection of the clouds with wind.

Besides the phenomena of thunder, rain, &c. the clouds are intimately connected with those of wind, and always assume a particular shape, when a strong continued wind is about to ensue; though it is remarkable, that in the strongest winds we shall often observe them stationary. Sometimes also, on the approach of a cloud, we shall find a sudden and violent gust of wind arise; and at others, the wind, though violent before shall cease on the approach of a cloud, and recover its strength as soon as the cloud is past. This connection of the clouds with wind is most remarkable in mountainous countries, when the peaks are sufficiently high to have their tops involved in clouds. A very remarkable mountain of this kind is met with at the Cape of Good Hope; from the clouds on whose top, according to the relations of travellers, the winds issue forth as if they had been confined in a bag; and something similar has been observed of mountains in other parts of the world.

13 Their uses.

The uses of the clouds are evident; as from them proceeds the rain which refreshes the earth; and without which, according to the present system of nature, the whole surface of the earth must be a mere desert. They are likewise of great use as a screen interposed between the earth and the scorching rays of the sun which are often so powerful as to destroy the grass and other tender vegetables. In the more secret operations of nature also, where the electrical fluid is concerned, the clouds bear a principal share; and serve especially as a medium for conveying that fluid from the atmosphere into the earth, and from the earth into the atmosphere; in doing which, when electrified to a great degree, they sometimes produce very terrible effects; of which instances have been already given.

Cloud || Clouts.

CLOVE-TREE. See CARYOPHYLLUS, BOTANY *Index*.

CLOVE, a term used in weights of wool. Seven pounds make a clove. In Essex, eight pounds of cheese and butter go to the clove.

CLOVE July-flower. See DIANTHUS, BOTANY *Index*.

CLOVER-GRASS. See TRIFOLIUM, BOTANY *Index*, and AGRICULTURE *Index*.

CLOUGH, or DRAUGHT, in commerce, an allowance of two pounds in every hundred weight for the turn of the scale, that the commodity may hold out weight when sold out by retail.

CLOVIO, GIORGIO GIULIO, history and portrait painter, was born in Sclavonia, in 1498. Having in the early part of his youth applied himself to literature, his genius prompted him to pursue the art of painting for a profession; and at 18 years of age he went to Rome, where he spent three years to perfect his hand in drawing, and devoted himself entirely to painting in miniature. His knowledge of colouring was established by the instructions of Julio Romano, and his taste of composition and design was founded on the observations he made on the works of Michael Angelo Buonaroti. By those assistances he arrived at such a degree of excellence in portrait as well as in history, that in the former he was accounted equal to Titian, and in the latter not inferior to Buonaroti. He died in 1578. His works are exceedingly valuable, and are at this day numbered among the curiosities of Rome. Vasari, who had seen the wonderful performances of Clovio, with inexpressible astonishment, enumerates many of his portraits and historical compositions, and seems to be almost at a loss for language sufficiently expressive of their merit. He mentions two or three pictures on which the artist had bestowed the labour of nine years; but the principal picture represented Nimrod, building the Tower of Babel; which was so exquisitely finished, and so perfect in all its parts, that it seemed quite inconceivable how the eye or the pencil could execute it. He says it is impossible to imagine any thing so admirably curious; whether one considers the elegance of the attitudes, the richness of the composition, the delicacy of the naked figures, the perspective proportion of the objects, the tender distances, the scenery, the buildings, or other ornaments; for every part is beautiful and inimitable. He also takes notice of a single ant introduced in one of the pictures of this master; which, though exceedingly and incredibly small, is yet so perfect, that even the most minute member was as distinct as if it had been painted of the natural size.

CLOVIS I. was the real founder of the French monarchy; for he was the first conqueror of the several provinces of Gaul, possessed before his time by the Romans, Germans, and Goths. These he united to the then scanty dominions of France, removed the seat of government from Soissons to Paris, and made this the capital of his new kingdom. He died in 511, in the 46th year of his age and 31st of his reign. See (*Hist. of*) FRANCE.

CLOUTS, in *Gunnery*, are thin plates of iron nailed

Clouts || Cluny.

ed on that part of the axle-tree of a gun-carriage which comes through the nave, and through which the linspin goes.

CLOYNE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork and province of Munster. W. Long. 8. 0. N. Lat. 51. 40. It is but a small place, though an episcopal residence. A church was built, and a bishopric erected here, by St Colman, who died on the 4th of November 604; and in 707 an abbey was also founded here. In 1430, the bishopric was united to that of Cork; and the union continued till the 11th of November 1638, when Dr George Synge was consecrated bishop of Cloyne; since which time this see has been governed by its own prelates, one of whom was the celebrated Berkeley. This see is not taxed in the king's books; but is now reputed to be worth 2500l. a-year. The chapter of Cloyne is composed of a dean, chapter, chancellor, treasurer, an archdeacon, and fourteen prebendaries. The diocese is divided into four rural deaneries, and the collegiate church of St Mary of Youghal is united to the bishopric. The cathedral is a decent Gothic building. The nave is about 120 feet long; having lateral aisles, besides the cross aisles, divided by Gothic arches, five on each side. In the choir there is an excellent organ. The bishop's palace, which was rebuilt at the beginning of the present century, is large and convenient. To the north-west of Cloyne is a reputed holy well, dedicated to St Colman, which is much frequented on the 24th of November, being the patron day.

CLUE OF A SAIL, the lower corner; and hence

CLUE-Garnets are a sort of tackles fastened to the clues, or lower corners of the mainsail or foresail to truss them up to the yard as occasion requires, which is usually termed *clueing up the sails*.

CLUE-Lines are for the same purpose as clue-garnets; only that the latter are confined to the courses, whereas the former are common to all the square sails. See these ropes as represented in the article SHIP.

CLUNIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a principal town of the Hither Spain, a Roman colony, with a conventus juridicus, on the Durius, to the west of Numantia, Now *Corunna del Conde*.

CLUNIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Corsica, near Bastia. Now *St Catharine*.

CLUNY, or CLUGNY, a celebrated abbey of Benedictine monks, in a city of that name; being the head or chief of a congregation denominated from them.

It is situated in the Masonnois, a little province of France, on the river Grône; and was founded by William duke of Berry and Aquitain; or, as others say, by the abbot Bernon, supported by that duke, in the year 910.

This abbey was anciently so very spacious and magnificent, that in 1245, after the holding of the first council of Lyons, Pope Innocent IV. went to Cluny, accompanied with the two patriarchs of Antioch and Constantinople, 12 cardinals, 3 archbishops, 15 bishops, and a great number of abbots; who were all entertained, without one of the monks being put out of their place; though S. Louis Q. Blanche his mother, the duke of Artois his brother, and his sister, the emperor of Constantinople, the sons of the kings of Arragon and Castile, the duke of Burgundy, six counts, and a great number of lords, with all their retinues, were there at the same time.

Cluny, Clupea.

Cluny, at its first erection, was put under the immediate protection of the apostolic see, with express prohibition to all secular and ecclesiastic powers, to disturb the monks in the possession of their effects, or the election of their abbot. By this they pretended to be exempted from the jurisdiction of bishops; which at length gave the hint to other abbeys to insist on the same.

Cluny is the head of a very numerous and extensive congregation: in effect, it was the first congregation of divers monasteries united under one chief, so as only to constitute one body, or, as they call it, one order, that ever arose.

This order of monks was brought into England by William, earl of Warren, son-in-law to William the Conqueror, who built a house for them at Lewes in Sussex about the year 1077. There were 27 priories and fells of this order in England, which were governed by foreigners, afterwards made denizens.

CLUPEA, or HERRING, in *Ichthyology*, a genus belonging to the order of abdominales. The upper jaw is furnished with a serrated mystache; the branchiostege membrane has eight rays; a scaly serrated line runs along the belly from the head to the tail; and the belly-fins have frequently nine rays. There are 11 species, viz.

1. The *harengus*, or common herring, has no spots, and the under jaw is longer than the upper one. A herring dies immediately after it is taken out of the water; whence the proverb arises, *As dead as a herring*. The meat is everywhere in great esteem, being fat, soft, and delicate; especially if it is dressed as soon as caught, for then it is incomparably better than on the next day.

The herring was unknown to the ancients. Notwithstanding the words χαλκις and μαινις are by translators rendered *halec*, the characters given to those fish are common to such numbers of different species as render it impossible to say which they intended.

1 Herrings where found.

Herrings are found from the highest northern latitudes yet known, as low as the northern coasts of France; and except one instance, brought by Dod, of a few being once taken in the bay of Tangier, none are ever found more southerly. They are met with in vast shoals on the coast of America, as low as Carolina. In Chesapeak-bay is an annual inundation of those fish, which cover the shore in such quantities as to become a nuisance. We find them again in the seas of Kamtschatka, and probably they reach Japan; for Kempfer mentions, in his account of the fish of that country, some that are congenerous. The great winter rendezvous of the herring is within the arctic circle: there they continue for many months in order to recruit themselves after the fatigue of spawning; the seas within that space swarming with insect food in a far greater degree than those of our warmer latitudes.

2 Immense shoals of them.

This mighty army begins to put itself in motion in the spring; we distinguish this vast body by that name; for the word *herring* comes from the German *heer*, "an army," to express their numbers. They begin to appear off the Shetland isles in April and May; these are only the forerunners of the grand shoal which comes

Clupea.

comes in June; and their appearance is marked by certain ſigns, by the number of birds, ſuch as gannets and others, which follow to prey on them; but when the main body approaches, its breadth and depth is ſuch as to alter the appearance of the very ocean. It is divided into diſtinct columns of five or ſix miles in length, and three or four in breadth, and they drive the water before them with a kind of rippling: ſometimes they ſink for the ſpace of ten or fifteen minutes, and then riſe again to the ſurface; and in fine weather reflect a variety of ſplendid colours like a field of the moſt precious gems; in which, or rather in a much more valuable, light ſhould this ſtupendous gift of Providence be conſidered by the inhabitants of the Britiſh iſles.

The firſt check this army meets in its march ſouthward is from the Shetland iſles, which divide it into two parts; one wing takes to the eaſt, the other to the weſtern ſhores of Great Britain, and fill every bay and creek with their numbers; others paſs on towards Yarmouth, the great and ancient mart of herrings: they then paſs through the Britiſh Channel, and after that, in a manner diſappear. Thoſe which take towards the weſt, after offering themſelves to the Hebrides, where the great ſtationary fiſhery is, proceed to the north of Ireland, where they meet with a ſecond interruption, and are obliged to make a ſecond diviſion: the one takes to the weſtern ſide, and is ſcarce perceived, being ſoon loſt in the immenſity of the Atlantic; but the other, that paſſes into the Iriſh ſea, rejoices and feeds the inhabitants of moſt of the coaſts that border on it. Theſe brigades, as we may call them, which are thus ſeparated from the greater columns, are often capricious in their motions, and do not ſhow an invariable attachment to their haunts.

3 Wonderful inſtinct of theſe creatures.

Were we inclined to conſider this partial migration in a moral light, we might reflect with veneration and awe on the mighty power which originally impreſſed on this moſt uſeful body of his creatures the inſtinct that directs and points out the courſe, that bleſſes and enriches theſe iſlands, which cauſes them at certain and invariable times to quit the vaſt polar deeps, and offer themſelves to our expecting fleets. That benevolent Being has never been known, from the earlieſt account of time, once to withdraw this bleſſing from the whole; though he often thinks proper to deny it to particulars, yet this partial failure (for which we ſee no natural reaſon) ſhould fill us with the moſt exalted and grateful ſenſe of his providence for impreſſing ſuch an invariable and general inſtinct on theſe fiſh towards a ſouthward migration when the whole is to be benefited, and to withdraw it when only a minute part is to ſuffer.

This inſtinct was given them, that they might remove for the ſake of depoſiting their ſpawn in warmer ſeas, that would mature and vivify it more aſſuredly than thoſe of the frozen zone. It is not from defect of food that they ſet themſelves in motion; for they come to us full of fat, and on their return are almoſt univerſally obſerved to be lean and miſerable. What their food is near the pole we are not yet informed; but in our ſeas they feed much on the *oniſcus marinus*, a cruſtaceous inſect, and ſometimes on their own fry.

They are full of roe in the end of June, and continue in perfection till the beginning of winter, when they depoſit their ſpawn. The young herrings begin to approach the ſhores in July and Auguſt, and are then from half an inch to two inches long; thoſe in Yorkſhire are called *herring file*. Though we have no particular authority for it, yet as very few young herrings are found in our ſeas during winter, it ſeems moſt certain that they muſt return to their parental haunts beneath the ice, to repair the vaſt deſtruction of their race during ſummer by men, fowl, and fiſh. Some of the old herrings continue on our coaſt the whole year: the Scarborough fiſhermen never put down their nets but they catch a few; but the numbers that remain are not worth compariſon with thoſe that return. See *Herring-FISHERY*.

4 Young ones probably retire with their parents.

The Dutch are moſt extravagantly fond of this fiſh when it is pickled. A premium is given to the firſt buſs that arrives in Holland with a lading of this their ambroſia, and a vaſt price given for each keg. There is as much joy among the inhabitants on its arrival, as the Egyptians ſhow on the firſt overflowing of the Nile. Flanders had the honour of inventing the art of pickling herrings. One William Beauklen of Biverlet, near Sluys, hit on this uſeful expedient; from him was derived the name *pickle*, which we borrow from the Dutch and German. Beauklen died in 1397. The emperor Charles V. held his memory in ſuch veneration for the ſervice he did to mankind, as to do his tomb the honour of a viſit. It is very ſingular that moſt nations give the name of their favourite diſh to the facetious attendant on every mountebank. Thus the Dutch call him *pickle herring;* the Italians *macaroni;* the French, *jean pottage;* the Germans *hans wurſt*, that is, *jack ſauſage;* and the Engliſh dignify him with the name of *jack pudding*.

5 Pickling of herrings when invented.

2. The *ſprattus* has 13 rays in the back fin. It is a native of the European ſeas, and has a great reſemblance to the herring, only it is of a leſs ſize. They come into the river Thames below bridge in the beginning of November, and leave it in March; and are, during that ſeaſon, a great relief to the poor of the capital. At Graveſend and at Yarmouth they are cured like red-herrings; they are ſometimes pickled, and are little inferior in flavour to the anchovy, but the bones will not diſſolve like thoſe of the latter.

6 Sprattus, where found.

3. The *aloſa*, or *ſhad*, has a forked ſnout, and black ſpots on the ſides. According to Belonius and Haſſelquiſt, this is a fiſh of paſſage in the Nile. The laſt ſays, it is found in the Mediterranean near Smyrna, and on the coaſt of Egypt near Roſetta; and that in the months of December and January it aſcends the Nile as high as Cairo, where the people ſtuff it with pot marjoram; and when dreſſed in that manner, it will very nearly intoxicate the eater. In Great Britain the Severn affords this fiſh in higher perfection than any other river. It makes its firſt appearance there in May, but in very warm ſeaſons in April; for its arrival ſooner or later depends much on the temper of the air. It continues in the river about two months, and then is ſucceeded by a variety which we ſhall have occaſion to mention hereafter.

7 Aloſa, or ſhad, where found.

8 The fineſt inhabit the Severn.

The Severn ſhad is eſteemed a very delicate fiſh about the time of its firſt appearance, eſpecially in that part of the river that flows by Glouceſter, where they are taken in nets, and uſually ſell dearer than ſalmon: ſome are ſent to London, where the fiſhmongers diſtinguiſh-

Clupea || Clusium.

ſtinguiſh them from thoſe of the Thames by the French name *aloſe*. Whether they ſpawn in this river and the Wye is not determined, for their fry has not yet been diſcovered. The old fiſh come from the ſea into the river in full roe. In the months of July and Auguſt, multitudes of bleak frequent the river near Glouceſter; ſome of them are as big as a ſmall herring, and theſe the fiſhermen erroneouſly ſuppoſe to be the fry of the ſhad. Numbers of theſe are taken near Glouceſter, in thoſe months only, but none of the emaciated ſhad are ever caught in their return.

The Thames ſhad does not frequent that river till the latter end of May or beginning of June, and is eſteemed a very coarſe and inſipid ſort of fiſh. The Severn ſhad is ſometimes caught in the Thames, though rarely, and called *allis* (no doubt *aloſe*, the French name) by the fiſhermen in that river. About the ſame time, and rather earlier, the variety called, near Glouceſter, the *twaite*, makes its appearance, is taken in great numbers in the Severn, and is held in as great diſrepute as the ſhad of the Thames. The differences between each variety are as follow: the true ſhad weighs ſometimes eight pounds; but their general ſize is from four to five. The *twaite*, on the contrary, weighs from half a pound to two pounds, which it never exceeds. The *twaite* differs from a ſhad only in having one or more round black ſpots on the ſides; if only one, it is always near the gill; but commonly there are three or four, placed one under the other.

9 Twaite deſcribed.

10 Anchovy deſcribed.

4. The *encraſicolus*, or *anchovy*, has its upper jaw longer than the under one, and is about three inches long. They are taken in vaſt quantities in the Mediterranean, and are brought over here pickled. The great fiſhery is at Georgia, a ſmall iſle weſt of Leghorn. See *Anchovy-FISHERY*.

The other ſpecies are, 5. The atherinoides has a ſhining line on each ſide, and ſmall belly-fins. It is a native of Surinam. 6. The thriſſa has 28 rays in the fin at the anus. It is found in the Indian ocean. 7. The ſima has yellow fins, thoſe of the belly being very ſmall. The mouth is flat; the upper jaw is very ſhort; the body is of a ſhining ſilver colour, and the fins are yellow. It is a native of Aſia. 8. The ſternicla has no belly-fins, and the body is broad. It is a native of Surinam. 9. The myſtus is ſhaped like a ſword, and the fins at the anus are united. It is found in the Indian ocean. 10. The tropica has a wedge-like tail, and a white, broad, compreſſed body. It is found at Aſcenſion iſland. 11. The ſinenſis is very like the common herring, but broader. It has no teeth, and is a native of China.

CLUSIA, the BALSAM-TREE. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLUSINA PALUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a lake of Tuſcany, extending north-weſt between Cluſium and Arretium, and communicating with the Arnus and Clanis. Now *Chiana Palude*.

CLUSINI FONTES, (Horace), baths in Tuſcany, in the territory of Cluſium, between this laſt to the north, and Acula to the ſouth, at the diſtance of eight miles from each. Now *Bagni di S. Ceſciana*.

CLUSIUM, anciently called *Camars*, (Virgil, Livy); a town of Tuſcany, at the ſouth end of the Palus Cluſina, where it forms the Clanis; the royal reſidence of Porſenna, three days journey from Rome to the north, (Polybius). *Cluſinus* the epithet. *Cluſini Veteres* the people. Now *Chiuſi*. E. Long. 13°, Lat. 43°.—*Cluſium Novum*, was a town of Tuſcany, near the ſprings of the Tiber, in the territory of Arretium; where lies the Ager Cluſinus: now called *Caſentino*. *Cluſini Novi*, the people, (Pliny).

Cluſium || Clyde.

CLUTIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLUVIER, PHILIP, in Latin *Cluverius*, a celebrated geographer, born at Dantzic in 1580. He travelled into Poland, Germany, and the Netherlands, in order to ſtudy law; but, being at Leyden. Joſeph Scaliger perſuaded him to give way to his genius for geography. Cluvier followed his advice, and for this purpoſe viſited the greateſt part of the European ſtates. He was well verſed in many languages; and wherever he went, obtained illuſtrious friends and protectors. At his return to Leyden, he taught there with great applauſe; and died in 1623, aged 43. He wrote, 1. *De tribus Rheni alveis*. 2. *Germania antiqua*. 3. *Sicilia antiqua*. 4. *Italia antiqua*. 5. *Introductio in univerſam Geographiam*. All juſtly eſteemed.

CLYDE, a large river of Scotland, which, with the rivers Tweed and Annan, has its ſource at the head of Annandale, and joins the ſea at Greenock, where it forms the Frith of Clyde. It is navigable for ſmall veſſels up to Glaſgow. The canal, which joins the Forth, falls into it ten miles below that city. The cataract called the *Falls of the Clyde*, oppoſite to Lanark, is a great natural curioſity, and the firſt ſcene of the kind in Great Britain. This tremendous ſheet of water for about a mile falls from rock to rock. At Stone-byres, the firſt fall is about 60 feet; the next at Cora-Lynn, is over ſolid rock, and is ſtill higher. At both theſe places this great body of water exhibits a grander and more intereſting ſpectacle than imagination can poſſibly conceive.

At Cora-Lynn, the falls are ſeen to moſt advantage from a pavilion placed in a lofty ſituation, and which is furniſhed with mirrors which produce a fine effect. The cataract is full in view, ſeen over the tops of trees and buſhes, precipitating itſelf, for an amazing way, from rock to rock, with ſhort interruptions, forming a rude ſlope of furious foam. The ſides are bounded by vaſt rocks, clothed on their tops with trees: on the ſummit and very verge of one is a ruined tower, and in front a wood overtopt by a verdant hill. A path conducts the traveller down to the beginning of the fall, into which projects a high rock, in floods inſulated by the water; and from the top is a tremendous view of the furious ſtream. In the cliffs of this ſavage retreat the brave Wallace is ſaid to have concealed himſelf, meditating revenge for his injured country.

On regaining the top, the walk is formed near the verge of the rocks, which on both ſides are perfectly mural and equidiſtant, except where they overhang: the river is pent up between them at a diſtance far beneath; not running, but rather ſliding along a ſtony bottom ſloping, the whole way. The ſummits of the rock are wooded; the ſides ſmooth and naked; the ſtrata narrow and regular, forming a ſtupendous natural maſonry. After a walk of above half a mile on the edge of this great chaſm, on a ſudden appears the great and bold fall of Boniton, in a foaming ſheet, far projecting into a hollow, in which the water ſhows a violent

violent agitation, and a wide extending mist arises from the surface. Above that is another fall; two lesser succeed; beyond them the river winds, grows more tranquil, and is seen for a considerable way, bounded on one side by wooded banks, on the other by rich and swelling fields.

The great fall of Stone-byres, first mentioned, has more of the sublime in it than any of the others, and is seen with more difficulty: it consists of two precipitous cataracts falling one above the other into a vast chasm, bounded by lofty rocks, forming an amazing theatre to the view of those who take the pains to descend to the bottom. Between this and Cora-Lynn there is another fall called *Dundofflin*.

CLYMENE, in fabulous history, the daughter of Oceanus, who, being beloved by Apollo, he had by her Phaëton, Lampatia, Egle, and Phebe. See PHAETON.

CLYPEOLA, TREACLE-MUSTARD. See BOTANY *Index*.

CLYSSUS, an extract prepared, not from one, but several bodies mixed together; and, among the moderns, the term is applied to several extracts prepared from the same body, and then mixed together.

CLYSTER, is a liquid remedy, to be injected chiefly at the anus into the larger intestines. It is usually administered by the bladder of a hog, sheep, or ox, perforated at each end, and having at one of the apertures an ivory pipe fastened with packthread. But the French, and sometimes the Dutch, use a pewter syringe, by which the liquor may be drawn in with more ease and expedition than in the bladder, and likewise more forcibly expelled into the large intestines. This remedy should never be administered either too hot or too cold, but tepid; for either of the former will be injurious to the bowels.

Clysters are sometimes used to nourish and support a patient who can swallow little or no aliment, by reason of some impediment in the organs of deglutition; in which case they may be made of broth, milk, ale, and decoctions of barley and oats with wine. The English introduced a new kind of clyster, made of the smoke of tobacco, which has been used by several other nations, and appears to be of considerable efficacy when other clysters prove ineffectual, and particularly in the iliac passion, in the *hernia incarcerata*, and for the recovery of drowned persons.

CLYTEMNESTRA, in fabulous history, the daughter of Jupiter and Leda. She married Agamemnon; but while that prince was at the siege of Troy, she had an amorous intrigue with Ægisthus, whom she engaged to murder Agamemnon at his return to his dominions. Her son Orestes, however, revenged the death of his father by killing Ægisthus, with his mother Clytemnestra; but was afterwards haunted by the Furies as long as he lived.

CLYTIA, or CLYTIE, daughter of Oceanus and Tethys, beloved by Apollo. She was deserted by her lover, who paid his addresses to Leucothoe; and this so irritated her, that she discovered the whole intrigue to her rival's father. Apollo despised her the more for this; and she pined away, and was changed into a flower, commonly called a *sun-flower*, which still turns its head towards the sun in his course in token of her love.

CNEORUM, WIDOW-WAIL. See BOTANY *Index*.

CNICUS, BLESSED-THISTLE. See BOTANY *Index*.

CNIDUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a Greek town of Caria; situated on a horn or promontory of a peninsula. It had in front a double port, and an island lying before it in form of a theatre, which being joined to the continent by moles or causeways, made *Cnidus* a Dipolis or double town (Strabo), because a great number of Cnidians inhabited the island. Pausanias mentions a bridge which joined the island to the continent.—*Cnidii*, the people. *Cnidius*, the epithet.—*Cnidia Venus*, a principal divinity of the Cnidians, (Horace). Her statue was executed by Praxiteles; and so exquisitely done, and so much admired, that people came from all parts to view it (Pliny). Of this place was Eudoxus, the famous astronomer and geometrician, who had there an observatory (Strabo).

CNOSSUS, or CNOSUS, anciently called *Cæratos*, from a cognominal river running by it; a city of Crete, 23 miles to the east of Gortina (Peutinger). Here stood the sepulchre of Jupiter, the famous labyrinth, and the palace of Minos, a very ancient king; here happened the adventure of Ariadne his daughter with Theseus. Called *Gnosis* (Ovid). Its port-town was Heracleum, on the east side of the island.

COACH, a vehicle for commodious travelling, suspended on leathers, and moved on wheels. In Britain, and throughout Europe, the coaches are drawn by horses, except in Spain, where they use mules. In a part of the east, especially the dominions of the great Mogul, their coaches are drawn by oxen. In Denmark they sometimes yoke rein-deer in their coaches; though rather for curiosity than use. The coachman is ordinarily placed on a seat raised before the body of the coach. But the Spanish policy has displaced him in that country by a royal ordinance; on occasion of the duke d'Olivares, who found that a very important secret, whereon he had conferred in his coach, had been overheard and revealed by his coachman: since that time the place of the Spanish coachman is the same with that of the French stage coachman and our postilion, viz. on the first horse on the left.

According to Professor Beckmann, coaches of some kind were known about the beginning of the 16th century; but the use of them was limited to women of the highest rank. It was accounted disgraceful in men to ride in them. It appears from the history of that period, that the electors and princes of the empire, when they did not choose to attend the meetings of the states, excused themselves to the emperor, by informing him, that their health would not permit them to travel on horseback; and it was considered unbecoming to ride in carriages like women. But it seems also pretty certain, that about the end of the 15th century, the emperor, kings, and some princes, travelled in covered carriages, and also employed them on public solemnities.

The nuptial carriage of the first wife of Leopold, a Spanish princess, cost, including the harness, 38,000 florins. The coaches used by that emperor are thus described. In the imperial coaches no great magnificence was to be seen, being covered over with red cloth and black nails. The harness was black, and no gold was to be seen in the whole work. They had glass pannels, for which reason they were called *impe-*

Coach. *rial coaches.* The harness was ornamented with fringes of red silk on days of festivity. The imperial coaches were only distinguished by having leather traces, while the ladies in the emperor's suite were contented with traces made of ropes. Fifty gilt coaches having six horses each; were to be seen in 1681 at the court of Ernest Augustus of Hanover. The first time that plenipotentiaries appeared in coaches, was at the imperial commission in 1613, held at Erfurth.

We meet with ample proof in the history of France, that the monarchs rode on horses, the servants on mules, and ladies of distinction sometimes on asses, at Paris, in the 14th, 15th, and even 16th centuries. Yet carriages of some kind seem to have been used in France at an early period, since there is still preserved a statute of Philip the Fair, issued in 1294, for the suppression of luxury, and in which the wives of citizens were prohibited the use of carriages.

The oldest coaches used by the ladies of England were denominated *whirlicotes*, a name now sunk in oblivion. About the end of the 14th century, when Richard II. was forced to fly before his rebellious subjects, he and all his attendants travelled on horseback, his mother alone riding in a coach, as she was indisposed. This became afterwards unfashionable, the daughter of Charles IV. having showed the ladies of England how conveniently she could ride on a side-saddle.

According to Stow, coaches first came to be used in England about the middle of the 16th century, having been introduced from Germany by the earl of Arundel. The English plenipotentiary came to Scotland in a coach in the year 1598, and they were generally used about the year 1605.

Authors observe, as a thing very singular, that there were at first no more than three coaches in Paris; the first that of the queen; the second that of Diana mistress of Henry II.; and the third belonging to Jean de Lava de Bois Dauphin; whose enormous bulk disabled him from travelling on horseback. One may hence judge how much vanity, luxury, and idleness, have grown upon our hands in latter days; there being now computed in that same city no less than 15,000 coaches.

Coaches have had the fate of all other inventions, to be brought by degrees to their perfection; at present they seem to want nothing, either with regard to ease or magnificence. Louis XIV. of France made several sumptuary laws for restraining the excessive richness of coaches, prohibiting the use of gold, silver, &c. therein; but they have had the fate to be neglected.

The following are the duties payable on carriages of this description in Britain (1804).

For one carriage, with four wheels, the annual sum of - - -	L.10	0	0
For two - - -	11	0	0
three - - -	12	0	0
four - - -	12	10	0
five - - - -	13	0	0
six - - - -	13	10	0
seven - - -	14	0	0
eight - - - -	14	10	0
nine and upwards	15	0	0
And for every additional body successively used on the same carriage or number of wheels, the further sum of -	L.5	0	0
For carriages with less than four wheels, drawn by one horse - -	5	5	0
For carriages drawn by two or more horses - - -	7	7	0
For every additional body -	2	10	0
For carriages with four wheels let out to hire - - - -	8	8	0

Every maker of coaches, chaises, chariots, &c. must, from and after the 5th day of July 1785, take out at the excise office in London, or of their agents in the country, a licence, to be renewed annually at least ten days before the expiration of the former, for which they must pay 20s. They must also pay 20s. duty for every four-wheeled carriage newly built for sale, and 10s. for every two-wheeled carriage. These duties are also payable to the commissioners of the excise in town, or their agents in the country.

Coach-makers in Scotland are to take out their licenses and pay the duties to the commissioners of excise in Edinburgh, or their agents in the country of that part of Great Britain.

Every coach-maker neglecting to take out a licence, and renewing the same annually, forfeits 10l.; and neglecting or refusing to settle every six weeks, in the manner particularly directed by the act, is a forfeiture of 20l.

Hackney-COACHES, those exposed to hire, in the streets of London, and some other great cities, at rates fixed by authority.

One thousand hackney-coaches are allowed in London and Westminster: which are to be licensed by commissioners, and to pay a duty to the crown. They are all numbered, having their numbers engraved on tin plates fixed on the coach-doors. Their fares or rates are fixed by act of parliament; and by a late act have been increased in consequence of a new weekly tax.

Stage-COACHES are those appointed for the conveyance of travellers from one city or town to another. The masters of stage coaches are not liable to an action for things lost by their coachmen, who have money given them to carry the goods, unless where such master takes a price for the same.

Persons keeping any coach, berlin, landau, or other carriage with four wheels, or any calash, chaise, chair, or other carriage with two wheels, to be employed as public stage-coaches or carriages, for the purpose of conveying passengers for hire to and from different places, shall pay annually 5s. for a licence; and no person so licensed shall by virtue of one licence keep more than one carriage, under the penalty of 10l.

Mail-COACHES are stage-coaches of a particular construction to prevent overturns; and for a certain consideration carry his majesty's mails, which are protected by a guard, and subject to the regulations of the post-office. They are punctual as to their time of arrival and departure, are restricted to four inside passengers, and from experience have proved very beneficial to the commerce and correspondence of this country. The late John Palmer, Esq. who had the merit of the invention, and was indefatigable in bringing the establishment to a permanent footing, was greatly patronized

Coach || Coal.

tronized by government; and got, as the reward of his service, a handsome appointment in the general post-office, London. See *WHEEL-Carriages*.

COACH, or COUCH, is also a sort of chamber or apartment in a large ship of war near the stern. The floor of it is formed by the aftmost part of the quarter-deck, and the roof of it by the poop: it is generally the habitation of the captain.

COADUNATE, in *Botany*, an order of plants in the *fragmenta methodi naturalis* of Linnæus, in which he has these genera, viz. annona, liriodendrum, magnolia, uvaria, michelia, thea.

COAGULATION, in *Chemistry*, is performed by six different agents; and by each of these in several different manners. 1. It is performed with water, by congealing, crystallizing, and precipitating, as in the mercurius vitæ and some other preparations. 2. With oil, which, by the force of fire, unites with sulphur, salts, and metals. 3. With alcohol, upon the spirit of sal ammoniac, the white of eggs, the serum of the blood, &c. 4. With acid and alkali growing solid together, as in the tartarum vitriolatum. 5. With fixed alkali, as in milk. And, 6. With acid salts; as in milk, serum, and the whites of eggs.

COAGULUM, is the same with what in English we call *runnet*, or rather the curd formed thereby.

COAKS. For the exciting of intense heats, as for the smelting of iron ore, and for operations where the acid and oily particles would be detrimental, as the drying of malt, fossil-coals are previously charred, or reduced to *coaks*; that is, they are made to undergo an operation similar to that by which charcoal is made. By this operation coals are deprived of their phlegm, their acid liquor, and part of their fluid oil. Coaks, therefore, consist of the two most fixed constituent parts, the heavy oil and the earth, together with the acid concrete salt, which, though volatile, is dissolved by the oil and the earth.

COAL, among chemists, signifies any substance containing oil, which has been exposed to the fire in close vessels, so that all its volatile principles are expelled, and that it can sustain a red heat without further decomposition. Coal is commonly solid, black, very dry, and considerably hard. The specific character of perfect coal is its capacity of burning with access of air, while it becomes red hot and sparkles, sometimes with a sensible flame which gives little light, with no smoke or soot capable of blackening white bodies.

Coal, or carbonaceous matter, is capable of decomposing sulphuric acid, and separates the sulphur: added to nitrous acid, it inflames it; or to metallic earths, it reduces them to metals. But in these processes, or new combinations, the assistance of red heat is required. Coal seems to be an unalterable compound in every instance but those mentioned, of burning in the open air, and of separating oxygen from other bodies: for it may be exposed in close vessels to the most violent and long-continued fire without suffering the least decomposition. No disposition to fuse, or any diminution of weight, can be perceived. It is a substance exceedingly fixed, and perhaps the most refractory in nature. It resists the action of the most powerful menstrua, liver of sulphur alone excepted.

Coal.

Coal is evidently a result of the decomposition of the compound bodies from which it is obtained. It consists of the greatest part of the earthy principle of these compound bodies, with which a part of the saline principles, and some of the phlogiston of the decomposed oil, are fixed and combined very intimately. Coal can never be formed but by the phlogiston of a body which has been in an oily state; hence it cannot be formed by sulphur, phosphorus, metals, nor by any other substance the phlogiston of which is not in an oily state. Also every oily matter treated with fire in close vessels, furnishes true coal; so that whenever a charry residuum is left, we may be certain that the substance employed in the operation contained oil. Lastly, the inflammable principle of coal, although it proceeds from oil, certainly is not oil, but pure phlogiston, since coal added to sulphuric acid can form sulphur, to phosphoric acid can form phosphorus, &c. and since oil can produce none of these effects till it has been decomposed and reduced to the state of coal. Besides, the phenomena accompanying the burning of coal are different from those which happen when oily substances are burnt. The flame of charcoal is not so bright as that of oil, and produces no flame or soot.

This is the old chemical doctrine and language.

All the phlogiston of coal is not burnt in the open air, particularly when the combustion is slow. One part of it exhales without decomposition, and forms a vapour, or an invisible and insensible gas. This vapour (which is, or at least contains a great deal of fixed air) is found to be very pernicious, and to affect the animal system in such a manner as to occasion death in a very short time. For this reason it is dangerous to remain in a close place, where charcoal or any other sort of coal is burnt. Persons struck by this vapour are stunned, faint, suffer a violent headach, and fall down senseless and motionless. The best method of recovering them is by exposure to the open air, and by making them swallow vinegar, and breathe its steam.

Amongst coals, some differences are observable, which proceed from the difference of the bodies from which they are made; some coals, particularly, are more combustible than others. This combustibility seems to depend on the greater or less quantity of saline principle they contain; that is, the more of the saline principle it contains, the more easily it decomposes and burns. For example, coals made of plants and wood containing much saline matter capable of fixing it, the ashes of which contain much alkaline salt, burn vigorously and produce much heat; whereas the coals of animal matters, the saline principles of which are volatile, and cannot be fixed but in small quantity, and the ashes of which contain little or no salt, are scarcely at all combustible. For they not only do not kindle so easily as charcoal does, nor even burn alone, but they cannot be reduced to ashes, without very great trouble, even when the most effectual methods are used to facilitate the combustion. The coal of bullocks blood has been kept for six hours very red in a shallow crucible, surrounded by burning charcoal, and constantly stirred all the time, that it might be totally exposed to the air; yet could it not be reduced to white, or even gray, ashes: It still remained very black, and full of phlogiston. The coals of pure oils, or of concrete

oily ſubſtances and ſoot, which is a kind of coal raiſed during inflammation, are as difficultly reduced to aſhes as animal coals. Theſe coals contain very little ſaline matter, and their aſhes yield no alkali. The coals which are ſo difficultly burnt, are alſo leſs capable of inflaming with nitre than others more combuſtible; and ſome of them even in a great meaſure reſiſt the action of nitre.

Coal, in *Mineralogy*, a kind of ſolid inflammable ſubſtance, ſuppoſed to be of a bituminous nature, and commonly uſed for fuel. Of this ſubſtance there are various ſpecies.

1. *Pit-coal (Lithanthrax)*, is a black, ſolid, compact, brittle maſs, of moderate hardneſs, lamellated ſtructure, more or leſs ſhining, but ſeldom capable of a good poliſh; and does not melt when heated. According to Kirwan, it conſiſts of petrol or aſphaltum, intimately mixed with a ſmall portion of earth chiefly argillaceous; ſeldom calcareous; and frequently mixed with pyrites. A red tincture is extracted from it by ſpirit of wine, but cauſtic alkali attacks the bituminous part. From ſome ſorts of it a varniſh may be made by means of fat oils. Fixed alkali has never been found in any kind of it, nor ſulphur, unleſs when it happens to be mixed with pyrites.—None of the various kinds are found to be electrics *per ſe* (A).

The varieties of lithanthrax, enumerated by Cronſtedt, are, 1. With a ſmall quantity of argillaceous earth and ſulphuric acid. It is of a black colour, and ſhining texture; it burns, and is moſtly conſumed in the fire, but leaves, however, a ſmall quantity of aſhes. 2. Slaty coal.

2. *Culm coal*, called *kolm*, by the Swedes, has a greater portion of argillaceous earth and ſulphuric acid, with a moderate proportion of petrol. It has the ſame appearance with the foregoing, though its texture is more dull: it burns with a flame without being conſumed, but leaves behind it a ſlag of the ſame bulk with the original volume of the coal. The following is Mr Kirwan's deſcription of it, from the memoirs of the Stockholm academy. "Its fracture has a rougher ſection than the cannel coal; its ſpecific gravity from 1.300 to 1.370. The beſt kind affords, by diſtillation, at firſt fixed air, then an acid liquor, afterwards inflammable air, and a light oil of the nature of petrol; then a volatile alkali; and laſtly pitch-oil. The reſiduum is nearly three quarters of the whole; and being ſlowly burnt, affords 13 per cent. of aſhes, which conſiſt moſtly of argillaceous earth; and about three hundredth parts of them are magnetic. It is found in England, and among ſome aluminous ores in Sweden."

3. *Slate-coal* contains ſuch a quantity of argillaceous earth, that it looks like common ſlate; however, it burns by itſelf like a flame. M. Magellan is of opinion that this is the bituminous ſubſtance already deſcribed. This ſchiſtus is of a dark bluiſh ruſty colour; when thrown on the fire it burns with a lively flame, and almoſt as readily as the oily wood of dry olive-tree, or lignum vitæ; emitting the very disagreeable ſmell of petrol. Such large quarries of it are found near Purbeck in Dorſetſhire, that the poorer part of the inhabitants are thence ſupplied with fuel. From the appearance of this ſlaty coal, Cronſtedt has been induced to ſuppoſe that the earth of all kinds of coal is argillaceous, though it is not ſo eaſy to diſtinguiſh it after being burnt. The pit-coals, he ſays, contain more or leſs of the ſulphuric acid; for which reaſon the ſmoke ariſing from them attacks ſilver in the ſame manner as ſulphur does, let the coals be ever ſo free from marcaſite, which, however, is often imbibed or mixed with them.

4. *Cannel coal (Ampelites)*, is of a dull black colour; breaks eaſily in all directions; and, if broken tranſverſely, preſents a ſmooth conchoidal ſurface. It burns with a light lively flame, but is very apt to fly in pieces in the fire; however, it is ſaid to be entirely deprived of this property by immerſion in water for ſome hours previous to its being uſed. It contains a conſiderable quantity of petrol in a leſs condenſed ſtate than other coal. Its ſpecific gravity is about 1.270. This kind of coal being of an uniform hard texture, is eaſily turned on a lathe, and takes a good poliſh. Hence it is uſed for making various toys, which appear almoſt as well as if made of the fineſt jet.

5. *Kilkenny coal* has a ſpecific gravity equal to 1.400. It contains the largeſt quantity of aſphaltum; burns with leſs ſmoke and flame, and more intenſely, though more ſlowly, than the cannel coal. The quantity of earth it contains does not exceed one-twentieth part of its weight; but this kind of coal is frequently mixed with pyrites. It is found in the county of Kilkenny,

(A) "The varieties of this coal (ſays M. Magellan) are very numerous according to the different ſubſtances with which it is mixed; but in regard to their economical uſes, only two kinds are taken notice of by the Britiſh legiſlature, viz. culm and caking coals. The caking coals, in burning, ſhow an incipient fuſion, ſo that their ſmalleſt pieces unite in the fire into one maſs; by which means the ſmalleſt pieces, and even the mere duſt of this kind, are almoſt equally valuable with the largeſt pieces. The other ſort called *culm*, does not fuſe or unite in the fierceſt fire; ſo that the ſmall coal, being unfit for domeſtic purpoſes, can only be uſed in burning limeſtone.

"It ſhould be an eaſy matter for any perſon to diſtinguiſh culm from ſmall caking coal, either by trying to make fire with it in a common grate, without interpoſing any other fuel between it; when if it kindles, it is a caking coal; if not it is culm: Or by putting ſome of theſe ſmall fragments of coal on an ignited iron ſhovel; if they melt and run together, they belong to the caking kinds; if not they are culm. But it ſeems that coal merchants are now in the cuſtom of calling *culm* the powdery parts of pit-coal, of whatſoever kind they may happen to be. The reaſon of this is, that there is a difference in the duty payable by culm and by caking coals. There never was any difficulty, however, on the ſubject; nor would there be any difficulty in collecting the tax, were it not for the inſufferable ignorance and love of deſpotic oppreſſion which generally pervades the underling officers of the revenue."

Coal. kenny, belonging to the province of Leinſter in Ireland. The quality of it as burning without ſmoke, is proverbially uſed as an encomium on the county.

6. *Sulphureous coal* conſiſts of the former kinds mixed with a very conſiderable portion of pyrites; whence it is apt to moulder and break when expoſed to the air, after which water will act upon it. It contains yellow ſpots that look like metal; burns with a ſulphureous ſmell, leaving behind it either ſlag or ſulphureous aſhes, or both. Its ſpecific gravity is 1.500 or more.

7. *Bovey coal (Xylanthrax)* is of a brown or browniſh-black colour, and of a yellow laminar texture. Its laminæ are frequently flexible when firſt dug, though they generally harden when expoſed to the air. It conſiſts of wood penetrated with petrol or bitumen, and frequently contains pyrites, alum, and vitriol. According to the German chemiſts, its aſhes contain a little fixed alkali; but Mr Mills differs from them on this ſubject. By diſtillation it yields a fetid liquor mixed with a volatile alkali and oil; part of which is ſoluble in alcohol, and part of a mineral nature, and inſoluble. It is found in almoſt all the countries of Europe.

Theſe are the moſt conſiderable varieties of coals commonly known; but we muſt not imagine, that each of them is to be met homogeneous in thoſe places where they are found. On the contrary, the different qualities and proportions of their ingredients make a vaſt number of other varieties, fit for different purpoſes, according to the quality and quantity of thoſe they contain. Thus, various kinds of coals are often found mixed with one another under ground, and ſome of the finer ſorts ſometimes run like veins between thoſe of a coarſe kind. Thus, M. Magellan obſerved in the fine coals employed in a curious manufactory at Birmingham, that they produced a much clearer flame than he had ever obſerved from common coal; yet, on inquiry, he found that theſe were picked out from the common coals of the country, through which they ran in veins and were eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the manufacturers, though they did not afford ſufficient indications of a ſpecific difference. The purpoſe to which they were applied was the moulding rods of tranſparent and coloured glaſs into the ſhapes proper for common buttons, which they performed with aſtoniſhing expedition.

Fourcroy remarks, that this foſſil bitumen, when heated in contact with a body in combuſtion, and having a free acceſs of air, kindles the more ſlowly and with the greater difficulty in proportion as it is more weighty and compact. When once kindled, it emits a ſtrong and durable heat, and burns for a long time before it is conſumed. The matter that is burned, and produces the flame, appears very denſe, and ſeems united to ſome other ſubſtance which retards its deſtruction. On burning, it emits a particular ſtrong ſmell, which is not at all ſulphureous when the coal contains no pyrites. When the combuſtible, oily, and other volatile parts of the coal are diſſipated, if the combuſtion be then ſtopped, the remainder is found to be reduced to a true charred ſtate, and is called *coak*. This ſubſtance is capable of exciting the moſt intenſe heat, for which purpoſe it is uſed in metallurgic works all over Britain.

Coal, Coal-Mine. "It is well known (ſays M. Magellan), that the Engliſh method of burning pit coal into *coak* has been a moſt profitable and happy acquiſition for the ſmelting our ores, and for many other metallurgical and chemical proceſſes in this iſland. But the ingenious and advantageous undertaking of Lord Dundonald, by which he turns to a very conſiderable profit the mines of coals in his and other eſtates, building ovens of a proper conſtruction for burning pit coal into coak, and at the ſame time for collecting, in ſeparate receptacles, the volatile alkali, oil, tar, and pitch, which were generally loſt by the uſual method, deſerves to be noticed, as it affords a very remarkable inſtance of the great loſſes to mankind, for want of carefully attending to every reſult from great proceſſes of art when made on a large ſcale. Theſe ovens are ſo contrived, as to admit an under ſupply of air; and the coals, after being kindled, decompoſe themſelves by a ſlow but incomplete combuſtion, which does not deſtroy the ingredients. The reſiduum left in the oven proves to be moſt excellent cinders or coaks; whilſt the volatile parts, which otherwiſe would be diſſipated in the air, are ſeparated and condenſed in reſervoirs, or receptacles of capacious ſize, placed at proper diſtances beyond the reach of fire. Monſ. Faujas de St Fond, who viſited theſe works in a journey he made to Scotland, undertook to erect a ſimilar kind of an oven in France; and it is rather ſingular, that he endeavours to eſtabliſh a claim of having diſcovered the ſame proceſſes before he ſaw them in Scotland, as if it did not reflect a greater honour on his induſtry, to carry back to his country ſome uſeful knowledge, than to return as ignorant as our Engliſh travellers," &c.

On ſubjecting pit coal of any kind to diſtillation in cloſe veſſels, it firſt yields a phlegm or watery liquor, then an ethereal or volatile oil, afterwards a volatile alkali, and laſtly a thick and greaſy oil; but it is remarkable, that, by rectifying this laſt oil, a tranſparent thin and light oil of a ſtraw colour is produced, which being expoſed to the air becomes black like animal oils. From this and other obſervations, the general opinion is, that coals, bitumens, and other oily ſubſtances found in the mineral kingdom, derive their origin from vegetables buried in the earth, ſince it is well known that only organized bodies have the power of producing oily and fat ſubſtances. "The amazing irregularities, gaps, and breaks (ſays M. Magellan) of the ſtrata of coals, and of other foſſil ſubſtances, evince that this globe has undergone the moſt violent convulſions, by which its parts have been broken, detached and overturned in different ways, burying large tracts of their upper ſurfaces, with all the animal and vegetable productions there exiſting, at the time of thoſe horrible cataſtrophes, whoſe epoch far precedes all human records. And it is eaſy to be conceived, that the various heaps and congeries of theſe vegetable and animal ſubſtances, remaining for ages and ages in the bowels of the earth, have obtained various conſiſtencies, and ſtill produce thoſe oily and bituminous juices, which find way to guſh out, leaving behind their thickeſt parts on the ſame places where they are found, and in many others where the induſtry of mankind never will be able to penetrate."

Coal-Mine. See Coalery. Maliciouſly ſetting fire to coal-mines is felony, by ſtat. 10 Geo. II. c. 32. § 6.

Smalll

Coal, Coalery.

Small COAL, a ſort of charcoal prepared from the ſpray and bruſhwood, ſtripped off from the branches of coppice wood, ſometimes bound in bairns for that purpoſe, and ſometimes charred without binding, in which caſe it is called "coming together."

1 History of coals.

COALERY, COALIERY, or COLLIERY; a coal-work, or place where COALS are dug.

* See *Ampelites.*

It is generally agreed, that our cannel coal * is the lapis ampelites of the Romans, though it ſeems to have been uſed by them only for making toys, bracelets, &c. But of that common fuel which we denominate *coals*, the native Romans were entirely ignorant. It is certain that they are not, as ſome have imagined, the lapis obſidianus of Pliny, about which there have been great diſputes †: nor the GAGATES or JET, which others, again, have taken for the *lapis obſidianus:* though the lightneſs and texture ſhow plainly that it is not either ſtone or coal. In fact, there are no beds of it in the compaſs of Italy. The great line of that fuel ſeems to ſweep away round the globe, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt; not ranging at a diſtance even from the ſouth-eaſterly parts of our iſland, as is generally imagined, but actually viſiting Brabant and France, and yet avoiding Italy.

† L. xxxvi. cap. 26. Auguſtus placed the ſtatues of four elephants made of it in the temple of Concord.

But the primæval Britons appear to have uſed it. And in the precincts of Mancheſter particularly, which are furniſhed with an inexhauſtible abundance of it, they could not have remained unappriſed of the agreeable combuſtible around them. The currents there frequently bring down fragments of coal from the mountains: and in the long and winding courſe of them through the pariſh, the Britons would ſoon mark the ſhining ſtones in the channels; and by the aid of accident, or the force of reflection, find out the utility of them. But we can advance ſtill nearer to a certainty. Several pieces of coal were diſcovered ſome years ago in the ſand under the Roman way to Ribcheſter, when both were dug up at the conſtruction of a houſe in Quay-ſtreet. The number of pieces, ſeveral of them as large as eggs, was not leſs than 40; and a quantity of ſlack was dug up with them. Theſe circumſtances ſhow the coals to have been lodged upon the ſpot before the road of the Romans covered it. That ground being in the neighbourhood of *Mancenion* ‡, the Britons had there repoſited a quantity of coals, probably for the uſe of the garriſon; and many of the ſmaller fragments, and ſome of the ſlack were buried in the ſand upon which they were laid. And that the Britons in general were acquainted with this fuel, is evident from its appellation amongſt us at preſent, which is not Saxon, but Britiſh; and ſubſiſts among the Iriſh in their *O guai*, and among the Corniſh in their *kolan*, to this day.

Whitaker's History of Mancheſter.

‡ *i. e.* "the place of tents." An ancient Britiſh town, the ſite of which was the preſent Caſtlefield at Mancheſter.

The extenſive beds of fuel, therefore, with which the kingdom of England, and the precincts of Mancheſter, are ſo happily ſtored, were firſt noticed by the ſkill, and firſt opened by the labour of the Britons; and ſome time before the arrival of the Romans among us. And the nearer quarries in the confines of Bradford, Newton, and Mancheſter, would naturally attract the notice, and invite the inquiries of the Britons, before any others. The current of the Medlock, which waſhes the ſides of them, would bring down ſpecimens of the riches within, lodge many of them about the Caſtlefield, and allure the Britons ſucceſſively to a collection of the one, and a ſearch after the other.

Coalery.

But, even for ages after the diſcovery, wood continued to compoſe the general fuel of the nation. In 852, a grant was made of ſome lands by the abbey of Peterborough, under the reſervation of certain boons and payments in kind to the monaſtery; as, one night's entertainment; 10 veſſels of Welſh, and two of common ale; 60 cart-loads of wood, and 12 of pit-coal; where we ſee the quantity of coal was only one cart-load to five of wood. The latter naturally continued the principal article of our fuel as long as the foreſts and thickets preſented themſelves ſo ready to the hand; and ſuch it continued to a very late period. The firſt public notice of the former is mentioned by Mr Hume to have been in the time of Henry III. who, in the year 1272, granted a charter to the town of Newcaſtle, giving the inhabitants a licenſe to dig coals; and the firſt ſtatute relating to this article was the 9th Henry V. c. 10. ordaining all keels in the port of Newcaſtle to be meaſured by commiſſioners, before carriage of coals, on pain of forfeiture. They were not brought into common uſe till the reign of Charles I.; and were then ſold for about 17s. a chaldron. In ſome years after the reſtoration, there were about 200,000 chaldrons burnt in London; in 1670, about 270,000 chaldrons; at the revolution upwards of 300,000 chaldrons; and at preſent, full 600,000 are annually conſumed there. There is, beſides, an immenſe conſumption in other parts of Britain, and in Ireland. In Scotland, they ſupply their own conſumption, and alſo export. In Ireland, though they have coal, yet they take annually to the value of 30,000l. from England, and 12,000l. from Scotland.

Campbell's Political Survey.

The moſt remarkable coalery, or coal-work, that we have ever had in this iſland, was that wrought at Borrowſtounneſs, under the ſea. The veins of coal were found to continue under the bed of the ſea in this place, and the colliers had the courage to work the vein near half way over; there being a mote half a mile from the ſhore, where there was an entry that went down into the coal pit, under the ſea. This was made into a kind of round quay or mote, as they call it, built ſo as to keep out the ſea, which flowed there twelve feet. Here the coals were laid, and a ſhip of that draught of water could lay her ſide to the mote, and take in the coal.—This famous coalery belonged to the earl of Kincardine's family. The freſh water which ſprung from the bottom and ſides of the coal-pit was always drawn out upon the ſhore by an engine moved by water, that drew it forty fathoms. This coal-pit continued to be wrought many years to the great profit of the owners, and the wonder of all that ſaw it; but, at laſt, an unexpected high tide drowned the whole at once: the labourers had not time to eſcape, but periſhed in it.

There are ſeveral other countries in Europe which poſſeſs conſiderable coal mines; as France, Liege, Germany, and Sweden. Alſo on the other ſide of the Atlantic ocean, there has been coal diſcovered, and wrought: in Newfoundland, Cape-Breton, Canada, and ſome of the New England provinces. But in all theſe countries, the coal is of a quality much inferior to the Britiſh, and entirely unfit to be uſed in many manufactures;

2 Excellence of the Britiſh.

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manufactures; so that they import coal from Britain for various manufactures. For a fuller account of the coal in different countries of the world, see *Williams's Mineral Kingdom*, 2d edition, by James Millar, M. D. Edinburgh, 1810.

3 Importance of the coal-trade.

Our inland coal-trade, that is, carrying coals from Newcastle, Sunderland, Blith, and other adjacent places in the north of England, as also from the frith of Edinburgh in Scotland, and other places adjacent, to the city of London, and to the port towns on the coast all the way, as well on this side of Newcastle, north, as up the channel as high as Portsmouth west, is a prodigious article, and employs abundance of shipping and seamen; insomuch that, in a time of urgent necessity, the coalery navigation alone has been able to supply the government with a body of seamen for the royal navy, able to man a considerable fleet at a very short warning, and that without difficulty, when no other branch of trade could do the like. Likewise the Whitehaven coaleries in Cumberland, belonging to Lord Lonsdale, furnish several counties in Ireland with coals, and constantly employ upwards of 2000 seamen; which also is a noble nursery for the navy of this kingdom. And not only do the pit-coal sufficiently supply all the ports, but, by means of those ports and the navigable rivers, all the adjacent counties very far inland.

In short, coals, though not an exclusive, yet may, with propriety, be styled a peculiar blessing to Britain, from their greaty plenty, their acknowledged excellence, and their being found in such places as are conveniently situated for exportation. Nor is there any danger of the export trade being lessened even by the several duties that have been laid upon them; for the foreign consumpt being founded in necessity with regard to manufactures, and in economy where they are used for convenience (wood and turf being dearer than coals with the duty), we need be in no fear of the markets declining. There is as little room to be alarmed from an apprehension of their being exhausted; as the present works are capable of supplying us for a long series of years, and there are many other mines ready to be opened when these shall fail. Besides, there are known to be coals in many parts of the three kingdoms, which hitherto they have had no encouragement to work.

Besides the value of this commodity as a conveniency of life, as an article of commerce, and as giving rise to a nursery of seamen for the increase of the marine; other important advantages deserve to be noticed. Coals are in many respects, and in a very high degree useful to the landed interest; not only by raising exceedingly the real value, and of course the purchase, of those lands in which they are found, and those through which it is necessary to pass * from the works to the places where they are embarked, but from the general improvements they have occasioned; so that very few counties are now better cultivated than Northumberland, and the same effects they have had in a greater or less degree in other places. Thousands of laborious people are employed in and about the mines; thousands more in conveying them to the ports, and on board the ships; to say nothing of those that draw their subsistence from the carriage of them by land to supply families, &c. There are also great numbers that live in a superior station; as stewards, directors, factors, agents, book-keepers, &c. To these we may add the extraordinary encouragement given to ingenious artists who have invented, and the numerous workmen continually employed about those several curious and costly machines which, for a variety of purposes in this business, are in continual use, and of course in continual wear; we may join to these the multitudes that obtain their living from the many manufactures in which they are employed, and which could not be carried on but by the help and cheapness of coals. Lastly, the produce of coals exported, which amounts to a very considerable sum, besides being profitable to the owners, merchants, and mariners, is so much clear gain to the nation.

* These are emphatically styled *way-leaves*, and are let at as high rents as any landed property in Britain.

It might be expected, that a trade so beneficial to individuals, and to the nation in general, and which has been gradually increasing for several centuries past, would have been advanced by this time to very great perfection, and reduced to a regular system. But, in one very essential respect, it is found to be quite otherwise. The art of working coal-mines in the most profitable manner is indeed highly improved; but the fundamental of the art, that of searching for and discovering coal in any district of country where it has not yet been found, has never, that we know of, been treated in a systematic manner. The reader, therefore, will not be displeased to find this defect supplied in the course of the present article, together with a detail of all the other operations in the business of coaleries.

4 Situation of the strata.

The terrestrial matters which compose the solid parts of the earth are disposed in strata, beds, or layers, the under surface of one bearing against or lying upon the upper surface of that below it, which last bears or lies on the next below in the same manner.

These strata consist of very different kinds of matter, such as free-stone, lime-stone, metal-stone or whin-stone, coal, &c. as will be particularly specified in the sequel.

Some of these strata are of considerable thickness, being often found from 100 to 200 feet or upwards, nearly of the same kind of matter from the superior to the inferior surface; and others are found of the least thickness imaginable, one inch or less.

All these strata are divided or parted from each other laterally, either by their even, smooth, polished surfaces, with very thin lamina of soft or dusty matter betwixt them, called *the parting*, which renders them easy to separate; or else only by the surfaces closely conjoined to each other, without any visible matter interposed betwixt them: yet the different substance of each stratum is not in the least intermixed, though sometimes they adhere so strongly together, that it is very difficult to part or disjoin them: in this last case they are said to have a *bad parting*.

Besides this principal division or parting laterally, there are, in some strata, secondary divisions or partings also laterally, separating or approaching towards a separation, of the same stratum, into parts of different thicknesses, nearly parallel to each other, in the same manner as the principal partings divide the different strata from each other: but these secondary ones are not so strong or visible, nor make so effectual a parting, as the principal ones do; and are only met with

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with in ſuch ſtrata, as are not of an uniform hardneſs, texture, or colour, from the upper to the under ſurface.

There are other diviſions or partings, called *backs*, in almoſt every ſtratum, which croſs the former lateral ones longitudinally, and cut the whole ſtratum through its two ſurfaces into long rhomboidal figures. Theſe again are croſſed by others called *cutters*, running either in an oblique or perpendicular direction to the laſt-mentioned backs, and alſo cut the ſtratum through its two ſurfaces. Both theſe backs and cutters generally extend from the upper or ſuperior ſtratum down through ſeveral of the lower ones; ſo that theſe backs and cutters, together with the lateral partings before mentioned, divide every ſtratum into innumerable cubic, priſmatic, and rhomboidal figures, according to the thickneſs of the ſtratum, and the poſition and number of the backs and cutters. They ſometimes have a kind of thin partition of duſty or ſoft matter in them, and ſometimes none, like the firſt-mentioned partings; but the ſofter kind of ſtrata generally have more backs and cutters than the harder kind, and they do not extend or penetrate through the others.

Plate CXLIX. fig. 1.

To explain this a little farther, let A, B, C, D, E, F, G, (fig. 1.) repreſent the principal partings before mentioned, or the upper and under ſurfaces of any ſtratum; then *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, will repreſent the ſecondary lateral partings nearly parallel to the principal ones; *g*, *h*, *i*, *k*, *l*, *m*, the longitudinal partings called *backs*; *n*, *o*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, the croſs partings called *cutters*, croſſing the laſt-mentioned ones either obliquely or perpendicular.

In all places where the ſtrata lie regular, they are divided and ſubdivided in the manner above mentioned; and ſometimes in this manner extend through a pretty large diſtrict of country; though it is often otherwiſe; for their regularity is frequently interrupted, and the ſtrata broken and diſordered, by ſundry chaſms, breaches, or fiſſures, which are differently denominated according to their various dimenſions, and the matters with which they are filled, viz. dikes, hitches, and troubles, which ſhall be explained in order.

5 Dikes.

Dikes are the largeſt kind of fiſſures. They ſeem to be nothing but a crack or breach of the ſolid ſtrata, occaſioned by one part of them being broken away and fallen from the other. They generally run in a ſtraight line for a conſiderable length, and penetrate from the ſurface to the greateſt depth ever yet tried, in a direction ſometimes perpendicular to the horizon, and ſometimes obliquely. The ſame kind of ſtrata are found lying upon each other in the ſame order, but the whole of them greatly elevated or depreſſed, on the one ſide of the dike as on the other. Theſe fiſſures are ſometimes two or three feet wide, and ſometimes many fathoms. If the fiſſure or dike be of any conſiderable width, it is generally filled with heterogeneous matter, different from that of the ſolid ſtrata on each ſide of it. It is ſometimes found filled with clay, gravel, or ſand; ſometimes with a confuſed maſs of different kinds of ſtone lying edgeways; and at other times with a ſolid body of free-ſtone, or even whin-ſtone. When the fiſſure is of no great width, as ſuppoſe two or three feet only, it is then uſually found filled with a confuſed mixture of the different matters which compoſe the adjoining ſtrata, conſolidated into one maſs. If the dike runs or ſtretches north and ſouth, and the ſame kind of ſtrata are found on the eaſt ſide of the dike, in a ſituation with reſpect to the horizon 10 or 20 fathoms lower than on the other ſide, it is then ſaid to be a *dip-dike*, or *downcaſt-dike* of 10 or 20 fathoms to the eaſtward; or counting from the eaſt ſide, it is then ſaid to be a *riſe-dike*, or *upcaſt* of ſo many fathoms weſtward. If the ſtrata on one ſide are not much higher or lower with reſpect to the horizontal line, than thoſe on the other, but only broken off and removed to a certain diſtance, it is then ſaid to be a dike of ſo many fathoms thick, and from the matter contained between the two ſides of the fiſſure or dike, it is denominated a *clay-dike*, *ſtone-dike*, &c.

6 Hitches.

A *hitch* is only a dike or fiſſure of a ſmaller degree, by which the ſtrata on one ſide are not elevated or ſeparated from thoſe on the other ſide above one fathom. Theſe hitches are denominated in the ſame manner as dikes, according to the number of feet they elevate or depreſs the ſtrata.

There are dikes (though they are not often met with in the coal-countries) whoſe cavities are filled with ſparr, the ores of iron, lead, vitriol, or other metallic or mineral matters; and it is pretty well known, that all metallic veins are nothing elſe than what in the coal countries are called *dikes*.

The ſtrata are generally found lying upon each other in the ſame order on one ſide of the dike as on the other, as mentioned above, and nearly of the ſame thickneſſes, appearing to have been originally a continuation of the ſame regular ſtrata, and the dike only a breach by ſome later accident, perpendicularly or obliquely down through them, by which one part is removed to a ſmall diſtance, and depreſſed to a lower ſituation than the other. But this is not the only alteration made in the ſtrata by dikes; for generally, to a conſiderable diſtance on each ſide of the dike, all the ſtrata are in a kind of ſhattered condition, very tender, eaſily pervious to water, and debaſed greatly in their quality, and their inclination to the horizon often altered.

7 Troubles.

Troubles may be denominated dikes of the ſmalleſt degree; for they are not a real breach, but only a tendency towards it, which has not taken a full effect. The ſtrata are generally altered by a trouble from their regular ſite to a different poſition. When the regular courſe of the ſtrata is nearly level, a trouble will cauſe a ſudden and conſiderable aſcent or deſcent; where they have, in their regular ſituation, a certain degree of aſcent or deſcent, a trouble either increaſes or alters it to a contrary poſition: and a trouble has theſe effects upon the ſtrata in common with dikes, that it greatly debaſes them from their original quality; the partings are ſeparated; the backs and cutters diſjoined, and their regularity diſordered; the original cubic and priſmatic figures, of which the ſtrata were compoſed, are broken, the diſlocation filled with heterogeneous matter, and the whole ſtrata are reduced to a ſofter and more friable ſtate.

The ſtrata are ſeldom or never found to lie in a true horizontal ſituation; but generally have an inclination or deſcent, called the *dip*, to ſome particular part of the horizon. If this inclination be to the eaſtward,

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8 Dip and rise of the strata.

ward, it is called an *east dip*, and a *west rise*; and according to the point of the compass to which the dip inclines, it is denominated, and the ascent or rise is to the contrary point. This inclination or dip of the strata is found to hold everywhere. In some places, it varies very little from the level; in others, very considerably; and in some so much, as to be nearly in a perpendicular direction: but whatever degree of inclination the strata have to the horizon, if not interrupted by dikes, hitches, or troubles, they are always found to lie in the first regular manner mentioned. They generally continue upon one uniform dip until they are broken or disordered by a dike, hitch, or trouble, by which the dip is often altered, sometimes to a different part of the horizon, and often to an opposite point; so that on one side of a dike, hitch, or trouble, if the strata have an east dip, on the other side they may have an east rise, which is a west dip; and in general, any considerable alteration in the dip is never met with, but what is occasioned by the circumstances last mentioned.

Plate CXLIX. fig. 2.

To illustrate what has been said, see fig. 2. where *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, &c. represent a course of strata lying upon each other, having a certain inclination to the horizon. AB, is a downcast-dike, which depresses the strata obliquely to *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, &c. lying upon each other in the same order, but altered in their inclination to the horizon. CD represents a clay or freestone dike, where the strata are neither elevated nor depressed, but only broken off and removed to a certain distance. EF represents a hitch, which breaks off and depresses the strata only a little, but alters their inclination to the horizon. GH represents a trouble, where the strata on one side are not entirely broken off from those on the other, but only in a crushed and irregular situation.

As some particular strata are found at some times to increase, and at other times to diminish, in their thicknesses, whilst others remain the same, consequently they cannot be all parallel; yet this increase and diminution in their thicknesses come on very gradually.

The strata are not found disposed in the earth according to their specific gravities; for we often find strata of very dense matter near the surface, and perhaps at 50 or even 100 fathoms beneath, we meet with strata of not half the specific gravity of the first. A stratum of iron ore is very often found above one of coal, though the former has twice the gravity of the latter; and, in short, there is such an absolute uncertainty in forming any judgment of the disposition of the strata from their specific gravities, that it cannot in the least be relied upon.

It has been imagined by many, that hills and valleys are occasioned by those breaches in the strata before mentioned called *dikes;* but this is contradicted by experience. If it was so, we should meet with dikes at the skirts of the hills, and by the sides of valleys, and the sea-shore; but instead of that we generally find the strata lying as uniformly regular under hills and valleys, and beneath the bottom of the sea (as far as has been yet tried), as in the most champaign countries. It may happen, indeed, that a dike is met with in some of these places; but that being only a casual circumstance, can never be admitted as a general cause. Whatever irregularities are occasioned in the solid strata by dikes, or other branches, are commonly covered over and evened by those beds of gravel, clay, sand, or soil, which lie uppermost, and form the outward surface of the earth. Wherever these softer matters have been carried off, or removed by accident, as on the tops of hills and the sides of valleys, there the solid strata are exposed, and the dip, rise, and other circumstances of them may be examined; but no certain conclusions can be drawn, merely from the unevenness and inequalities of the outward surface.

The preceding observations, upon the general disposition of the solid strata, are equally applicable to the strata of coal as to those of stone or other matter.

9 Description of the strata connected with coal.

We shall next give an account of the several strata of coal, and of stone, and other matters, which are usually connected with coal, and are found to have a particular affinity with it; and, for the sake of distinction, shall arrange them into six principal classes, which will include all the varieties of strata that have been found to occur in all those districts of country, both in Scotland and England, where coal abounds.

1. *Of Whin-stone.*] The strata of what is denominated whin-stone are the hardest of all others; the angular pieces of it will cut glass; it is of a very coarse texture, and when broken across the grain, exhibits the appearance of large grains of sand half vitrified; it can scarcely be wrought, or broken in pieces, by common tools, without the assistance of gunpowder; each stratum is commonly homogeneous in substance and colour, and cracked in the rock to a great depth. The most common colours of these strata are black or dark blue, yet there are others of it ash-coloured and light brown. Their thickness in all the coal countries is but inconsiderable, from six or five feet down to a few inches; and it is only in a few places they are met with of these thicknesses. In the air it decays a little, leaving a brown powder; and in the fire it cracks, and turns reddish brown. Limestone, and what is called *bastard limestone*, is sometimes, though rarely, met with in coaleries. It is a well known stone; but from its resemblance in hardness and colour is often mistaken for a kind of whin. Sometimes, particularly in hilly countries, the solid matter next the surface is found to be a kind of soft or rotten whin;—but it may be noted, that this is only a mass of heterogeneous matter disposed upon the regular strata; and that beneath this, all the strata are generally found in as regular an order as where this heterogeneous matter does not occur.

2. *Of Post-stone.*] This is a freestone of the hardest kind, and next to the limestone with respect to hardness and solidity. It is of a very fine texture; and when broken appears as if composed of the finest sand. It is commonly found in a homogeneous mass, though variegated in colour; and, from its hardness, is not liable to injury from being exposed to the weather. Of this kind of stone there are four varieties, which may be distinguished by their colour. The most common is white post, which in appearance is like Portland stone, but considerably harder; it is sometimes variegated with streaks or spots of brown, red, or black.

Gray post is also very common; it appears like a mixture of fine black and white sand: it is often variegated with brown and black streaks; the last mentioned

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Brown or yellow poſt is often met with of different degrees of colour; moſt commonly of the colour of light ochre or yellow ſand. It is as hard as the reſt, and ſometimes variegated with white and black ſtreaks.

Red poſt is generally of a dull red colour: this is but rarely met with; it is often ſtreaked with white or black.

All theſe lie in ſtrata of different thickneſſes; but commonly thicker than any other ſtrata whatever: they are ſeparated from each other, and from other kinds of ſtrata, by partings of coal, ſand, or ſoft matter of different colours which are very diſtinguiſhable.

3. *Of Sand-ſtone.*] This is a freeſtone of a coarſer texture than poſt, and not ſo hard; is ſo lax as to be eaſily pervious to water; when broken, is apparently of a coarſe ſandy ſubſtance; is friable and moulders to ſand when expoſed to the wind and rain; has frequently white ſhining ſpangles in it, and pebbles or other ſmall ſtones incloſed in its maſs. Of this, there are two kinds commonly met with, diſtinguiſhed by their colours, gray and brown, which are of different ſhades, lighter or darker in proportion to the mixture of white in them. It is moſt generally found in ſtrata of conſiderable thickneſs, without many ſecondary partings; and ſometimes, though rarely, it is ſubdivided into layers as thin as the common gray ſlate. It has generally ſandy or ſoft partings.

4. *Of Metal-ſtone.*] This is a tolerably hard ſtratum, being in point of hardneſs next to ſand-ſtone; generally ſolid, compact, of conſiderable weight and of an argillaceous ſubſtance, containing many nodules or balls of iron ore, and yellow or white pyrites; its partings, or the ſurfaces of its ſtrata, are hard, poliſhed, and ſmooth as glaſs. When broken, it has a dull duſky appearance (though of a fine texture), like hard dried clay mixed with particles of coal. Though hard in the mine or quarry, when expoſed to the freſh air it falls into very ſmall pieces. The moſt uſual colour of this ſtone is black; but there are ſeveral other lighter colours, down to a light brown or gray. It is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from freeſtone by its texture and colour, as well as by its other characteriſtics. It lies in ſtrata of various thickneſſes, though ſeldom ſo thick as the two laſt-mentioned kinds of ſtone.

5. *Of Shiver.*] This ſtratum is more frequently met with in coaleries than any other. There are many varieties of it, both in hardneſs and colour; but they all agree in one general characteriſtic. The black colour is moſt common; it is called by the miners *black ſhiver*, *black metal*, or *bleas*. It is ſofter than metal-ſtone, and in the mine is rather a tough than a hard ſubſtance, is not of a ſolid or compact matter, being eaſily ſeparable by the multitude of its partings, &c. into very ſmall parts, and readily abſorbing water. The ſubſtance of this ſtratum is an indurated bole, commonly divided into thin laminæ of unequal thickneſſes, which break into long ſmall pieces when ſtruck with force; and, on examination, they appear to be ſmall irregular rhomboids: each of theſe ſmall pieces has a poliſhed glaſſy ſurface; and, when broken croſs the grain, appears of a dry, leafy, or laminated texture, like exceeding fine clay: it is very friable; feels to the touch like an unctuous ſubſtance; and diſſolves in air or water to a fine pinguid black clay. There are almoſt conſtantly found incloſed in its ſtrata lumps or nodules of iron ore, often real beds of the ſame. Coalery.

There are other colours of this ſtratum beſides black. The brown or dun ſhiver is very frequently met with; it agrees with the above deſcription in every thing but colour. Gray ſhiver is alſo very common: it ſeems to be only a mixture of the black and dun; and by the different degrees of mixture of theſe colours others are produced. It lies in ſtrata ſometimes of conſiderable thickneſs, at other times not exceeding a few feet: they are commonly parted from each other by laminæ of ſpar, coal, or ſoft matter.

6. *Of Coal.*] Referring the reader, for the ſcientific diviſion of coals, to MINERALOGY, and the preceding articles, we ſhall here conſider them as diſtinguiſhable into three kinds, according to their degrees of inflammability. For a full view of the natural hiſtory of coal, ſee *Williams's Mineral Kingdom* by Dr Millar.

1. The leaſt inflammable kinds are thoſe known by the name of *Welſh coal*, which is found in Wales; Kilkenny coal, which is found near Kilkenny in Ireland; and *blind* or *deaf coal*, which is found in many parts of Scotland and England. This coal takes a conſiderable degree of heat to kindle it, but when once thoroughly ignited will burn a long time; it remains in the fire in ſeparate pieces without ſticking together or caking; it produces neither flame nor ſmoke, and makes no cinders, but burns to a white ſtony ſlag: it makes a hot glowing fire like charcoal or cinders, and emits effluvia of a ſuffocating nature, which renders it unfit for burning in dwelling-houſes, its chief uſe being among maltſters, dyers, &c. for drying their commodities. 2. *Open burning coal*, ſoon kindles, making a hot pleaſant fire, but is ſoon conſumed: it produces both ſmoke and flame in abundance; but lies open in the fire, and does not cake together ſo as to form cinders, its ſurface being burnt to aſhes before it is thoroughly calcined in the midſt; from this it has its name of an *open burning coal*; it burns to white or brown aſhes very light. Of this kind are cannel-coal, jett, parrot, ſplint, and moſt of the coals in Scotland. 3. *Cloſe burning coal*, kindles very quickly, makes a very hot fire, melts and runs together like bitumen, the very ſmalleſt culm making the fineſt cinders, which being thoroughly burnt, are porous and light as a pumice ſtone, and when broken are of a ſhining lead colour; it makes a more durable fire than any other coal, and finally burns to brown or reddiſh coloured heavy aſhes. Of this kind are the Newcaſtle and ſeveral other of the Engliſh coals, and the ſmithy coals of Scotland. The open and the cloſe burning coal mixed together, make a more profitable fire for domeſtic uſes than either of them ſeparate.

In all thoſe diſtricts of country where coal is found, there are generally ſeveral ſtrata of it; perhaps all the different kinds above mentioned will be found in ſome, and only one of the kinds in others; yet this one kind may be divided into many different ſeams or ſtrata, by beds of ſhiver or other kinds of matter interpoſing, ſo as to give it the appearance of ſo many ſeparate ſtrata.

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10 The order in which they lie.

All these strata above described, with their several varieties, do not lie or bear upon each other in the order in which they are described, nor in any certain or invariable order. Though there be found the same kinds of strata in one coalery or district as in another, yet they may be of very different thicknesses. In some places there are most of the hard kinds, in others most of the softer; and in any one district it rarely happens that all the various kinds are found; for some kinds, perhaps, occur only once or twice, whilst others occur 10 or 20 times before we reach the principal stratum of coal.

Plate CXLIX. fig. 3.

In order to explain this, suppose the strata in the pit at A (fig. 3.) lie in the order *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, &c. they may be so much altered in their thicknesses, by reason of some of them increasing and others diminishing, at the distance of B, that they may be found there of very different thicknesses; or if they are examined in a pit at D, by reason of its lower situation, and the strata there not being a continuation of those in the other places, they may be very different both in their order and thicknesses, and yet of the same kinds.

Though they be thus found very different in one coalery or district from what they are found to be in another, with respect to their thicknesses, and the order in which they lie upon each other, yet we never meet with a stratum of any kind of matter but what belongs to some of those above described.

To illustrate how the various strata lie in some places, and how often the same stratum may occur betwixt the surface and the coal, we shall give the following example. The numbers in the left-hand column refer to the classes of strata before described, to which each belongs. The second column contains the names of the strata; and the four numeral columns, to the right hand, express the thickness of each stratum, in fathoms, yards, feet, and inches.

EXAMPLE.

N°		Fas	Yds	Ft.	Ins.
	Soil and gravel - -	0	1	1	0
	Clay mixed with loose stones	1	1	0	0
3	Coarse brown sand-stone, with soft partings - - - -	3	0	2	6
2	White post, with shivery partings	1	1	0	5
5	Black shiver or bleas, with iron-stone balls	2	0	2	0
6	Coarse splinty coal - -	0	0	2	6
5	Soft gray shiver - - -	0	1	0	7
2	Brown and gray post, streaked with black	1	0	2	0
5	Black shiver, with beds and balls of iron-stone - - -	0	1	2	6
4	Gray and black metal-stone -	0	1	1	9
2	White and brown post - -	1	1	0	0
5	Black and gray shiver, streaked with white	0	1	0	6
3	Soft gray sand-stone, with shivery partings	0	1	1	0
2	Yellow and white post, with sandy partings	1	0	2	0
5	Black and dun shiver, with iron-stone balls	0	1	2	6
2	White post streaked with black, and black partings - - -	1	0	0	6
5	Gray shiver, with iron-stone balls	0	1	0	9
4	Brown and black metal-stone -	1	1	2	6
5	Hard slaty black shiver - -	1	1	0	0
6	Coal, hard and fine splint -	0	0	3	6
5	Soft black shiver - -	0	0	0	3
6	Coal, fine and clear - -	0	0	3	3
5	Hard black shiver - -	0	0	1	0
	Total Fathoms	25	0	0	0

In this instance the species of sand-stone only occurs twice, post five times, whilst the shiver occurs no less than nine times. Coalery.

To apply the forgoing observations to practice.

Suppose it was required to examine whether there was coal in a piece of ground adjoining to, or in the neighbourhood of, other coaleries.

11 Methods of searching for coal.

In the first place, it is proper to be informed, at some of the adjacent coaleries, of the number and kinds of strata, the order in which they lie upon each other; to what point of the horizon, and in what quantity, they dip; if any dikes, hitches, or troubles, and the course they stretch. Having learnt these circumstances, search in the ground under examination where the strata are exposed to view, and compare these with the other. If they be of the same kinds, and nearly correspond in order and thickness, and be lying in a regular manner, and agree by computation with the dip and rise, it may safely be concluded the coal is there; and the depth of it may be judged from the depth of the coal in the other coalery, below any particular stratum which is visible in this. Rule 1st.

If the solid strata are not exposed to view, neither in the hills nor valleys of the ground under examination, then search in the adjoining grounds, and if the same kind of strata are found there as in the adjacent coalery, and there is reason, from the dip and other circumstances, to believe that they stretched through the ground to be examined; it may then be concluded the coal is there, as well as these other strata. Rule 2d.

Suppose a coalery is on the side of a hill at A, fig. 3. and you would search for a coal at B, on the other side of the hill, but in a much lower situation; by observing the several strata lying above the coal at A, and the point to which they dip, which is directly towards B (if clear of dikes), you may expect to find the same kind of strata on the other side of the hill, but much lower down. Accordingly, if some of the strata are visible in the face of the precipice C, they may be compared with some of those in the pit at A. Or, if they are not to be seen there, by searching in the opposite hill, they may perhaps be discovered at the place F; where, if they be found in the manner before mentioned, and there be reason to believe they extend regularly from the first place to this, it is more than probable the coal, as well as these strata, will be found in the intermediate ground. Plate CXLIX. fig. 3.

If the ground to be examined lie more to the rise of the coal, as at E, which being supposed to be on a flat, perhaps the solid strata there may be wholly covered by the gravel, clay, &c. of the outward surface lying upon them. In this case, by measuring the horizontal distance and the descent of ground from A to E, and computing the quantity of ascent or rise of the coal in that distance; by comparing these together, it may be judged at what depth the coal will be found there, allowing that it lie regular. Thus, suppose the coal at A 80 yards deep, the distance from A to E 500 yards, and that the coal rises one yard in 10 of horizontal distance: Rule 3d.

Then, from the depth of the pit	80
Deduct the descent of ground from A to E, suppose - - -	24

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This remainder would be the depth, if the coal was level - - - - - 56
But as the coal rises 1 in 10 yards, then deduct what it rises in 500 yards, which is - - - - - - - - - - 50

And the remainder is the depth of that coal at E - - - - - - - - - - 6 yards.

Rule 4th. Or suppose that the place at B is 500 yards the contrary way, or to the full dip of the coal at A; if a view of the solid strata cannot be obtained, then by proceeding in the same manner as before, the depth of the coal at that place may be computed. Thus,

To the depth of the coal at the pit A 80
Add the descent or inclination of the coal in 500 yards, which, as before, is - - - - - - - - - - - - 50

This sum would be the depth, if the ground was level - - - - - 130
But as the ground descends towards B, deduct the quantity of that, which suppose - - - - - - - - - - 80

Remains the depth of the coal at B - 50 yards.

If the place to be examined be neither to the full dip nor full rise, but in some proportion towards either, the same method may be pursued, computing how much the coal rises or dips in a certain distance in that direction.

If there is known to be a dike in the workings of the pit at A, which elevates or depresses the strata towards the place under examination, then the quantity of the elevation or depression must be accordingly added to or deducted from the computed depth of the coal at that place. Suppose there is an upcast dike of 10 fathoms or 20 yards towards B, then deduct 20 from 50, the depth before computed, there will remain 30 yards or 15 fathoms for the depth of the coal at B.

But it often happens that coal is to be searched for in a part of the country, at such a considerable distance from all other coaleries, that by reason of the intervention of hills, valleys, unknown dikes, &c. the connexion or relation of the strata with those of any other coalery cannot be traced by the methods last mentioned; in which case a more extensive view must be taken of all circumstances than was necessary in the former; and a few general rules founded on the foregoing observations, and on conclusions drawn from them, will greatly assist in determining, sometimes with a great degree of probability, and sometimes with absolute certainty, whether coal be in any particular district of country or not.

Rule 5th. The first proper step to be taken in such a case, is to take a general view of that district of country intended to be searched, in order to judge, from the outward appearance or face of the country, which particular part out of the whole is the most likely to contain those kind of strata favourable to the production of coal; and consequently such particular part being found, is the most adviseable to be begun with in the examination.

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Though the appearance of the outward surface gives no certain or infallible rule to judge of the kinds of strata lying beneath, yet it gives a probable one; for it is generally found, that a chain of mountains or hills rising to a great height, and very steep on the sides, are commonly composed of strata much harder and of different kinds from those before described wherein coal is found to lie, and therefore unfavourable to the production of coal; and these mountainous situations are also more subject to dikes and troubles than the lower grounds; so that if the solid strata composing them gave even favourable symptoms of coal, yet the last circumstance would render the quality bad, and the quantity precarious. And, on the whole, it may be observed, that mountainous situations are found more favourable to the production of metals than of coal. It is likewise generally found that those districts abounding with valleys, moderately rising hills, and interspersed with plains, sometimes of considerable extent, do more commonly contain coal, and those kinds of strata favourable to its production, than either the mountainous or champaign countries; and a country so situated as this last described, especially if at some considerable distance from the mountains, ought to be the first part appointed for particular examination. Plains, or level grounds of great extent, generally situated by the sides of rivers, or betwixt such moderate rising grounds as last described, are also very favourable to the production of coal, if the solid strata, and other circumstances in the higher grounds adjoining, be conformable; for it will scarcely be found, in such a situation, that the strata are favourable in the rising grounds, on both sides of the plain, and not so in the space betwixt them. Though plains be so favourable, in such circumstances, to the production of coal, yet it is often more difficult to be discovered in such a situation, than in that before described; because the clay, soil, and other lax matter, brought off the higher grounds by rains and other accidents, have generally covered the surfaces of such plains to a considerable depth, which prevents the exploration of the solid strata there, unless they be exposed to view by digging, quarrying, or some such operation.

12 Mountainous situations.

13 Hills and valleys.

14 Plains.

That part of the district being fixed upon which abounds with moderate hills and valleys as propereſt to begin the examination at, the first step to be taken is to examine all places where the solid strata are exposed to view (which are called the *crops* of the strata), as in precipices, hollows, &c. tracing them as accurately and gradually as the circumstances will allow, from the uppermost stratum or highest part of the ground to the very undermost: and if they appear to be of the kinds before described; it will be proper to note in a memorandum book their different thicknesses; the order in which they lie upon each other; the point of the horizon to which they dip or incline, the quantity of that inclination, and whether they lie in a regular state. This should be done in every part of the ground where they can be seen, observing at the same time, that if a stratum can be found in one place, which has a connexion with some other in a second place, and if this other has a connexion with another in a third place, &c.; then, from these separate connexions, the joint correspondence of the whole may be

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If by this means the crops of all the ſtrata cannot be ſeen (which is often the caſe), and if no coal be diſcovered by its crop appearing at the ſurface: yet if the ſtrata that have been viewed conſiſt of thoſe kinds before deſcribed, and are found lying in a regular order, it is ſufficiently probable that coal may be in that part of the diſtrict, although it be concealed from ſight by the ſurface of the earth or other matter.

Rule 6th. Therefore, at the ſame time that the crops of the ſtrata are under examination, it will be proper to take notice of all ſuch ſprings of water as ſeem to be of a mineral nature, particularly thoſe known by the name of iron water, which bear a mud or ſediment of the colour of ruſt or iron, having a ſtrong aſtringent taſte. Springs of this kind proceed originally from thoſe ſtrata which contain beds or balls of iron-ore; but by reaſon of the tenacity of the matter of thoſe ſtrata, the water only diſengages itſelf ſlowly from them, deſcending into ſome more porous or open ſtratum below, where, gathering in a body, it runs out to the ſurface in ſmall ſtreams or rills. The ſtratum of coal is the moſt general reſervoir of this water; for the iron-ſtone being lodged in different kinds of ſhiver, and the coal commonly connected with ſome of them, it therefore deſcends into the coal, where it finds a ready paſſage through the open backs and cutters. Sometimes, indeed, it finds ſome other ſtratum than coal to collect and tranſmit it to the ſurface; but the difference is eaſily diſtinguiſhable; for the ochrey matter in the water, when it comes from a ſtratum of coal, is of a darker ruſty colour than when it proceeds from any other, and often brings with it particles and ſmall pieces of coal; therefore, wherever theſe two circumſtances concur in a number of theſe kind of ſprings, ſituated in a direction from each other anſwerable to the ſtretch or to the inclination of the ſtrata, it may be certain the water comes off coal, and that the coal lies in a ſomewhat higher ſituation than the apertures of the ſprings.

There are other ſprings alſo which come off coal, and are not diſtinguiſhable from common water, otherwiſe than by their aſtringency, and their having a blue ſcum of an oily or glutinous nature ſwimming upon the ſurface of the water. Theſe, in common with the others, bring out particles of coal, more eſpecially in rainy ſeaſons when the ſprings flow with rapidity. When a number of theſe kinds are ſituated from each other in the direction of the ſtrata, as above deſcribed; or if the water does not run forth as in ſprings, but only forms a ſwamp, or an extenſion of ſtagnant water beneath the turf; in either caſe, it may be depended upon that this water proceeds from a ſtratum of coal.

Rule 7th. If the ſtratum of coal is not expoſed to view, or cannot be diſcovered by the firſt method of ſearching for the crop, although the appearance of the other ſtrata be very favourable, and afford a ſtrong probability of coal being there; and if the laſt-mentioned method of judging of the particular place where the crop of the coal may lie, by the ſprings of water iſſuing from it, ſhould, from the deficiency of thoſe ſprings or other circumſtances, be thought equivocal, and not give a ſatisfactory indication of the coal; then a further ſearch may be made in all places where the outward ſurface, or the ſtratum of clay or earth, is turned up by ploughing, ditching, or digging, particularly in the lower grounds, in hollows, and by the ſides of ſtreams. Theſe places ſhould be ſtrictly examined, to ſee if any pieces of coal be intermixed with the ſubſtance of the ſuperior laſt ſtrata; if any ſuch be found, and if they be pretty numerous and in detached pieces, of a firm ſubſtance, the angles perfect or not much worn, and the texture of the coal diſtinguiſhable, it may be concluded, that the ſtratum of coal to which they originally did belong, is at no great diſtance, but in a ſituation higher with reſpect to the horizon; and if there be alſo found along with the pieces of coal other mineral matter, ſuch as pieces of ſhiver or freeſtone, this is a concurrent proof that it has come only from a ſmall diſtance. Though the two fore-mentioned methods ſhould only have produced a ſtrong probability, yet if this laſt-mentioned place, where the pieces of coal, &c. are found in the clay, be in a ſituation lower than the ſprings; when this circumſtance is joined to the other two, it amounts to little leſs than a moral certainty of the ſtratum of coal being a very little above the level of the ſprings. But if, on the contrary, theſe pieces of coal are found more ſparingly interſperſed in the ſuperior ſtratum, and if the angles are much fretted or worn off, and very little of other kinds of mineral matter connected with them; it may then be concluded, that they have come from a ſtratum of coal ſituated at a greater diſtance than in the former caſe; and by a ſtrict ſearch and an accurate compariſon of other circumſtances, that particular place may be diſcovered with as much certainty as the other.

After the place is thus diſcovered, where the ſtratum of coal is expected to lie concealed, the next proper ſtep to be taken, is to begin digging a pit or hole there perpendicularly down to find the coal. If the coal has no ſolid ſtrata above and beneath it, but be found only embodied in the clay or other lax matter, it will not be there of its full thickneſs, nor ſo hard and pure as in its perfect ſtate when encloſed betwixt two ſolid ſtrata, the uppermoſt called the *roof*, and the undermoſt called the *pavement*, of the coal: in ſuch ſituation therefore it becomes neceſſary, either to dig a new pit, or to work a mine forward until the ſtratum of coal be found included betwixt a ſolid roof and pavement, after which it need not be expected to increaſe much in its thickneſs: yet as it goes deeper or farther to the dip, it moſt likely will improve in its quality; for that part of the ſtratum of coal which lies near the ſurface, or only at a ſmall depth, is often debaſed by a mixture of earth and ſundry other impurities waſhed down from the ſurface, through the backs and cutters, by the rains; whilſt the other part of the ſtratum which lies at a greater depth is preſerved pure, by the other ſolid ſtrata above it intercepting all the mud waſhed from the ſurface.

The above methods of inveſtigation admit of many different caſes, according to the greater or leſs number of favourable circumſtances attending each of the modes of inquiry; and the reſult accordingly admits every degree of probability, from the moſt diſtant, even up to abſolute certainty. In ſome ſituations, the coal will

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will be discovered by one method alone, in others, by a comparison of certain circumstances attending each method; whilst in some others, all the circumstances that can be collected only lead to a certain degree of probability.

In the last case, where the evidence is only probable, it will be more adviseable to proceed in the search by boring a hole through the solid strata (in the manner hereafter described), than by digging or sinking a pit, it being both cheaper and more expeditious; and in every case, which does not amount to an absolute certainty, this operation is necessary to ascertain the real existence of the coal in that place.

We shall now suppose that, having examined a certain district, situated within a few miles of the sea or some navigable river, that all the circumstances which offer only amount to a probability of the coal being there, and that boring is necessary to ascertain it. We shall therefore describe the operation of boring to the coal; then the method of clearing it from water, commonly called *winning* it; and all the subsequent operations of working the coal and raising it to the surface, leading it to the river or harbour, and finally putting it on board the ships.

15 Of boring for the coal. Plate CXLIX. fig. 4.

Suppose that the ground, A, B, C, D, fig. 4. has been examined, and from the appearance of the strata where they are visible (as at the precipice D, and several other places), they are found to be of those kinds usually connected with coal, and that the point to which they rise is directly west towards A, but the ground being flat and covered to a considerable depth with earth, &c. the strata cannot be viewed in the low grounds; therefore, in this and all similar situations, the first hole that is bored for a trial for coal should be on the west side of the ground, or to the full rise of the strata as at A, where boring down through the strata 1, 2, 3, suppose 10 fathoms, and not finding coal, it will be better to bore a new hole than to proceed to a great depth in that; therefore, proceeding so far to the eastward as B, where the stratum 1, of the first hole is computed to be 10 or 12 fathoms deep, a second hole may be bored, where boring down through the strata 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, the stratum 1 is met with, but no coal; it would be of no use to bore farther in this hole, as the same strata would be found which were in the hole A: therefore, proceeding again so far to the eastward, as it may be computed the stratum 4 of the second hole will be met with at the depth of 10 or 12 fathoms, a new hole may be bored C, where, boring through the strata 9, 10, 11, 12, the coal is met with at 13, before the hole proceed so deep as the stratum 4 of the former. It is evident, that, by this method of procedure, neither the coal nor any other of the strata can be passed over, as the last hole is always bored down to that stratum which was nearest the surface in the former hole.

The purposes for which boring is used are numerous, and some of them of the utmost importance in coaleries, In coaleries of great extent, although the coal be known to extend through the whole grounds, yet accidental turns, and other alterations in the dip, to which the coal is liable, render the boring of three or more holes necessary, to determine exactly to what point of the horizon it dips or inclines, before any capital operation for the winning of it can be undertaken; because a very small error in this may occasion the loss of a great part of the coal, or at least incur a double expence in recovering it.

Suppose A, B, C, D, (fig. 5.) to be part of an extensive field of coal, intended to be won or laid dry by a fire-engine; according to the course of the dip in adjoining coaleries, the point C is the place at which the engine should be erected, because the coal dips in the direction of the line AC, consequently the level line would be in the direction CD; but this ought not to be trusted to. Admit two holes, 1, 2, be bored to the coal in the direction of the supposed dip, at 200 yards distance from each other, and a third hole 3 at 200 yards distance from each of them: suppose the coal is found, at the hole 1, to be 20 fathoms deep; at the hole 2, 10 fathoms deeper; but at the hole 3, only 8 fathoms deeper than at 1. Then to find the true level line and dip of the coal, say, As 10 fathoms, the dip from 1 to 2, are to 200 yards the distance, so are 8 fathoms, the dip from 1 to 3, to 160 yards the distance from 1 on the line 1, 2, to *a*, the point upon a level with the hole 3. Again say, As 8 fathoms, the dip from 1 to 3, are to 200 yards the distance; so are 10 fathoms, the dip from 1 to 2, to 250 yards, the distance from 1, in direction of the line 1, 3, to *b*, the point upon a level with the hole 2. Then let fall the perpendicular 1 *c*, which will be the true direction of the dip of the coal, instead of the supposed line AC; and by drawing ED, and DF, parallel to the other lines, the angle D, and no other place, is the deepest part of the coal, and the place where the engine should be erected. If it had been erected at the angle C, the level line would have gone in the direction *c b*, by which means about one-third part of the field of coal would have been below the level of the engine, and perhaps lost, without another engine was erected at D. Fig. 5.

Boring not only shows the depth at which the coal lies, but its exact thickness; its hardness; its quality, whether close burning or open burning, and whether any foul mixture is in it or not; also the thickness, hardness and other circumstances of all the strata bored through; and from the quantity of water met with in the boring, some judgment may be formed of the size of an engine capable of drawing it, where an engine is necessary. When holes are to be bored for these purposes, they may be fixed (as near as can be guessed) in such a situation from each other, as to suit the places where pits are afterwards to be sunk: by which means most of the expence may be saved, as these pits would otherwise require to be bored, when sinking, to discharge their water into the mire below. There are many other uses to which boring is applied, as will be explained hereafter.

For these reasons boring is greatly practised in England, and is brought to great perfection; and as the operation is generally entrusted to a man of integrity, who makes it his profession, the accounts given by him of the thickness and other circumstances of the strata, are the most accurate imaginable, and are trusted to with the greatest confidence; for as very few gentlemen choose to take a lease of a new coalery which has not been sufficiently explored by boring, it is necessary the account should be faithful, being the only rule to guide the landlord in letting his coal, and the

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tenant in taking it. In Scotland it is not ſo generally practiſed; nor are there any men of character who are profeſſed borers, that operation being commonly left to any common workman; whence it happens, that it never has been in any eſteem, the accounts given by them being ſo imperfect and equivocal, as not to merit any confidence.

The tools or inſtruments uſed in boring are very ſimple. The boring rods are made of iron, from 3 to 4 feet long, and about an inch and a half ſquare, with a ſcrew at each end, by which they are ſcrewed together, and other rods added, as the hole increaſes in depth. The chiſel is about 18 inches long, and two and a half broad at the end, which being ſcrewed on at the lower end of the rods, and a piece of timber put through an eye at the upper end, they are prepared for work. The operation is performed by lifting them up a little, and letting them fall again, at the ſame time turning them a little round; by a continuance of which motions, a round hole is fretted or worn through the hardeſt ſtrata. When the chiſel is blunt, it is taken out, and a ſcooped inſtrument called a *wimble*, put on in its ſtead; by which the duſt or pulverized matter which was worn off the ſtratum in the laſt operation is brought up. By this ſubſtance, the borers know exactly the nature of the ſtratum they are boring in: and by any alteration in the working of the rods (which they are ſenſible of by handling them), they perceive the leaſt variation of the ſtrata. The principal part of the art depends upon keeping the hole clean, and obſerving every variation of the ſtrata with care and attention.

The eſtabliſhed price of boring in England was ſome time ago 5s. per fathom for the firſt five fathoms, 10s. per fathom for the next five fathoms, and 15s. per fathom for the next five fathoms; and ſo continually increaſing 5s. per fathom at the end of every five fathoms; the borer finding all kinds of boring inſtruments; but if more than one foot in thickneſs of whin occur, he is paid per day. See a new method of boring for coal deſcribed in Dr Millar's edition of *Williams's Min. Kingdom.*

16 Of winning the coal.

It is exceedingly uncommon to meet with a ſtratum of coal which is naturally dry, or whoſe ſubterranean ſprings or feeders of water are ſo very ſmall as to require no other means than the labour of men to draw off or conduct them away; for it moſt commonly happens that the ſtratum of coal, and the other ſtrata adjacent, abound ſo much in feeders of water, that, before acceſs can be had to the coal, ſome other methods muſt be purſued to drain or conduct away theſe feeders; therefore, after the deepeſt part of the coal is diſcovered, the next conſideration is of the beſt method of draining it, or, in the miners language, *of winning the coal.*

If the coal lies in ſuch an elevated ſituation, that a part of it can be drained by a level brought up from the lower grounds, then that will be the moſt *natural* method; but whether it be the moſt *proper* or not, depends upon certain circumſtances. If the ſituation of the ground be ſuch, that the level would be of a great length, or have to come through very hard ſtrata, and the quantity of coal it would drain, or the profits expected to be produced by that coal, ſhould be inadequate to the expence of carrying it up; in ſuch caſe ſome other method of winning might be more proper. Or ſuppoſe, in another caſe, it be found, that a level can be had to a coalery, which will coſt 2000l. and require five years to bring it up to the coal, and that it will drain 30 acres of coal when completed; yet if it be found that a fire engine, or ſome other machine, can be erected on that coalery, for the ſame ſum of money, in one year, which will drain 50 acres of the ſame coal, then this laſt would be a more proper method than the level; becauſe four years profit would be received by this method before any could come in by the other; and after the 30 acres drained by the level is all wrought, a machine of ſome kind would nevertheleſs be neceſſary to drain the remaining 20 acres; ſo that erecting a machine at firſt would be on all accounts the moſt adviſable.

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Where a level can be driven, in a reaſonable time, and at an adequate expence, to drain a ſufficient tract of coal, it is then the moſt eligible method of winning; becauſe the charge of upholding it is generally leſs than that of upholding fire-engines or other machines.

If a level is judged propereſt after conſideration of every neceſſary circumſtance, it may be begun at the place appointed in the manner of an open ditch, about three feet wide, and carried forward until it be about ſix or ſeven feet deep from the ſurface, taking care to ſecure the bottom and ſides by timber work or building, after which it may be continued in the manner of a mine about three feet wide, and three feet and a half high, through the ſolid ſtrata, taking care all along to keep the bottom upon a level, and to ſecure the roof, ſides, and bottom, by timber or building, in all places where the ſtrata are not ſtrong enough to ſupport the incumbent weight, or where they are liable to decay by their expoſure to the freſh air. If the mine has to go a very long way before it reaches the coal, it may be neceſſary to ſink a ſmall pit, for the convenience of taking out the ſtones and rubbiſh produced in working the mine, as well as to ſupply freſh air to the workmen; and if the air ſhould afterwards turn damp, then ſquare wooden pipes made of deals cloſely jointed (commonly called *air-boxes*), may be fixed in the upper part of the mine, from the pit-bottom all the way to the end of the mine, which will cauſe a ſufficient circulation of freſh air for the workmen. Perhaps in a great length it will be found proper to ſink another or more pits upon the mine, and by proceeding in this manner it may be carried forward until it arrive at the coal; and after driving a mine in the coal a few yards to one ſide, the firſt coal-pit may be ſunk.

If a level is found impracticable, or for particular reaſons unadviſable, then a fire engine *, or ſome other machine, will be neceſſary, which ſhould be fixed upon the deepeſt part of the coal, or at leaſt ſo far towards the dip as will drain a ſufficient extent of coal, to continue for the time intended to work the coalery; and whether a fire engine, or any other machine is uſed, it will be of great advantage to have a partial level brought up to the engine-pit, if the ſituation of the ground will admit it at a ſmall charge, in order to receive and convey away the water without drawing it ſo high as to the ſurface; for if the pit was 30 fathoms deep to the coal, and if there was a partial level which received the water five fathoms only

* See article *Steam-Engine.*

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The engine-pit may be from ſeven to nine feet wide, and whether it be circular, oval, or of any other form, is not very material, provided it be ſufficiently ſtrong, though a circular form is moſt generally approved. If any feeders of water are met with a few fathoms from the ſurface, it will be proper to make a circular or ſpiral cutting about one foot deep, and a little hollowed in the bottom, round the circumference of the pit, in order to receive and conduct the water down, without flying over the pit and incommoding the workmen. If the ſtrata are of ſo tender or friable a nature as not to bear this operation, or if the water leaks through them, then it will be neceſſary to inſert in the fore-mentiond cutting a circular piece of timber called a *crib*, hollowed in the ſame manner to collect the water; and a ſecond may be inſerted two or three yards below the firſt, with a ſloping niche down the wall or ſide of the pit, to convey the water from the former into it; proceeding by ſome of theſe methods until the pit is ſunk 15 or 20 fathoms, at which place it would be proper to fix a ciſtern or reſervoir, for the firſt or upper ſet of pumps to ſtand in; for if the pit be 30 fathoms as ſuppoſed, it would be too great a length for the pumps to be all in one ſet from bottom to top; therefore, if any extraordinary feeders are met with, betwixt 15 and 20 fathoms deep, it would be beſt to fix the ciſtern where it may receive them, and prevent their deſcending to the bottom; obſerving that the upper ſet of pumps be ſo much larger than the lower one, as the additional feeders may require; or if there are no additional feeders, it ought then to be a little ſmaller.

After the upper ciſtern is fixed, the operation may be purſued by the other ſet of pumps in much the ſame manner as has been deſcribed, until the pit is ſunk to the coal; which being done, it would be proper to ſink it ſix or eight feet deeper, and to work ſome coal out from the dip ſide of the pit, to make room for a large quantity of water to collect, without incommoding the coal-pits when the engine is not working.

It would exceed the proper bounds of this article to enumerate all the accidents to which engine-pits are liable in ſinking; we ſhall therefore only recite a few which ſeem important.

If a quickſand happens to lie above the ſolid ſtrata, next the ſurface, it may be got through by digging the pit of ſuch a wideneſs at the top (allowing for the natural ſlope or running of the ſand) as to have the proper ſize of the pit on the uppermoſt ſolid ſtratum, where fixing a wooden frame or tub as the timber-work of the pit, and covering it round on the outſide with wrought clay up to the top, the ſand may again be thrown into the excavation round the tub, and levelled with the ſurface.

If the quickſand ſhould happen to lie at a conſiderable depth betwixt the clay and ſolid ſtrata, then a ſtrong tub of timber cloſely jointed and ſhod with iron, of ſuch a diameter as the pit will admit, may be let down into it; and by fixing a great weight upon the top, and by working out the ſand, it may be made to ſink gradually, until it comes to the rock or other ſolid ſtratum below; and when all the ſand is got out, if it be lightly calked and ſecured, it will be ſufficient.

It ſometimes happens, that a ſtratum of ſoft matter lying betwixt two hard ſolid ones, produces ſo large a quantity of water as greatly to incommode the operations. In ſuch a caſe, a frame-work of plank, ſtrengthened with cribs and cloſely calked, will keep back the whole or the greateſt part of it, provided the two ſtrata which include it are of a cloſe texture; or let an excavation of about two feet be made in the ſoft ſtratum quite round the circumference of the pit, and let that be filled cloſe up betwixt the hard ſtrata with pieces of dry fir-timber about ten inches ſquare inſerted endwiſe, and afterwards as many wooden wedges driven into them as they can be made to receive; if this be well finiſhed, little or no water will find a paſſage through it.

It rarely happens that any ſuffocating damp or foul air is met with in an engine-pit; the falling of water, and the working of the pumps, generally cauſing a ſufficient circulation of freſh air. But that kind of combuſtible vapour, or inflammable air, which will catch fire at a candle, is often met with. It proceeds from the partings, backs, and cutters, of the ſolid ſtrata, exhaling from ſome in an inſenſible manner, whilſt from others it blows with as great impetuoſity as a pair of bellows. When this inflammable air is permitted to accumulate, it becomes dangerous by taking fire, and burning or deſtroying the workmen, and ſometimes by its exploſion will blow the timber out of the pit and do conſiderable damage. If a conſiderable ſupply of freſh air is forced down the pit by air-boxes and a ventilator, or by dividing the pit into two by a cloſe partition of deals from top to bottom, or by any other means it will be driven out, or ſo weakened that it will be of no dangerous conſequence; or when the inflammable air is very ſtrong, it may be ſafely carried off by making a cloſe ſheathing or lining of thin deals quite round the circumference of the pit, from the top of the ſolid ſtrata to the bottom, and lengthening it as the pit is ſunk, leaving a ſmall vacancy behind the ſheathing; when the combuſtible matter which exhales from the ſtrata, being confined behind theſe deals, may be vented by one or two ſmall leaden pipes carried from the ſheathing to the ſurface, ſo that very little of it can tranſpire into the area of the pit. If a candle be applied to the orifice of the pipe at the ſurface, the inflammable air will inſtantly take fire, and continue burning like an oil-lamp, until it be extinguiſhed by ſome internal cauſe. Upon the whole, every method ſhould be uſed to make the pit as ſtrong in every part, and to keep it as dry as poſſible; and whenever any accident happens, it ſhould be as expeditiouſly and thoroughly repaired as poſſible, before any other operation be proceeded in, leſt an additional one follow, which would more than double the difficulty of repairing it.

17 Of working the coal.

The firſt operations, after ſinking the engine-pit, are the working or driving a mine in the coal, and ſinking the firſt coal-pit. The ſituation of the firſt coal-pit ſhould be a little to the riſe of the engine-pit, that the water which collects there may not obſtruct the working

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working of the coals every time the engine ſtops; and it ſhould not exceed the diſtance of 20, 30, or 40 yards, becauſe when the firſt mine has to be driven a long way, it becomes both difficult and expenſive. If there be not a ſufficient circulation of freſh air in the mine, it may be ſupplied by the before-deſcribed air-boxes and a ventilator, until it arrives below the intended coal-pit, when the pit may be bored and ſunk to the coal, in the manner before mentioned.

After the pit is thus got down to the coal, the next conſideration ſhould be, the beſt method of working it. The moſt general practice in Scotland is to excavate and take away a part only of the ſtratum of coal in the firſt working of the pit, leaving the other part as pillars for ſupporting the roof; and after the coal is wrought in this manner to ſuch a diſtance from the pit as intended, then theſe pillars, or ſo many of them as can be got, are taken out by a ſecond working, and the roof and other ſolid ſtrata above permitted to fall down and fill up the excavation. The quantity of coal wrought away, and the ſize of the pillars left in the firſt working, is proportioned to the hardneſs and ſtrength of the coal and other ſtrata adjacent, compared with the incumbent weight of the ſuperior ſtrata.

The ſame mode of working is purſued in moſt parts of England, differing only as the circumſtances of the coalery may require; for the Engliſh coal, particularly in the northern counties, being of a fine tender texture, and of the cloſe-burning kind, and alſo the roof and pavement of the coal in general not ſo ſtrong as in Scotland, they are obliged to leave a larger proportion of coal in the pillars for ſupporting the roof, during the firſt time of working; and, in the ſecond working, as many of theſe pillars are wrought away as can be got with ſafety.

The Scots coal in general being very hard, and of the open-burning kind, it is neceſſary to work it in ſuch a manner as to produce as many *great coals* as poſſible, which is beſt effected by taking away as high a proportion of the coal as circumſtances will allow in the firſt working; on the contrary, the Engliſh coal being very tender, cannot poſſibly be wrought large, nor is it of much importance how ſmall they are, being of ſo rich a quality; ſo that a larger proportion may be left in pillars in this coal than could with propriety be done in the other; and, when all circumſtances are conſidered, each method ſeems well adapted to the different purpoſes intended.

The ancient method of working was, to work away as much of the coal as could be got with ſafety at one working only, by which means the pillars were left ſo ſmall as to be cruſhed by the weight of the ſuperior ſtrata, and entirely loſt. As great quantities of coals were loſt by this method, it is now generally exploded, and the former adopted in its place, by which a much larger quantity of coal is obtained from the ſame extent of ground, and at a much leſs expence in the end.

The exact proportion of coal proper to be wrought away, and to be left in pillars at the firſt working, may be judged of by a compariſon of the circumſtances before mentioned. If the roof and pavement are both ſtrong, as well as the coal, and the pit about 30 fathoms deep, then two-thirds, or probably three-fourths, may be taken away at the firſt working, and one-third or one-fourth left in pillars. If both roof and pavement be ſoft or tender, then a larger proportion muſt be left in pillars, probably one-third or near one-half; and in all caſes the hardneſs or ſtrength of the coal muſt be conſidered. If tender, it will require a larger pillar than hard coal; becauſe, by being expoſed to the air after the firſt working, a part of it will moulder and fall off, by which it will loſe much of its ſolidity and reſiſtance.

The proportion to be wrought away and left in pillars being determined, the next proper ſtep is to fix upon ſuch dimenſions of the pillars to be left, and of the excavations from which the coal is to be taken away, as may produce that proportion. In order to form a juſt idea of which, ſee a plan of part of a pit's workings (fig. 6.) ſuppoſed to be at the depth of 30 fathoms, and the coal having a moderate riſe. A, repreſents the engine-pit; B, the coal-pit; A *a* B, the mine from the former to the latter; BC, the firſt working or excavation made from the coal-pit, commonly called the *winning mine* or *winning headway*, nine feet wide; *bbbb*, &c. the workings called *rooms*, turned off at right angles from the others, of the width of 12 feet: *cccc*, &c. the workings called *throughers* or *thirlings*, 9 feet wide, wrought through at right angles from one room to another; *ddd*, &c. the pillars of coal left at the firſt working for ſupporting the roof, 18 feet long and 12 feet broad; DD, two large pillars of coal near the pit bottom, 15 or 20 yards long, and 10 or 15 broad, to ſupport the pit, and prevent its being damaged by the roof falling in; *e e*, the level mine wrought in the coal from the engine-pit bottom four or five feet wide; *f f*, &c. large pillars of coal left next the level, to ſecure it from any damage by the roof falling in; *g g*, a dike which depreſſes the coal, 1 fathom; *h h*, &c. large pillars and barriers of coal, left unwrought, adjoining to the dike where the roof is tender, to prevent its falling down. The coal taken out by the firſt working in this pit is ſuppoſed to be one-third of the whole; and allowing the rooms 12 feet wide, and the thirlings 9 feet wide, then the pillars will require to be 12 feet wide and 18 feet long; for if one pillar be in a certain proportion to its adjoining room and thirling, the whole number of pillars will be in the ſame proportion to the whole number of rooms and thirlings in the pit. Suppoſe ABCD (fig. 7.) to be a pillar of coal 18 feet long and 12 feet broad, its area will be 216 ſquare feet; ACHE, the adjoining thirling, 12 feet by 9 feet, and its area 108 ſquare feet; BAEFG, the adjoining room, 27 feet long and 12 feet broad, and its area 324 ſquare feet; which added to 108 gives 432 ſquare feet, or two-thirds wrought, and 216 ſquare feet left, or one-third of the whole area FGHD.

Plate CXLIX. fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

It is proper to obſerve, that in the proſecution of the workings, the rooms to the right of the winning headway ſhould be oppoſite to the pillars on the left, and the firſt, third, and fifth pillar, or the ſecond, fourth, and ſixth, adjoining to the ſaid headway, ſhould be of ſuch a length as to overlay the adjoining thirlings, as, in the plan, the pillar 2 overlays the thirlings 1 and 3; and the pillar 4 overlays the thirlings 3 and 5; this will effectually ſupport the roof of the main road BC, and will bring the other pillars into

Coalery. into their regular order, by which means each pillar will be oppofite to two thirlings. Alfo a larger proportion of coal than common fhould be left in all places which are intended to be kept open after the fecond working, fuch as the pit-bottoms, air-courfes, roads, and water-courfes, or where the roof is tender, as it generally is near dikes, hitches, and troubles; and if the roof fhould continue tender for a confiderable fpace, it will perhaps be found proper to leave a few inches of coal adhering to the roof, which, together with a few props of timber fixed under it, may fupport it effectually for a long time. The level mine *e e*, and the winning headway BC, fhould be wrought forward a confiderable length before the other rooms, in order to be driven through any dikes that might interpofe, otherwife the progrefs of the workings might probably be ftopt a confiderable time, waiting until a courfe of new rooms were procured on the other fide of the dike. Suppofe the dike *g g*, fig. 6. to depref the coal fix feet or one fathom, and that it rifes in the fame manner on the under fide of the dike as it does on the upper fide; in fuch a cafe, the only remedy would be to work or drive a level mine through the ftrata of ftone from the engine-level at *e*, over the dike, until it interfect the coal at *i*; and from thence to drive a new level mine in the coal at *i i*, and a new winning headway *i k*. In order to gain a new fet of rooms and to fupply frefh air to this new operation, a fmall mine might be driven from the room *h*, and a hole funk down upon the level room *i i*; therefore, if the level mine *e e* was not driven fo far forward as to have all thefe operations completed before the rooms and other workings were intercepted by the dike, the working of the pit might ceafe until thefe new places were ready.

If there be two or three ftrata or feams of coal in the fame pit (as there often are) having only a ftratum of a few feet thick lying betwixt them, it is then material to obferve, that every pillar in the fecond feam be placed immediately before one in the firft, and every pillar in the third feam below one in the fecond; and in fuch a fituation the upper ftratum of coal ought to be firft wrought, or elfe all the three together; for it would be unfafe to work the lower one firft, left the roof fhould break, and damage thofe lying above.

It fometimes becomes neceffary to work the coal lying to the dip of the engine or the level; which coal is confequently drowned with water, and muft therefore be drained by fome means before it can be wrought. If the quantity of water proceeding from it be inconfiderable, it may then be drained by fmall pumps laid upon the pavement of the coal, and wrought by men or horfes, to raife the water up to the level of the engine-pit bottom; or if the feeders of water be more confiderable, and the fituation be fuitable, the working rod of thefe pumps might be connected with thofe in the engine-pit; by which means the water would be raifed up to the level; but if the quantity of water be very great; or if, from other circumftances, thefe methods may not be applicable; then the engine pit may be funk as deep below the coal as may be neceffary, and a level ftone mine driven from its bottom to the dip of the ftrata, until it interfect the ftratum of coal, from whence a new level mine might be wrought, which would effectually drain it. Suppofe AB, fig. 8. to be a fection of the engine-pit; BC, the coal drained by the engine; BD, the coal to the dip of the engine intended to be drained; then if the engine-pit be funk deeper to E, a ftone mine may be wrought in the direction ED, until it interfect the coal at D, by which the water will have a free paffage to the engine, and the coal will be drained. Coalery. Fig. 8.

If there be another ftratum of coal lying at fuch a depth below the firft as the engine-pit is intended to be funk to, the upper feam may in fome fituations be conveniently drained, by driving a mine in the lower feam of coal from E to F, and another in the upper one from B to D; and by boring a hole from D to F, the water will defcend to F, and, filling the mine EF, rife up to the engine-pit bottom at E, which is upon a level with D.

Whenever it is judged neceffary to work the pillars, regard muft be had to the nature of the roof. If the roof is tender, a narrow room may be wrought through the pillar from one end to the other, leaving only a fhell of coal on each fide for fupporting the roof the time of working. Suppofe ABCD, fig. 7. to be a pillar of coal 18 feet long and 12 feet broad: if the roof is not ftrong, the room 1, 2, 3, 4, of eight feet wide, may be wrought up through that pillar, leaving a fhell of two feet thick on each fide; and if it can be fafely done, a part of thefe fhells may alfo be wrought away, by working two places through them as at 5 and 6. By this means very little of the coal will be loft; for two-thirds of the whole being obtained by the firft working, and above two-thirds of the pillar by the fecond working, the lofs upon the whole would not exceed one-tenth: but it may be obferved, that fome pillars will not produce fo great a proportion, and perhaps others cannot be wrought at all; fo that, upon the whole, there may be about one-fixth, one-feventh, or in fome fituations but one-eighth part of the coal loft. If the roof be hard and ftrong, then as much coal may be wrought off each fide and each end of the pillar as can be done with fafety, leaving only a fmall piece ftanding in the middle; and when the roof is very ftrong, fometimes feveral pillars may be taken entirely out, without any lofs of coal: and in general this laft method is attended with lefs lofs, and produces larger coals, than the former. In all cafes it is proper to begin working thofe pillars firft which lie fartheft from the pit bottom, and to proceed working them regularly away towards the pit; but if there be a great number of pillars to the dip of the pit, it is the fafeft method to work thefe out before thofe to the rife of the pit are begun with.

There is no great difference in the weight of different kinds of coals, the lighteft being about 74 pounds avoirdupois, and the heavieft about 79 pounds the cubic foot; but the moft ufual weight is 75 pounds the foot, which is 18 hundred weight and 9 pounds the cubic yard. The ftatute chalder is 53 hundred weight; or when meafured is as follows: 268.8 cubic inches to the Winchefter gallon; $4\frac{1}{2}$ gallons to the coal peck, about 3 pounds weight; 8 coal-pecks to the boll, about $247\frac{1}{3}$ pounds; and 24 bolls to the chalder, of 53 hundred weight. If one coal meafuring exactly a cubic yard (nearly equal to 5 bolls) be broken into pieces of a moderate fize, it will meafure feven coal bolls

Coalery. bolls and a half. If broken very ſmall it will meaſure 9 bolls; which ſhows, that the proportion of the weight to the meaſure depends upon the ſize of the coals; therefore accounting by weight is the moſt rational method.

A TABLE of the weight and quantity of coal contained in one acre Scots meaſure, allowing one-ſixth part to be loſt below ground, in ſeams of the following thickneſſes.

Thickneſs of Coal. Feet.	Inches.	Weight in Tons.	Quantity in Chalders.
2	0	3068	1158—
2	6	3835	1447+
3	0	4602	1736+
3	6	5369	2026+
4	0	6136	2315+
4	6	6903	2604+
5	0	7670	2894+
5	6	8437	3183+
6	0	9204	3473+

We ſhall next mention ſome of the various methods of bringing the coals from the rooms and other workings to the pit-bottom. Where the ſtratum of coal is of a ſufficient thickneſs, and has a moderate riſe and dip, the coals are moſt advantageouſly brought out by horſes, who draw out the coals in a tub or baſket placed upon a ſledge: a horſe by this means will bring out from four to eight hundred weight of coals at once, according to the quantity of the aſcent or deſcent. In ſome coaleries they have acceſs to the workings by a mine made for them, ſloping down from the ſurface of the earth to the coal; and where that convenience is wanting, they are bound into a net, and lowered down the pit. If the coal be not of ſuch a height as to admit horſes, and has a moderate riſe like the laſt, then men are employed to bring out the coals: they uſually draw a baſket of four or five hundred weight of coals, fixed upon a ſmall four-wheeled carriage. There are ſome ſituations in which neither horſes nor men can be properly uſed; particularly where the coal has a great degree of deſcent, or where many dikes occur: in ſuch a caſe the coals are beſt brought out by women called *bearers*, who carry them in a kind of baſket upon their backs, uſually a hundred, or a hundred weight and a half, at once.

When the coals are brought to the pit-bottom, the baſkets are then hooked on to a chain, and drawn up the pit by a rope to the ſurface, which is beſt effected by a machine called a *gin*, wrought by horſes. There are ſome kinds of gins for drawing coals, ſome wrought by water, others by the vibrating lever of a fire-engine, but either of theſe laſt is only convenient in ſome particular ſituations, thoſe wrought by horſes being in moſt general uſe. After the coals are got to the ſurface, they are drawn a ſmall diſtance from the pit, and laid in ſeparate heaps: the larger coals in one heap, the ſmaller pieces called *chews* in another, and the *culm* or *pan-coal* in a ſeparate place.

18 Of cruſhes and ſitts. There is an accident of a very dangerous nature, to which all coaleries are liable, and which has been the ruin of ſeveral; it is called a *cruſh*, or a *ſitt*. When the pillars of coal are left ſo ſmall as to fail, or yield under the weight of the ſuperior ſtrata; or when the pavement of the coal is ſo ſoft as to permit the pillars to ſink into it, which ſometimes happens by the great weight that lies upon them; in either caſe the ſolid ſtratum above the coal breaks and falls in, cruſhes the pillar to pieces, and cloſes up a great extent of the workings, or probably the whole coalery. As ſuch an accident ſeldom comes on ſuddenly, if it be perceived in the beginning, it may ſometimes be ſtopped by building large pillars of ſtone amongſt the coal pillars: but if it has already made ſome progreſs, then the beſt method is to work away as many of the coal pillars adjoining to the cruſh as may be ſufficient to let the roof fall freely down; and if it makes a breach of the ſolid ſtrata from the coal up to the ſurface, it will very probably prevent the cruſh from proceeding any farther in that part of the coalery. If the cruſh begins in the riſe part of the coalery, it is more difficult to ſtop it from proceeding to the dip, than it is to ſtop it from going to the riſe when it begins in a contrary part.

19 Foul air. Another circumſtance proper to be taken notice of is the foul or adulterated air ſo often troubleſome in coaleries. Of this there are two kinds; the black damp or ſtyth, which is of a ſuffocating nature; and the inflammable or combuſtible damp. Without ſtaying to inquire, in this place, into the origin and effects of theſe damps, it may be ſufficient to obſerve, that, in whatever part of any coalery a conſtant ſupply or a circulation of freſh air is wanting, there ſome of theſe damps exiſt, accumulate in a body, and become noxious or fatal; and whenever there is a good circulation of freſh air, they cannot accumulate, being mixed with and carried away by the ſtream of air as faſt as they generate or exhale from the ſtrata. Upon theſe principles are founded the ſeveral methods of ventilating a coalery. Suppoſe the workings of the pits A and B (fig. 6.) to be obnoxious to the inflammable damps; if the communication was open betwixt the two pits, the air which went down the pit A would proceed immediately beyond the mine *a*, and aſcend out of the pit B; for it naturally takes the neareſt direction, ſo that the air in all the workings would be ſtagnant; and they would be utterly inacceſſible from the accumulation of the combuſtible damp. In order to expel this, the air muſt be made to circulate through all the different rooms by means of collateral air-courſes made in this manner: The paſſage or mine *a* muſt be cloſed up or ſtopped by a partition of deals, or by a wall built with bricks or ſtones, to prevent the air paſſing that way. This building is called a *ſtopping*. There muſt alſo be ſtoppings made in the thirlings 1 1 1, &c. between the pillars *f f*, &c. which will direct the air up the mine *e e*, until it arrives at the innermoſt thirling 2, which is to be left open for its paſſage. There muſt alſo be ſtoppings made at the ſide of the mine *a* at *m m*, and on both ſides of the main headway BC at *b b*, &c. then returning to the innermoſt thirling 2, proceed to the third row of pillars, and build up the thirlings 2 2, &c. leaving open the thirling 3 for a paſſage for the air; and proceeding on to the fifth row of pillars, build up in the ſame manner the ſtoppings 3 3, &c. leaving open 4 for an air courſe: and by proceeding in this manner to ſtop up the thirlings or paſſages in every other row of pillars, the current

Plate CXLIX.

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rent of fresh air will circulate through and ventilate the whole workings, in the direction pointed to by the small arrows in the plan, clearing away all the damps and noxious vapours that may generate. When it is arrived at C, it is conducted across the main headway, and carried through the other part of the pit's workings in the same manner, until it returns through *n n* to the pit B, where it ascends; and as the rooms advance farther, other stoppings are regularly made.

In some of those stoppings, on the side of the main headway, there must be doors to admit a passage for the bringing out of the coals from the rooms to the pit, as at 5 5: these doors must be constantly shut, except at the time of passing through them.

There are other methods of disposing the stoppings so as to ventilate the pit; but none which will so effectually disperse the damps as that described above. If the damps are not very abundant, then the course of stopping 1 1 1, &c. in the level mine, and the others at *b b b*, &c. in the main headway, without any others, may perhaps be sufficient to keep the pit clear. If at any time the circulation of the fresh air is not brisk enough, then a large lamp of fire may be placed at the bottom of the pit B, which, by rarefying the air there, will make a quicker circulation.

20 Of leading and shipping the coals.

Most of the larger coaleries send their coals to the ships for the coasting trade or exportation; and, as the quantity is generally very large, it would take a greater number of carts than could conveniently be obtained at all times to carry them; besides the considerable expence of that manner of carriage: they therefore generally use waggons, for carrying them along waggon-ways, laid with timber, by which means one horse will draw from two to three tons at a time, when in a cart not above half a ton could be drawn.

The first thing to be done in making a waggon-way is to level the ground in such a manner as to take off all sudden ascents and descents, to effect which, it is sometimes necessary to cut through hills, and to raise an embankment to carry the road through hollows. The road should be formed about 12 feet wide, and no part should have a greater descent than of one yard perpendicular in 10 of a horizontal line, nor a greater ascent than one yard in 30. After the road is formed, pieces of timber, about six feet long, and six inches diameter, called *sleepers*, are laid across it, being 18 or 24 inches distant from each other. Upon these sleepers other pieces of timber, called *rails*, of four or five inches square, are laid in a lateral direction, four feet distant from each other, for the waggon-wheels to run upon; which being firmly pinned to the sleepers, the road may then be filled with gravel and finished.

The waggons have four wheels, either made of solid wood or of cast iron. The body of the carriage is longer and wider at the top than at the bottom; and usually has a kind of trap-door at the bottom, which, being loosed, permits the coals to run out without any trouble. The size of a waggon to carry 50 hundred weight of coals is as follows:

	Feet.	Inches.
Length of the top - -	7	9
Breadth of the top, - -	5	0
Length of the bottom, -	5	0
Breadth of the bottom, -	2	6
Perpendicular height, -	4	3

Where the pits are situated at some considerable distance from the harbour, it becomes necessary to have a store-house near the shipping place, where the coals may be lodged, until the lighters or ships are ready to take them in. The waggon-way should be made into the store-house, at such a height from the ground, as to permit the coals to run from the waggons down a spout into the vessels; or else to fall down into the store-house, as occasion may require.

Coalery || Coast.

This kind of store-house is well adapted to dispatch and saving expence; for a waggon load of coals may be delivered either into the store-house or vessels instantly with very little trouble: and if the coals were exposed to the effects of the sun and rain, they would be greatly injured in their quality; but being lodged under cover of the store-house, they are preserved.

COALESCENCE, the union or growing together of two bodies before separate. It is principally applied to some bones in the body, which are separate during infancy, but afterwards grow together; or to some morbid union of parts, which should naturally be distinct from each other. Thus there is a coalescence, the sides of the vulva, anus, and nares; of the eye-lids fingers, toes, and many other parts.

COALLIER, a vessel employed to carry coals from one port to another, chiefly from the northern parts of England to the capital, and more southerly parts, as well as to foreign markets. This trade is known to be an excellent nursery for seamen, although they are often found, from the constitution of their climate, not to be so well calculated for southern navigation.

COAMINGS, in ship-buildings, are those planks, or that frame, forming a border round the hatches, which raise them up higher that the rest of the deck. Loop-holes for muskets to shoot out at are often made in the coamings, in order to clear the deck of the enemy when the ship is boarded.

COANE, among the Greeks, a name given to a peculiar species of *tutia* or tutty, which was always found in a tubular form. It had its name from κωνη, a word used to express a sort of cylindric tube, into which the melted brass was received from the furnace, and in which it was suffered to cool. In cooling, it always deposited a sort of recrement on the sides of the vessel or tube, and this was the tutty called coane.

COAST, a sea-shore, or the country adjoining to the edge of the sea. Dr Campbell, in his Political Survey of Great Britain, considers an extensive sea-coast as of great advantage to any kingdom; and consequently that this island hath many conveniencies resulting from the extent of its coasts, superior to other kingdoms which are much larger. The chief advantages arising from an extensive sea-coast are, that thus there is a convenient opportunity for exportation and importation to or from all parts of the kingdom. Thus, a number of cities are formed on the coasts; by this means the internal parts are improved, &c. The extent of the sea-coasts of Arabia, he looks upon as the genuine source of wealth and splendour to the ancient inhabitants of that peninsula; the same was the instrument of the greatness of ancient Egypt, of Phœnicia, &c. In short, according to him, no country or city can for any length of time be flourishing unless

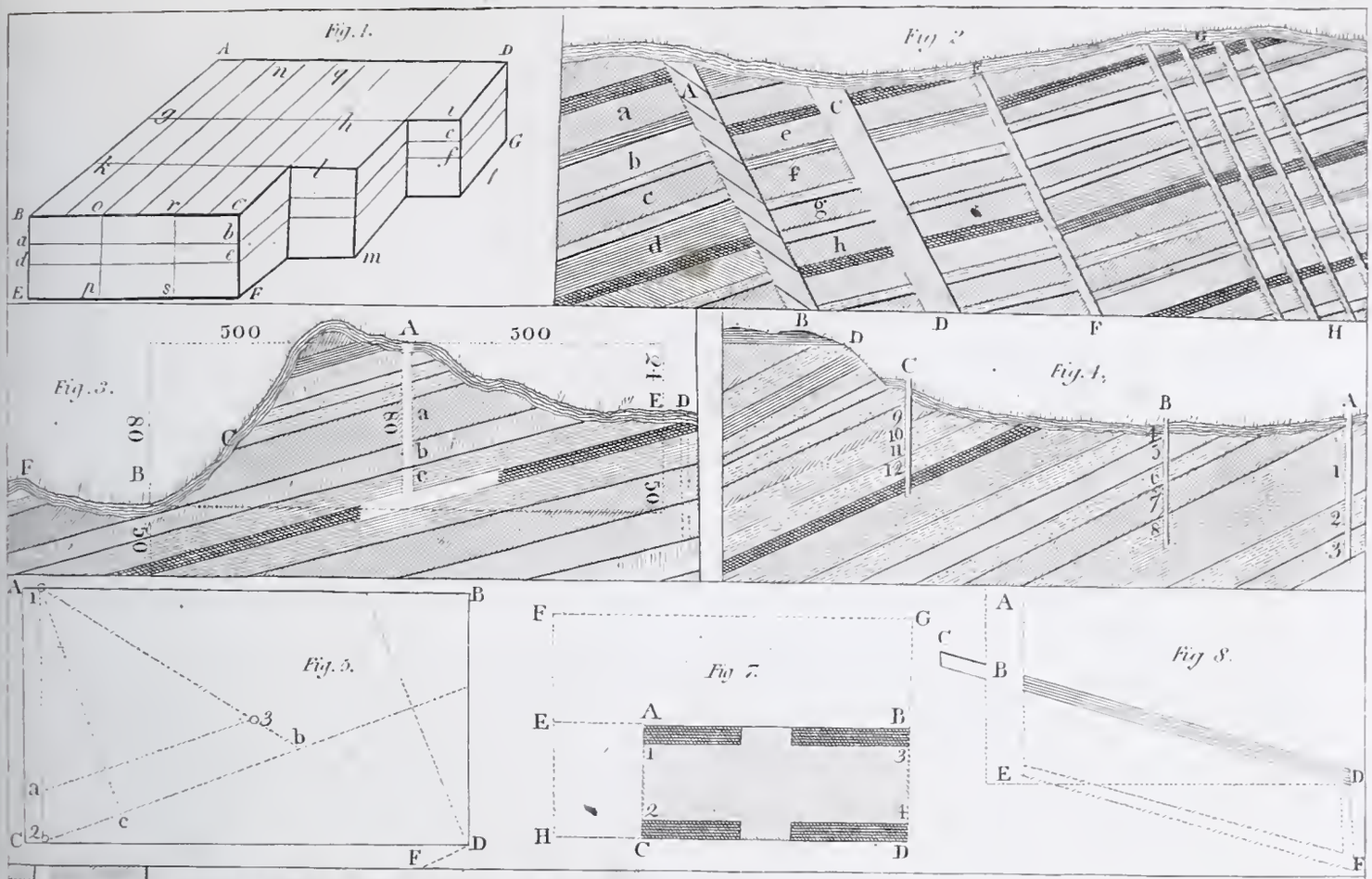
Fig. 1.
Fig. 2
Fig. 3.
Fig. 4.
Fig. 5.
Fig. 7.
Fig. 8.
500
500
80
80
30
50
Rise
Level
Level
Dip

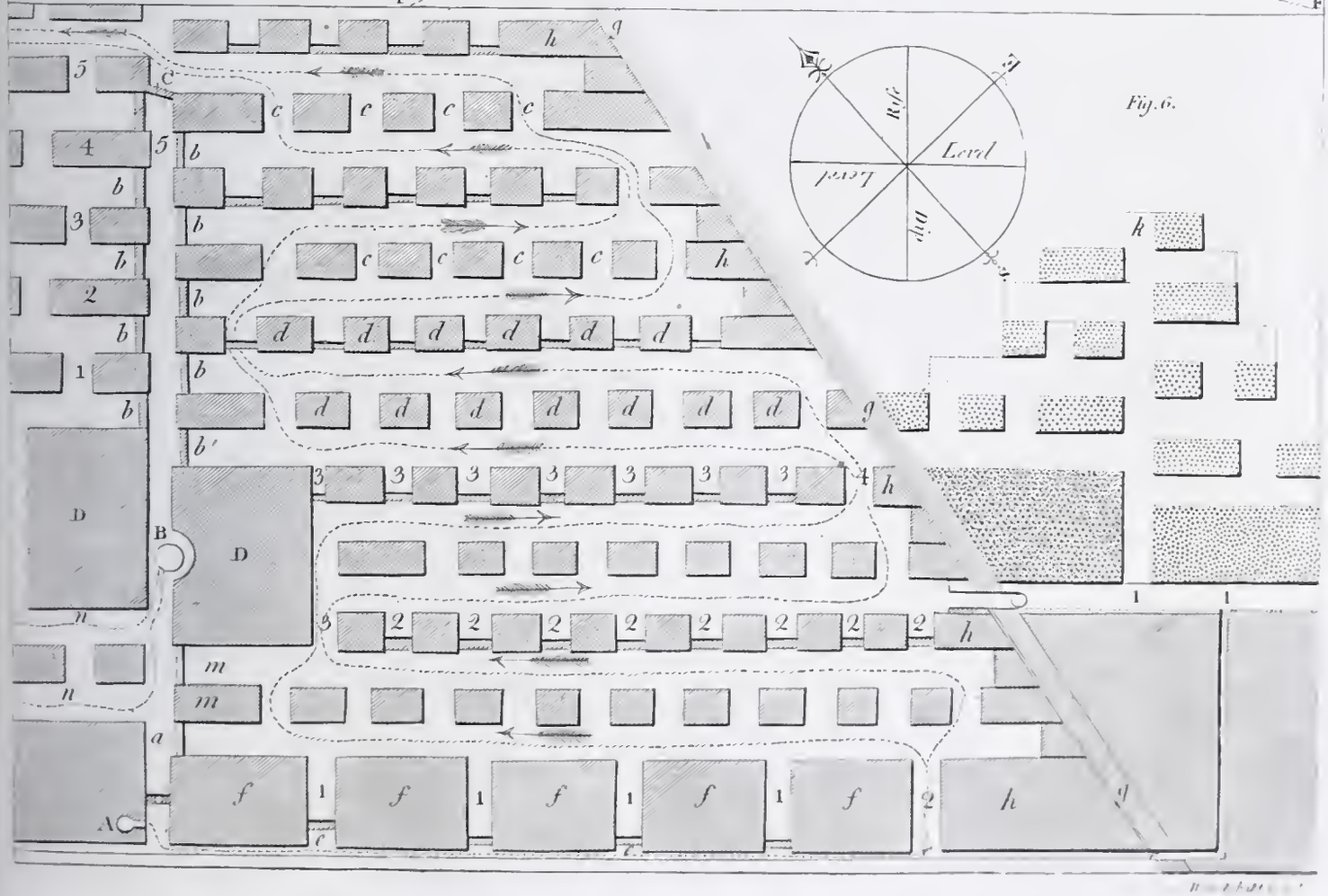
Fig. 6.

Coaſt. Cape-Coaſt.

unleſs it hath conſiderable connexion with the ſea. "It is indeed true (ſays he) that the wiſdom and induſtry of man, taking hold of ſome particular circumſtances, may have rendered a few inland cities and countries very fair and flouriſhing. In ancient hiſtory we read of Palmyra and the diſtrict round it, becoming a luxuriant paradiſe in the midſt of inhoſpitable deſerts. But this was no more than a temporary grandeur; and it has now lain for ſome ages in ruins. The city and principality of Candahar was in like manner rendered rich and famous, in conſequence of its being made the centre of the Indian commerce; but long ago declining, its deſtruction has been completed in our days, from that dreadful deſolation which Thamas Kouli Khan ſpread through Perſia and the Indies. Here, in Europe, many of the large cities in Germany, which for a time made a great figure from the freedom and induſtry of the inhabitants, and diffuſed eaſe, plenty, and proſperity, through the diſtricts dependent on them, which of courſe rendered them populous, are now ſo much ſunk through inevitable accidents, as to be but ſhadows of what they were; and though they ſtill continue to ſubſiſt, ſubſiſt only as the melancholy monuments of their own miſfortunes. We may therefore, from hence, with great certainty diſcern, that all the pains and labour that can be beſtowed in ſupplying the defect of ſituation, in this reſpect, proves, upon the whole, but a tedious, difficult, and precarious expedient. But, however, we muſt at the ſame time admit, that it is not barely the poſſeſſion even of an extended coaſt that can produce all theſe deſirable effects. That coaſt muſt likewiſe be diſtinguiſhed by other natural advantages, ſuch as capes and promontories, favourably diſpoſed to break the fury of the winds; deep bays, ſafe roads, and convenient harbours. For, without theſe, an extended coaſt is no more than a maritime barrier againſt the maritime force of other nations; as is the caſe in many parts of Europe, and is one of the principal reaſons why Africa derives ſo little benefit from a ſituation which has ſo promiſing an appearance; there being many conſiderable tracts upon its coaſts equally void of havens and inhabitants, and which afford not the ſmalleſt encouragement to the attempting any thing that might alter their preſent deſolate condition. It is, however, a leſs inconvenience, and in ſome caſes, no inconvenience at all, if, in the compaſs of a very extended coaſt, there ſhould be ſome parts difficult or dangerous of acceſs, provided they are not altogether inacceſſible.—The ſea-coaſt of Britain, from the figure, in ſome meaſure, of the iſland, but chiefly from the inlets of the ſea, and the very irregular indented line which forms its ſhore, comprehends, allowing for thoſe ſinuoſities, at leaſt 800 marine leagues: we may, from hence, therefore, with ſafety affirm, that in this reſpect it is ſuperior to France, though that be a much larger country; and equal to Spain and Portugal in this circumſtance, though Britain is not half the ſize of that noble peninſula, which is alſo ſingularly happy in this very particular."

CAPE-COAST, the name of the chief Britiſh ſettlement on the coaſt of Guinea, in Africa. The name is thought to be a corruption of *Cabo Corſo*, the ancient Portugueſe appellation. This cape is formed by an angular point, waſhed on the ſouth and eaſt by the ſea, on which ſtands the Engliſh fort. Here the Portugueſe ſettled in 1610, and built the citadel of Cape-Coaſt upon a large rock that projects into the ſea. A few years afterwards they were diſlodged by the Dutch, to whom this place is principally indebted for its ſtrength. In 1664 it was demoliſhed by Admiral Holmes, and in 1665 the famous Dutch Admiral De Ruyter was ordered by the ſtates to revenge the inſults of the Engliſh. With a ſquadron of 13 men of war, he attacked all the Engliſh ſettlements along the coaſt; ruined the factories; and took, burnt, and ſunk all the ſhipping of the Engliſh Company: however, after all his efforts, he was baffled in his attempts on Cape-Coaſt. By the treaty of Breda it was confirmed to the Engliſh, and the king granted a new charter in 1672; on which the Company applied all their attention to the fortifying and rendering it commodious.

Cape-Coaſt || Coatzontecoxochitl.

COASTING, in *Navigation*, the act of making a progreſs along the ſea-coaſt of any country. The principal articles relating to this part of navigation are, the obſerving the time and direction of the tide; knowledge of the reigning winds; of the roads and havens; of the different depths of the water, and qualities of the ground.

COASTING-Pilot, a pilot who by long experience has become ſufficiently acquainted with the nature of any particular coaſt, and of the requiſites mentioned in the preceding article, to conduct a ſhip or fleet from one part of it to another.

COAT, or COAT of ARMS, in *Heraldry*, a habit worn by the ancient knights over their arms, both in war and tournaments, and ſtill borne by heralds at arms. It was a kind of fur-coat, reaching as low as the navel, open at the ſides, with ſhort ſleeves, ſometimes furred with ermine and hair, upon which were applied the armories of the knights embroidered in gold and ſilver, and enamelled with beaten tin coloured black, green, red, and blue; whence the rule never to apply colour on colour, nor metal on metal. The coats of arms were frequently open, and diverſified with bands and fillets of ſeveral colours, alternately placed, as we ſtill ſee cloths ſcarleted, watered, &c. Hence they were called devices, as being divided and compoſed of ſeveral pieces ſewed together; whence the words *feſs*, *pale*, *chevron*, *bend*, *croſs*, *ſaltier*, *lozenge*, &c. which have ſince become honourable pieces, or ordinaries of the ſhield. See CROSS, BEND, CHEVRON, &c.

Coats of arms and banners were never allowed to be worn by any but knights and ancient nobles.

COAT, in *Anatomy*. See TUNIC and EYE.

COAT of Mail; a kind of armour made in form of a ſhirt; conſiſting of iron rings wove together netwiſe. See MAIL.

COATI, in *Zoology*; a ſynonyme of a ſpecies of VIVERRA and URSUS. See MAMMALIA *Index*.

COATIMUNDI, a variety of the above.

COATING of Phials, *Panes of Glaſs*, &c. among electricians, is uſually performed by covering the outſide of the phial with tinfoil, braſs, or gold-leaf, &c. and filling its inſide with looſe pieces of braſs-leaf, by which means it becomes capable of being *charged*. See ELECTRICITY.

COATZONTECOXOCHITL, or *Flower with the-*

Coatzontecoxochitl || Coboose.

the viper's head, is the Mexican name of a flower of incomparable beauty. It is composed of five petals or leaves, purple in the innermost part, white in the middle, the rest red but elegantly stained with yellow and white spots. The plant which bears it has leaves resembling those of the iris, but longer and larger; its trunk is small and slim: This flower was one of the most esteemed among the Mexicans. The Lincean academicians of Rome, who commented on and published the History of Hernandez in 1651, and saw the paintings of this flower, with its colours, executed in Mexico, conceived such an idea of its beauty, that they adopted it as the emblem of their very learned academy, denominating it *Fior di Lince*.

COBALT, a metallic substance which was formerly classed with the semimetals. See CHEMISTRY and MINERALOGY *Index*.

COBBING, a punishment sometimes inflicted at sea. It is performed by striking the offender a certain number of times on the breech with a flat piece of wood called the *cobbing-board*. It is chiefly used as a punishment to those who quit their station during the period of the night-watch.

COBITIS, the LOACHE, in *Ichthyology*, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of abdominales. See ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*. It is frequent in the stream near Amesbury in Wiltshire, where the sportsmen, through frolic, swallow it down alive in a glass of white-wine.

COBLE, a boat used in the turbot fishery, twenty feet six inches long, and five feet broad. It is about one ton burthen, rowed with three pair of oars, and admirably constructed for encountering a mountainous sea.

COBLENTZ, an ancient, handsome, and strong town of Germany, in the electorate of Triers or Treves, seated at the confluence of the rivers Rhine and Moselle, in a fertile country, with mountains covered with vineyards. It is the usual residence of the elector of Treves, to whom it belongs. Over the Rhine is a bridge of twelve arches, built for the convenience of the inhabitants of Coblentz and the adjacent places. A ferry machine is constantly going from the city to the other side of the Rhine, where there is a little town and very strong castle built on an eminence named *the rock of honour*. This machine is erected on two boats, in the form of a large square gallery, encompassed with ballustrades, and carries a tall flag-staff, on which are displayed the arms of the electorate of Treves. It is put in motion by the ferry-man's pulling a rope, which is fixed to a standard on each side the river. The castle appears to be almost inaccessible to an enemy, and entirely commands the city of Coblentz. The archbishop's palace stands at the foot of this rock, and the arsenal at a little distance. E. Long. 7. 32. N. Lat. 50. 24.

COBOB, the name of a dish among the Moors. It is made of several pieces of mutton wrapt up in the cawl, and afterwards roasted in it; the poorer people, instead of the meat, use the heart, liver, and other parts of the entrails, and make a good dish, though not equal to the former.

COBOOSE, in sea-language, is derived from the Dutch *kambuis*, and denotes a sort of box, resembling a sentry-box, used to cover the chimneys of some merchant ships. It generally stands against the barricade, on the fore-part of the quarter-deck. It is called in the West Indies *cobre vega*.

Coboose || Cochin.

COBURG, a town of Germany in the circle of Franconia, and capital of a territory of the same name, with a famous college, a fort, and a castle. This town, with its principality, belongs to the house of Saxony, and the inhabitants are Protestants. It is seated on the river Itch, in E. Long. 11. 18. N. Lat. 50. 22.

COBWEB, in *Physiology*, the fine net-work which spiders spin out of their own bowels, in order to catch their prey. See ARANEA.

COCCEIUS, JOHN, professor of theology at Bremen, was founder of a sect called *Cocceians*: they held, amongst other singular opinions, that of a visible reign of Christ in this world, after a general conversion of the Jews and all other people to the true Christian faith, as laid down in the voluminous works of Cocceius. He died in 1699, aged 66.

COCCINELLA, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order of coleoptera. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

COCCOLOBO, in *Botany*, a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

COCCOTHRAUSTES, the trivial name of a species of LOXIA. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COCCULUS INDICUS, the name of a poisonous berry, too frequently mixed with malt-liquors in order to make them intoxicating; but this practice is expressly forbidden by act of parliament. It is the fruit of the *MENISPERMUM Cocculus*. Fishermen have a way of mixing it with paste, which the fish swallow greedily, and are thereby rendered lifeless for a time, and float on the water. It is sometimes used with stavesacre, for destroying vermine in children's heads.

COCCUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects belonging to the order of hemiptera. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

COCCYGÆUS MUSCULUS. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muscles*.

COCCYX, or COCCYGIS OS. See ANATOMY *Index*.

COCHIN, a Dutch settlement on the coast of Malabar, in N. Lat. 10. 0. E. Long. 75. 30. The town is not unpleasant, though it falls far short of their settlement at Columbo in the island of Ceylon. The fortification is irregular, but strong enough to resist any of the Indian powers, and has 40 or 50 cannon facing the sea. The people in this town and the country adjacent are subject to a strange disorder of the legs, called *Cochin* or *elephant legs*, in which the swelled limb is sometimes of such an enormous bulk as to have greatly the appearance both in shape and size of the leg of an elephant. According to Mr Ives, this disorder seems to be merely an œdematous swelling, occasioned by an impoverished state of the blood and juices. The persons afflicted with this distemper very seldom apply to European surgeons, and thus are rarely, if ever, cured. Indeed, our author observes, that their application would probably be of little avail, as the only thing that could be prescribed would be an alteration from the poorest to the most cordial and nutritious diet; and the Indians are so invincibly wedded to their own customs, that they would sooner die than break through them. Of this he says there were several

Cochin, Cochin-China.

several instances in their long passage to Bengal, during which some of the Sepoys perished for want of food, rather than save themselves by partaking of the ship's provisions after their own had been expended. Most of those afflicted with the disorder we speak of, are unable to call any assistance, being the very poorest of the people, who live entirely upon a kind of fish called *sardinias*, without being able to purchase even the smallest quantity of rice to eat along with it; their drink is also mere water, unless they sometimes procure a draught of the simple unfermented juice called *toddy*. Cochin is the principal place from whence the Dutch import their pepper into Europe.

COCHIN-CHINA, a kingdom of Asia, bounded on the north by Tonquin; on the east, by the sea of China; on the south by the Indian ocean; and on the west by Cambodia, and a ridge of mountains inhabited by a savage people called *Kemois*, who live independent of any government. Little of the history of this kingdom is known. M. le Poivre, a French traveller, informs us, that about half a century before the French first arrived in these distant regions, a prince of Tonquin, as he fled from his sovereign, by whom he was pursued as a rebel, had with his soldiers and adherents crossed the river, which serves as a barrier between Tonquin and Cochin-China. The fugitives, who were warlike and civilized men, soon expelled the scattered inhabitants, who wandered about without any society or form of government, and founded a new kingdom, which soon grew rich and populous. During the reigns of the first six kings, no nation could be happier than the Cochin-Chinese. Their monarchs governed them as a father does his family, establishing no laws but those of nature, to which they themselves were the first to pay obedience. They honoured and encouraged agriculture, as the most useful employment of mankind; and required from their subjects only a small annual free-gift to defray the expence of their defensive war against the Tonquinese, who were their enemies. This imposition was regulated, by way of poll-tax, with the greatest equity. Every man, able to till the ground, paid in to the prince a small sum proportioned to the strength of his constitution, and the vigour of his arm, and nothing more.

Cochin-China continued happy under these princes for more than a century; but the discovery of gold-mines put a stop to the above mild regulations. Luxury immediately took place. The prince began to despise the simple habitation of his ancestors, and caused a superb palace to be built a league in circumference, surrounded with a wall of brick on the model of that of Pekin, and defended by 1600 pieces of cannon. Not content with this, he would needs have a winter palace, an autumn palace, and a summer palace. The old taxes were by no means sufficient to defray these expences; new ones were devised; and oppression and tyranny everywhere took place. His courtiers, to flatter their prince, gave him the title of the *king of heaven*, which he still continues to assume. When speaking of his subjects, he styles them his *children*, but by no means behaves as if he was their father; for our author informs us, that he has seen whole villages newly abandoned by their inhabitants, who were harassed with toil and insupportable exactions; the necessary consequence of which was, that their lands returned to their former uncultivated state.

Cochin-China.

M. le Poivre represents the Cochin-Chinese as gentle, hospitable, frugal, and industrious. There is not a beggar in the country, and robbery and murder are absolutely unknown. A stranger may wander over the kingdom from one end to the other (the capital excepted) without meeting with the slightest insult. He will be everywhere received with the most eager curiosity, but at the same time with the greatest benevolence. A Cochin-Chinese traveller, who has not money sufficient to defray his expences at an inn, enters the first house of the town or village he arrives at, and waiting the hour of dinner, takes part with the family, and goes away when he thinks proper, without speaking a word, or any person's putting to him a single question.

The country of Cochin-China is much of the same temperature with that of Tonquin; though rather milder, as lying near the sea. Like Tonquin, it is annually overflowed, and consequently fruitful in rice, which requires no other manure than the mud left by the inundations. They have sugar-canes, and the same kinds of fruits common to other parts of India. The country produces no grapes, and therefore they drink a liquor brewed from rice. They have vast woods of mulberry-trees, which run up as fast as our hemp. Their silk is stronger than that of China, but not so fine. They have the best timber in the world, particularly a sort which abounds in the mountains, and is called the *incorruptible tree*, because it never rots under earth or water, and is so solid that it serves for anchors. There are two kinds, black and red. The trees are very tall, straight, and so big that two men can scarce grasp them. They have also on the mountains of the Kemois a tree of the most fragrant scent, which is supposed to be the same with lignum aloes. This, being reckoned the best product of the country, is engrossed by the king, and is sold from five to 16 ducats per pound. It is highly valued both in China and Japan, where the logs of it are sold for 200 ducats a pound, to make pillows for the king and nobility; and among those Indians which continue to burn their dead, great quantities of it are used in the funeral piles. The young trees called *aquila*, or eagle-wood, are every one's property, which make the old ones called *calamba* so scarce and dear. They have oak, and large pines, for the building of ships, so that this country is of the same use to China that Norway is to Britain. In general, they have the same kind of trees and plants that are to be met with in Tonquin. They have mines of gold, as well as diamonds; but the last they do not value so high as pearl. They also esteem their coral and amber very much. In all the provinces there are great granaries filled with rice, in some of which that grain is kept upwards of 30 years. One of the greatest rarities of these parts, especially in grand entertainments, is a ragout made of the eatable birds-nests, which some say are found only in Cochin-China, and others in four islands that lie south of its coast. See *BIRDS-Nests*.

The merchants of Cambodia, Tonquin, China, Macao, Manila, Japan, and Malacca, trade to Cochin-China with plate, which they exchange for the commodities of the country. The Portuguese are the most

Cochin-China.

favoured here of any Europeans. The Cochin Chinese themselves, not being inclined to travel, seldom sail out of sight of their own shore, but purchase many trifles from foreigners at great rates, particularly combs, needles, bracelets, glass pendants, &c. They are very fond of our hats, caps, girdles, shirts, and other clothes; and, above all, set a great value on coral. The country is said to have 700 miles of coast, with many large inlets of the sea, and above 60 convenient landing places; which, however, according to Captain Hamilton, are but seldom visited by strangers.

The people of this country have a great affinity with those of Tonquin, with whom they have a common origin, and from whom they differ very little in their manner of living, as well as their manners and customs, all of which they have in a great measure borrowed from the Chinese. The principal exports of the country are silk, sugar, ebony, and calamba wood; gold in dust or in bars, which is sold for only ten times its weight in silver; and copper and porcelain brought from China and Japan. From this country also are exported the birds-nests esteemed such a delicacy at the table. They are found in four islands situated near the coasts of Cochin-China, to the eastward of which are five other smaller ones, where are found prodigious numbers of turtles, the flesh of which is so delicate that the Tonquinese and people of Cochin-China frequently fight desperate battles, in order to take them from one another. The commodities which sell most readily in this country are, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, fine cloth, and barred or flowered chintz. Pearls, amber, and coral, were formerly in great request, but at present only the two last are saleable; and even these will not answer unless the beads of coral be round, well polished, and of a beautiful red colour; the amber must also be extremely clear, the beads of an equal size, and not larger than a hazel nut.

The only money current in Cochin-China is that of Japan, which is paid and received by weight. The money of the country is of copper and as large as our countries; of a round figure, and having a hole in the middle by which the pieces may be strung like beads. Three hundred of these are put on one side, and as many on the other, which in Cochin-China pass for a thousand; because in 600 are found ten times 60, which make a century among almost all the people of the east. There is, however, scarce any country in which merchants are more apt to be deceived with regard to the value of money than Cochin-China, owing to the pieces being unequal in figure and quality, and the difficulty of determining their value, which is regulated only by a few characters stamped upon them. The dealers must therefore be at pains to have honest and skilful people to ascertain the value of the pieces they receive, otherwise they run a great risk of being deceived in their value, as the Cochin-Chinese make a great merit of being able to cheat an European.

European merchants complain, according to M. Grosier, unjustly of the demands made in Cochin-China for entrance, clearance, and anchorage. The duties, indeed, are very trifling, amounting only, even those of the customhouse, to 4 per cent.; but nothing can be removed from a ship which arrives there until she has first been inspected, when the customhouse officers unload her, weigh and count the smallest pieces, and generally take what they look upon to be most valuable, in order to send it to the king. The monarch takes what he thinks proper, and returns the value; but the grandees are said to keep part of the goods also, without paying any thing for them. Thus the ordinary goods, which, had they been accompanied with the more valuable part of the cargo, would have found a ready market, can now scarcely be disposed of; though our author is of opinion, that the matter is not altogether without remedy. When the Dutch sent to this country vessels loaded with cloths, lead, and saltpetre, their cargoes were suffered to remain entire, because they had taken the precaution to pay every year a certain sum for each vessel that entered. Other nations, by endeavouring to avoid the payment of this duty, entirely destroyed their commerce: the people of Cochin-China, however, for some years past, have been much more moderate in their demands; and whatever their exactions may be, they are far less exorbitant than those of the Tonquinese.

M. Grosier observes, that a false report has gained ground in Europe, that when a trading vessel happens to run aground in Cochin-China, or to be driven into any of its harbours by stress of weather, the king seizes the cargo if the rudder be broken. He assures us, however, that, so far from this being the case, a vessel in distress is much safer on the coasts of Cochin-China than almost anywhere else. Barks are immediately sent to the relief of the crew, and people employed to drag the sea with nets in order to recover the goods that are lost; and, in short, neither labour nor expences are spared to put the ships in the best condition possible. Only two things can hurt the trade of foreigners at Cochin-China, one of which may be easily avoided. This regards the clearing out of vessels. Thus, while the master is waiting on the evening before his departure, or on the day fixed for sailing, in order to receive his dispatches, it often happens that he loses his voyage, which may prove the ruin of a trader. For this reason, care must be taken to solicit a clearance a month before; by which means one is always certain of obtaining it, and departing on the day appointed. The other difficulty is occasioned by the necessity of selling goods on credit, which are seldom paid at the stipulated time. This, however, is contrary to the inclination of the prince; for every merchant who can convey to him an account of these unjust delays, is sure to be paid, and sometimes even with interest.

COCHINEAL, or Cochineel, a drug used by the dyers, &c. for giving red colours, especially crimsons and scarlets, and for making carmine; and likewise in medicine as a cardiac, cordial, sudorific, alexipharmac, and febrifuge.

The cochineal, in the state in which it is brought to us, is in small bodies of an irregular figure, usually convex, ridged and furrowed on one side, and concave on the other. The colour of the best is a purplish gray, powdered over with a sort of white dust. All that the world knew of it for a long time was, that it was gathered from certain plants in Mexico; and therefore it was naturally supposed to be a seed, till in the year 1692 Father Plumier gave Pomet an account

Cochineal || Cock-pit.

count of its being an animal. And this, though then disregarded, has been confirmed by subsequent observations. Indeed, to determine the point, we have now the means in our own hands, even in this part of the world.—We need only moisten and soak in water, or in vinegar, a number of cochineals till they are swelled and distended, to know that every one is the more or less perfect body of an insect; the most imperfect and mutilated specimens always show the rings of the body; and from observing others, it will be easy to find the number and disposition of the legs, parts, or even whole ones, being left on several, and often complete pairs. In this way the legs, antennæ, and proboscis, may be discovered. See COCCUS above, and DYEING.

M. Macquer observes, that the cochineal of Sylvester is gathered in the woods of Old and New Mexico. The insect lives, grows, and multiplies on the uncultivated opuntias, which grow there in great abundance. It is there exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, and dies naturally. The colour is more durable than that of the common cochineal, but less bright: but there is no advantage in using it; for, though cheaper, a greater quantity is requisite.

COCHLEA, the SHELL-SNAIL. See HELIX, CONCHOLOGY *Index*.

COCHLEA, in *Anatomy*. See ANATOMY *Index*.

COCHLEARIA, SCURVY-GRASS. See BOTANY *Index*.

COCHLITES, in *Natural History*, an appellation given to the petrified shells of the cochleæ or snails.

COCINTUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a promontory of the Bruttii, reckoned the longest in Italy, and which Holstenius and Vossius have restored to Ovid, reading *Cocintia* for *Ceurania*, Metam. xv. v. 704.—*Cocintum*, also a town 22 miles to the south of Scylaceum, almost on the spot where now *Stilo* stands, from which the opposite promontory *Cocintum* is commonly called *Capo de Stilo*.

COCK, in *Zoology*, the English name of the males of gallinaceous birds, but more especially used for the common dunghill cock. See PHASIANUS, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

Black-COCK. } See TETRAO, ORNITHOLOGY
COCK of the Wood. } *Index*.

COCK-Chaffer. See SCARABÆUS, ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

COCK-Paddle, Lump-fish or *Sea-owl.* See CYCLOPTERUS, ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

COCK-Pit, a sort of theatre upon which game-cocks fight.

It must appear astonishing to every reflecting mind, that a mode of diversion so cruel and inhuman as that of cock-fighting should so generally prevail; that not only the ancients, barbarians, Greeks, and Romans, should have adopted it; but that a practice so savage and heathenish should be continued by Christians of all sorts, and even pursued in these better and more enlightened times.

The ancient Greeks and Romans, as is well known, were wont to call all the nations in the world barbarians; yet certainly, if we consider the many instances of cruelty practised among them, there was very little reason for the distinction. Human sacrifices were common both to them and the barbarians; and with them the exposing of infants, the combats of men with wild beasts, and of men with men in the gladiatorial scenes, were spectacles of delight and festivity.

Cock-pit.

The islanders of Delos, it seems, were great lovers of cock-fighting; and Tanagra a city in Bœotia, the isle of Rhodes, Chalcis in Eubœa, and the country of Media, were famous for their generous and magnanimous race of chickens. The kingdom of Persia was probably included in the last, from whence this kind of poultry was first brought into Greece; and if one may judge of the rest from the fowls of Rhodes and Media, the excellency of the broods at that time consisted in their weight and largeness (as the fowls of those countries were heavy and bulky), and of the nature of what our sportsmen call *shakebags* or *turnpokes*. The Greeks, moreover, had some method of preparing the birds for battle, by feeding; as may be collected from Columella.

It should seem, that at first cock-fighting was partly a religious and partly a political institution at Athens; and was there continued for the purpose of improving the seeds of valour in the minds of their youth; but was afterwards abused and perverted both here and in the other parts of Greece to a common pastime, without any moral, political, or religious intention, and as it is now followed and practised among us.

At Rome, as the Romans were prone to imitate the Greeks, we may expect to find them following their example in this mode of diversion, and in the worst way, viz. without any good or laudable motives, since when they took and brought it to Rome, the Greeks had forgotten every thing that was commendable in it, and had already perverted it to a low and unmeaning sport. Signior Hyam thinks the Romans borrowed the pastime from Dardanus, in Asia; but there is little reason for making them go so far from it, when it was so generally followed in Greece, whose customs the Romans were addicted to borrow and imitate. However, it is probable, they did not adopt this opinion very early. It may be gathered from Columella, that the Romans did not use the sport in his time. This author styles cock-fighting a *Grecian diversion*; and speaks of it in terms of ignominy as an expensive amusement, unbecoming the frugal householder, and often attended with the ruin of the parties that followed it. "The words are remarkable. "Nos enim censemus instituere vectigal industrii patris familias, non rixosarum avium lanistæ, cujus plerumque totum patrimonium pignus aleæ, victor gallinaceus pyctes abstulit:" When he describes, as we think, the manner not of the Romans, but of the Greeks, who had in his time converted the diversion of cock-fighting into a species of gaming, and even to the total ruin of their families, as happens but too often in England at this day. The Romans, however, at last gave into the custom, though not till the decline of the empire. The first cause of contention between the two brothers Bassianus and Geta, sons of the emperor Septimus Severus, happened, according to Herodian, in their youth, about the fighting of their cocks; and if the battling between those two princes was the first instance of it, probably they had seen and learned it in Greece, whither they had often accompanied the emperor their father.

It is observable, that cocks and quails pitted for the

purpose of engaging one another, *à outrance*, or to the last gasp, for diversion, are frequently compared, and with much propriety, to gladiators. Hence Pliny's expression, *Gallorum——ceu gladiatorum;* and that of Columella, *rixosarum avium lanistæ ; lanista* being the proper term for the master of the gladiators. Consequently one would expect, that when the bloody scenes of the amphitheatre were discarded, as they were soon after the Christian religion became the establishment of the empire, the wanton shedding of men's blood in sport, being of too cruel and savage a nature to be patronized and encouraged in an institution so harmless and innocent as the Christian was, one might justly expect that the ορτυγομανια and the αλεκτρυομανια would have ceased of course. The fathers of the church are continually inveighing against the spectacles of the arena, and upbraiding their adversaries with them. These indeed were more unnatural and shocking than a main of cocks; but this, however, had a tendency towards infusing the like ferocity and implacability in the breasts and dispositions of men.

Besides, this mode of diversion has been in fact the bane and destruction of thousands here, as well as of those *lanistæ avium*, "cock-feeders," mentioned by Columella, whose patrimonial fortunes were totally dissipated and destroyed by it.

The cock is not only an useful animal, but stately in his figure, and magnificent in his plumage. "*Imperitant suo generi*, says Pliny, *et regnum* in quacunque sunt domo, *exercent*." Aristophanes compares him to the king of Persia; most authors also take notice of the "spectatissimum insigne, serratum, quod eorum verticem *regiæ coronæ modo* exornat." His tenderness towards his brood is such, that, contrary to the custom of many other males, he will scratch and provide for them with an assiduity almost equal to that of the hen; and his generosity is so great, that, on finding a hoard of meat, he will chuckle the hens together, and without touching one bit himself will relinquish the whole of it to them. He was called *the bird*, κατ' εξοχην, by many of the ancients; he was highly esteemed in some countries, and in others was even held sacred, insomuch that one cannot but regret that a creature so useful and noble, should, by a strange fatality, be so enormously abused by us. It is true, our αλεκτρυομανια, or the massacre of Shrove Tuesday, is now in a declining way; and, in a few years, it is to be hoped, will be totally disused; but the cock-pit still continues a reproach to the humanity of Englishmen, and to their religion; the purest, the tendereſt, and most compassionate, of all others, not excepting even the Brachmannic.

It is unknown when the pitched battle first entered England, but it was probably brought hither by the Romans. This bird was here before Cæsar's arrival, but no notice of his fighting occurs earlier than the time of William Fitz-Stephen, who wrote the life of Archbishop Becket, some time in the reign of Henry II. and describes the cocking as a sport of school-boys on Shrove Tuesday. From this time at least the diversion, however absurd and even impious, was continued amongst us. It was followed, though disapproved and prohibited, 39 Edward III.; also in the reign of Henry VIII. and A. D. 1569. It has by some been called a *royal diversion;* and, as every one knows, the cock-pit at Whitehall was erected by a crowned head, for the more magnificent celebration of it. There was another pit in Drury-lane, and another in Javin-street. It was prohibited, however, by one of Oliver's acts, March 31. 1664. What aggravates the reproach and disgrace upon Englishmen, are those species of fighting which are called the *battle-royal* and the *Welsh-main*, known nowhere in the world but there; neither in China, nor in Persia, nor in Malacca, nor among the savage tribes in America. These are scenes so bloody as almost to be too shocking to relate; and yet, as many may not be acquainted with the horrible nature of them, it may be proper for the excitement of our aversion and detestation to describe them in a few words. In the former, an unlimited number of fowls are pitted, and when they have slaughtered one another for the diversion (*Dii boni!*) of the otherwise generous and humane Englishman, the single surviving bird is to be esteemed the victor, and carries away the prize. The Welsh-main consists we will suppose of 16 pairs of cocks; of these, the 16 conquerors are pitted a second time; the 8 conquerors of these are pitted a third time; the 4 conquerors the fourth time; and lastly, the two conquerors of these are pitted the fifth time; so that (incredible barbarity) 31 cocks are sure to be most inhumanly murdered for the sport and pleasure, the noise and nonsense, the profane cursing and swearing, of those who have the effrontery to call themselves, with all these bloody doings, and with all this impiety about them, *Christians*; nay, what with many is a superior and distinct character, men of benevolence and morality. But let the morality and benevolence of such be appreciated from the following instance recorded as authentic in the obituary of the Gentleman's Magazine for April 1789. "Died April 4. at Tottenham, John Ardesoif, Esq. a young man of large fortune, and in the splendour of his carriages and horses rivalled by few country gentlemen. His table was that of hospitality, where it may be said he sacrificed too much to conviviality; but if he had his foibles, he had his merits also that far outweighed them. Mr Ardesoif was very fond of cock-fighting, and had a favourite cock upon which he had won many profitable matches. The last bet he laid upon this cock he lost; which so enraged him, that he had the bird tied to a spit and roasted alive before a large fire. The screams of the miserable animal were so affecting, that some gentlemen who were present attempted to interfere, which so enraged Mr Ardesoif, that he seized a poker, and with the most furious vehemence declared, that he would kill the first man who interposed; but, in the midst of his passionate asseverations, he fell down dead upon the spot. Such, we are assured, were the circumstances which attended the death of this great pillar of humanity."

Cock-pit, of a ship of war, the apartment of the surgeon and his mates, being the place where the wounded men are dressed in time of battle, or otherwise. It is situated under the lower deck.

COCKBURNE, Mrs Catharine, a most accomplished lady and celebrated writer, was the daughter of Captain David Trotter, a native of Scotland, and a sea-commander in the reign of King Charles II. She was born in London, August 16. 1679, and baptized in the

Cockburne. the Proteſtant church, according to which ſhe was bred up. She gave early marks of her genius; and learned to write, and alſo made herſelf miſtreſs of the French language, by her own application and diligence without any inſtructor; but ſhe had ſome aſſiſtance in the ſtudy of the Latin grammar and logic, of which latter ſhe drew up an abſtract for her own uſe. The moſt ſerious and important ſubjects, and eſpecially religion, ſoon engaged her attention.—But notwithſtanding her education, her intimacy with ſeveral families of diſtinction of the Romiſh perſuaſion, expoſed her, while very young, to impreſſions in favour of that church, which not being removed by her conferences with ſome eminent and learned members of the church of England, ſhe embraced the Romiſh communion, in which ſhe continued till the year 1707. In 1695 ſhe produced a tragedy called *Agnes de Caſtro*, which was acted at the theatre-royal when ſhe was only in her 17th year. The reputation of this performance, and the verſes which ſhe addreſſed to Mr Congreve upon his Mourning Bride in 1697, were probably the foundation of her acquaintance with that celebrated writer. Her ſecond tragedy, Fatal Friendſhip, was acted in 1698, at the new theatre in Lincoln's-Inn Fields. This tragedy met with great applauſe, and is ſtill thought the moſt perfect of her dramatic performances. Her dramatic talents not being confined to tragedy, ſhe brought upon the ſtage, in 1707, a comedy called *Love at a Loſs*, or *Moſt votes carry it*. In the ſame year ſhe gave the public her third tragedy, entitled the *Unhappy Penitent*, acted at the theatre-royal in Drury-lane. But poetry and dramatic writing did not ſo far engroſs the thoughts of our author, but that ſhe ſometimes turned them to ſubjects of a very different nature, and diſtinguiſhed herſelf in an extraordinary manner in defence of Mr Locke's writings, a female metaphyſician being a remarkable phenomenon in the republic of letters.

She returned to the exerciſe of her dramatic genius in 1703, and fixed upon the revolution of Sweden, under Guſtavus Erickſon, for the ſubject of a tragedy. This tragedy was acted in 1706, at the queen's theatre in the Hay-Market. In 1707, her doubts concerning the Romiſh religion, which ſhe had ſo many years profeſſed, having led her to a thorough examination of the grounds of it, by conſulting the beſt books on both ſides of the queſtion, and adviſing with men of the beſt judgment, the reſult was a conviction of the falſeneſs of the pretenſions of that church, and a return to that of England, to which ſhe adhered during the remainder of her life. In 1708 ſhe was married to the Rev. Mr Cockburne, then curate of St Dunſtan's in Fleet-ſtreet, but he afterwards obtained the living of Long-Horſely, near Morpeth in Northumberland. He was a man of conſiderable abilities; and, among ſeveral other things, wrote an account of the Moſaic Deluge, which was much approved by the learned.

Mrs Cockburne's remarks upon ſome writers in the controverſy concerning the foundation of moral duty and moral obligation, were introduced to the world in Auguſt 1712, in the Literary Journal, entitled, *The Hiſtory of the Works of the Learned*. The ſtrength, clearneſs, and vivacity ſhown in her remarks upon the moſt abſtract and perplexed queſtions, immediately raiſed the curioſity of all good judges about the concealed writer; and their admiration was greatly increaſed when her ſex and advanced age were known. Dr Rutherford's Eſſay on the Nature and Obligations of Virtue, publiſhed in May 1744, ſoon engaged her thoughts; and notwithſtanding the aſthmatic diſorder which had ſeized her many years before, and now left her ſmall intervals of eaſe, ſhe applied herſelf to the confutation of that elaborate diſcourſe, and finiſhed it with a ſpirit, elegance, and perſpicuity, equal, if not ſuperior, to all her former writings. Cockburne || Cocket.

The loſs of her huſband in 1748, in the 71ſt year of his age, was a ſevere ſhock to her; and ſhe did not long ſurvive him, dying on the 11th of May 1749, in her 71ſt year, after having long ſupported a painful diſorder with a reſignation to the Divine will, which had been the governing principle of her whole life, and her ſupport under the various trials of it.

Her works are collected into two large volumes 8vo by Dr Birch, who has prefixed to them an account of her Life and Writings.

COCKERMOUTH, a town of Cumberland in England, ſituated in W. Long. 3. 12. N. Lat. 54. 35. It is a large town, irregularly built, with broad ſtreets. It is waſhed by the Derwent on the weſtern ſide; divided in two by the Cocker; and the parts are connected by a ſtone bridge of a ſingle arch. The number of inhabitants is between three and four thouſand: the manufactures are ſhalloons, worſted ſtockings, and hats; the laſt exported from Glaſgow to the Weſt Indies. It is a borough-town, and the right of voting is veſted by burgeſs tenure in certain houſes: this is alſo the town where the county elections are held. —Here is a caſtle ſeated on an artificial mount on a bank above the Derwent. It is a ſquare building, and ſtrengthened with ſeveral ſquare towers: on each ſide of the inner gate are two deep dungeons capable of holding 50 perſons in either. They are vaulted at top, and have only a ſmall opening in order to lower through it the unhappy victims into this dire priſon; and on the outſide of each is a narrow ſlit with a ſlope from it, down which were put the proviſions allotted for the wretched inhabitants. This caſtle was founded by Waldof, firſt lord of Allerdale, and ſon of Goſpatrick earl of Northumberland, cotemporary with William the Conqueror. Waldof reſided firſt at Papcaſtle, which he afterwards demoliſhed; and with the materials built that at Cockermouth, where he and his family long reſided; but ſeveral arms over the gateway, which Camden ſays are thoſe of the *Multons*, *Humfranvilles*, *Lucies*, and *Percies*, evince it to have belonged in later times to thoſe families. It appears that it was firſt granted by Edward II. to Anthony de Lucie, ſon of Thomas de Multon, who had aſſumed that name, becauſe his mother was daughter and co-heireſs to Richard de Lucie; and afterwards, by marriages, this caſtle and its honours deſcended to the Humfranvilles, and finally to the Percies. In 1658, it was garriſoned for the king; and being beſieged and taken by the rebels, was burnt, and never afterwards repaired.—Cockermouth is now in the poſſeſſion of the Lowther family, who have here a great property in coal-works. The town ſends two members to parliament.

COCKET, is a ſeal belonging to the king's cuſtom-

house, or rather a scroll of parchment sealed and delivered by the officers of the customs to merchants, as a warrant that their merchandises are customed.

It is also used for the office where goods transported were first entered, and paid their custom, and had a cocket or certificate of discharge.

COCKLE. See CARDIUM, CONCHOLOGY *Index*.

COCKLE, *Schorl*, or *Shirle*, in *Mineralogy*, a species of stones, belonging to the siliceous class. See MINERALOGY *Index*.

COCKNEY, a very ancient nickname for a citizen of London. Ray says, an interpretation of it is, A young person coaxed or cockered, made a wanton, or nestle-cock, delicately bred and brought up, so as when arrived at man's estate to be unable to bear the least hardship. Another, A person ignorant of the terms of country economy, such as a young citizen, who having been ridiculed for calling the neighing of a horse laughing, and told that it was called neighing, next morning, on hearing the cock crow, to show instruction was not thrown away upon him, exclaimed to his former instructor, How that cock neighs! whence the citizens of London have ever since been called cock-neighs, or cockneys. Whatever may be the origin of this term, we at least learn from the following verses, attributed to Hugh Bagot earl of Norfolk, that it was in use in the time of King Henry II.

Was I in my castle at Bungay,
Fast by the river Waveney,
I would not care for the king of Cockney.
(i. e. the king of London.)

The king of the cockney occurs among the regulations for the sports and shows formerly held in the Middle Temple, on Childermas day, where he had his officers, a marshal, constable, butler, &c. See Dugdale's *Origines Juridicales*, p. 247.

COCKROACH. See BLATTA. In Captain Cook's last voyage, the ships, while at Huaheine, were infested with incredible numbers of these creatures, whom it was found impossible by any means to destroy. Every kind of food, when exposed only for a few minutes, was covered with these noxious insects, and pierced so full of holes, that it resembled a honey comb. They were particularly destructive to birds which had been stuffed for curiosities, and were so fond of ink, that they ate out the writing on labels. Books, however, were secured from their ravages by the closeness of the binding, which prevented them from getting in between the leaves. They were of two kinds, the *Blatta Orientalis* and *Germanica*.

COCKSWAIN, or COCKSON, an officer on board a man of war, who hath the care of the boat or sloop, and all things belonging to it. He is to be always ready with his boat's gang or crew, and to man the boat on all occasions. He sits in the stern of the boat, and steers; and hath a whistle to call and encourage his men.

COCLES, PUB. HORATIUS, a celebrated Roman, who alone opposed the whole army of Porsenna at the head of a bridge, while his companions behind him were cutting off the communication with the other shore. When the bridge was destroyed, Cocles, though wounded by the darts of the enemy, leapt into the Tiber, and swam across it with his arms. A brazen statue was raised to him in the temple of Vulcan, by the consul Publicola, for his eminent services.

COCOA. See COCOS, BOTANY *Index*.

COCONATO, a town of Piedmont in Italy, famous for being the birth-place of Columbus, who first discovered America. E. Long. 8. 0. N. Lat. 44. 50.

COCOS, in *Botany*, a genus belonging to the natural order of *Palmæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

COCTION, a general term for all alterations made in bodies by the application of fire or heat.

COCYTUS, one of the rivers of hell, according to the theology of the poets. It has its name *απο τυ κωκυειν*, from groaning and lamenting. Hence Milton,

Cocytus nam'd of lamentation loud,
Heard on the rueful stream.

It was a branch of the river Styx: and flowed, according to Horace, with a dull and languid stream.

COD, in *Ichthyology*. See GADUS and FISHERY.

COD is also a term used, in some parts of the kingdom, for a pod. See POD.

COD-Cape, a promontory on the coast of New England, near the entrance of Boston harbour. W. Long. 69. 50. N. Lat. 42. 0.

CODDY MODDY, the English name of a species of LARUS.

CODE (*codex*), a collection of the laws and constitutions of the Roman emperors, made by order of Justinian. The word comes from the Latin *codex*, "a paper book;" so called *à codicibus*, or *caudicibus arborum*, "the trunks of trees;" the bark whereof being stripped off, served the ancients to write their books on.

The code is accounted the second volume of the civil law, and contains twelve books; the matter of which is nearly the same with that of the digests, especially the first eight books; but the style is neither so pure, nor the method so accurate, as that of the digests; and it determines matters of daily use, whereas the digests discuss the more abstruse and subtle questions of the law, giving the various opinions of the ancient lawyers. Although Justinian's code is distinguished by the appellation of *code*, by way of eminence, yet there were codes before his time: such were, 1. The Gregorian code, and Hermogenean code, collections of the Roman laws, made by two famous lawyers, Gregorius and Hermogenes, which included the constitutions of the emperors from Adrian to Diocletian and Maximinus. 2. The Theodosian code, comprised in 16 books, formed out of the constitutions of the emperors from Constantine the Great to Theodosius the Younger: this was observed almost over all the west, till it was abrogated by the Justinian code. There are also several later codes, particularly the ancient Gothic, and those of the French kings; as the code of Euridic, code-Lewis, code-Henry, code-Marchande, code des Eaux, &c.; and the present king of Prussia has lately published a code, which comprises the laws of his kingdom in a very small volume.

CODEX, in antiquity, denotes a book or tablet on which the ancients wrote. See CODE.

CODEX also denoted a kind of punishment by means of a clog or block of wood, to which slaves who had offended

fended were tied fast, and obliged to drag it along with them; and sometimes they sat on it closely bound.

CODIA, among botanists, signifies the head of any plant, but more particularly a poppy head; whence its syrup is called *diacodium*.

CODICIL, is a writing, by way of supplement to a will, when any thing is omitted that the testator would have added, or wants to be explained, altered, or recalled.

CODLIN, an apple useful in the kitchen, being the most proper for baking.

CODLING, an appellation given to the young cod-fish. See GADUS, ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

CODON (Κώδων), in antiquity, a cymbal, or rather little brass bell, resembling the head of a poppy. They were fastened to the trappings and bridoles of horses.

CODRINGTON, CHRISTOPHER, a brave English officer, and not less distinguished for his learning and benevolence, was born at Barbadoes in the year 1668, and educated at Oxford; after which he betook himself to the army; and by his merit and courage, soon recommending himself to the favour of King William, was made a captain in the first regiment of foot-guards. He was at the siege of Namur in 1695; and, upon the conclusion of the peace of Ryswick, was made captain-general and governor in chief of the Leeward and Caribbee islands. However, in 1701, several articles were exhibited against him to the house of commons in England; to which he published a distinct and particular answer, and was honourably acquitted of all imputations. In 1703, he showed great bravery at the attack of Guadaloupe, but at last he resigned his government, and lived a studious retired life; for a few years before his death, he chiefly applied himself to church-history and metaphysics. He died at Barbadoes on the 7th of April 1710, and was buried there the day following; but his body was afterwards brought over to England, and interred on the 19th of June 1716, in the chapel of All-Souls College, Oxford. By his last will, he bequeathed his plantations in Barbadoes, and part of the island of Barbuda, to the society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts; and left a noble legacy to All-Souls College, of which he had been a fellow. This legacy consisted of his library, which was valued at 6000l.; and 10,000l. to be laid out, 6000 in building a library, and 4000 in furnishing it with books. He wrote some of the poems in the *Musæ Anglicanæ*, printed at London in 1741.

CODRUS, the 17th and last king of Athens, son of Melanthus. When the Heraclidæ made war against Athens, the oracle said that the victory would be granted to that nation whose king was killed in battle. The Heraclidæ upon this gave strict orders to spare the life of Codrus; but the patriotic king disguised himself and attacked one of the enemy, by whom he was killed. The Athenians obtained the victory, and Codrus was deservedly called the father of his country. He reigned 21 years, about 2153 years before the Christian era. To pay more honour to his memory, the Athenians made a resolution that no man after Codrus should reign in Athens under the name of *king*.

COECUM, or BLIND GUT. See ANATOMY *Index*.

Dr Musgrave gives us an account, in the Philosophical Transactions, of the cœcum of a dog being cut out without any prejudice to the animal. Mr Giles gives us another of the cœcum of a lady being distended, so as to form a tumour that held almost six pints of a thin grayish, almost liquid substance, of which she died. And Mr Knowler a third, of a boy's cœcum being vastly extended and stuffed with cherry-stones, which likewise proved mortal.

COEFFICIENTS, in *Algebra*, are such numbers or known quantities as are put before letters or quantities, whether known or unknown, and into which they are supposed to be multiplied. Thus in $3x$, ax, or bx; 3, a and b, are the coefficients of x; and in $6a$, $9b$; 6 and 9 are the coefficients of a and b. See ALGEBRA.

COELESTIAL, or CELESTIAL, in general, denotes any thing belonging to the heavens: thus we say, *celestial observations*, the *celestial globe*, &c.

COELIAC ARTERY, in *Anatomy*, that artery which issues from the aorta, just below the diaphragm. See ANATOMY *Index*.

COELIAC Vein, in *Anatomy*, that running through the intestinum rectum, along with the cœliac artery.

COELIMONTANA PORTA (Pliny), one of the gates of Rome, situated at the foot of Mount Cœlius; and hence its name, thought to be the ancient *Asinaria* by some; but this others doubt. By this gate Alaric with his Goths is said to have entered and plundered Rome.

COELIOBRIGA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Bracari in the Hither Spain, to the south of Bracara Augusta, the north of the Durius, and not far from the Atlantic; a municipium (Coin). Now thought to be *Barcelos*, a town of Entre Minho y Duero. W. Long. 9. 15. Lat. 41. 20.

COELIUS MONS, one of the seven hills of Rome, so called from *Cocles*, a Tuscan captain, who came to the assistance of Romulus against the Sabines, (Dionysius Halicarnassus). Called also *Querculanus* or *Quercetulanus*, from the oaks growing on it; and *Augustus*, by Tiberius (Tacitus, Suetonius). To the east it had the city walls, on the south the Coeliolus, to the west the Palatine, and on the north the Esquiliæ.

COELIOLUS, a part of Mount Cœlius to the south, called *Minor Cœlius* (Martial); having the city walls on the east, the Aventine to the south, and on the west and north the valley through which the rivulet of the Appia runs.

COELOMA, among physicians, a hollow ulcer, seated in the tunica cornea of the eye.

COELOS PORTUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Chersonesus of Thrace, to the south of Sestos, where the Athenians erected a trophy, after a sea victory over the Lacedæmonians (Diodorus Siculus).

COELOSYRIA, in the larger sense of the word, was the name of the whole country lying southward of Seleucia, and extending as far as Egypt and Arabia; but this word is principally applied to the valley lying between Libanus and Antilibanus. This word occurs only in the apocryphal writings of the Old Testament.

COELUS (Heaven), in Pagan mythology, the son of Æther and Dies, or Air and Day. According to Hesiod, he married Terra or the Earth, on whom he begat Aurea or the Mountains, the Ocean, &c. But having at length imprisoned the Cyclops, who were also

Cœlus || Coffea.

alſo his children, his wife, being offended, incited her ſon Saturn to revenge the injury done to his brothers; and by her aſſiſtance, he bound and caſtrated Cœlus, when the blood that flowed from the wound produced the three furies, the giants, and the wood-nymphs; and the genital parts being thrown into the ſea, impregnated the waters and formed the goddeſs Venus. This deity was called by the Greeks *Uranus*.

COEMETERY. See CEMETERY.

COEMPTIONALES, among the Romans, an appellation given to old ſlaves, which were ſold in a lot with others, becauſe they could not be ſold alone.

COENOBITE, a religious who lives in a convent, or in community, under a certain rule; in oppoſition to anchoret or hermit, who lives in ſolitude. The word comes from the Greek κοινος, *communis*; and βιος, *vita*, "life." Caſſian makes this difference between a *convent* and a *monaſtery*, that the latter may be applied to the reſidence of a ſingle religious or recluſe, whereas the *convent* implies *cœnobites*, or numbers of religious living in common. Fleury ſpeaks of three kinds of monks in Egypt; *anchorets*, who live in ſolitude; *cœnobites*, who continue to live in community; and *ſarabaites*, who are a kind of monks-errant, that ſtroll from place to place. He refers the inſtitution of cœnobites to the times of the apoſtles, and makes it a kind of imitation of the ordinary lives of the faithful at Jeruſalem. Though St Pachomius is ordinarily owned the inſtitutor of the cœnobite life, as being the firſt who gave a rule to any community.

COENOBIUM, (κοινοβιον), the ſtate of living in a ſociety or community, where all things are common. Pythagoras is thought to be the author or firſt inſtitutor of this kind of life; his diſciples, though ſome hundreds in number, being obliged to give up all their private eſtates, in order to be annexed to the joint ſtock of the whole. The Eſſenians among the Jews, and Platoniſts, are ſaid to have lived in the ſame manner. Many of the Chriſtians alſo have thought this the moſt perfect kind of ſociety, as being that in which Chriſt and his apoſtles choſe to live.

COESFELDT, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, and in the territories of the biſhop of Munſter, where he often reſides. It is near the river Burkel. E. Long. 64. 2. N. Lat. 51. 58.

COEVORDEN, one of the ſtrongeſt towns in the United Provinces, in Overyſſel, fortified by the famous Cohorn. It was taken by the biſhop of Munſter, 1673; and the Dutch retook it the ſame year. It is ſurrounded by a moraſs. E. Long. 6. 41. N. Lat. 52. 40.

COFFEA, the COFFEE-TREE. See BOTANY *Index*. The flowers, which are produced in cluſters at the root of the leaves, are of a pure white, and have a very grateful odour. The fruit, which is the only uſeful part, reſembles a cherry. When it comes to be of a deep red, it is gathered for the mill, in order to be manufactured into thoſe *coffee-beans* now ſo generally known. The mill is compoſed of two wooden rollers furniſhed with iron plates 18 inches long, and 10 or 12 in diameter. Theſe moveable rollers are made to approach a third which is fixed, and which they call the *chops*. Above the rollers is a hopper, in which they put the coffee, from whence it falls between the rollers and the chops, where it is ſtripped of its firſt ſkin, and divided into two parts, as may be ſeen by the form of it after it has undergone this operation; being flat on the one ſide and round on the other. From this machine it falls into a braſs ſieve, where the ſkin drops between the wires, while the fruit ſlides over them into baſkets placed ready to receive it: it is then thrown into a veſſel full of water, where it ſoaks for one night, and is afterwards thoroughly waſhed. When the whole is finiſhed, and well dried, it is put into another machine called the *peeling-mill*. This is a wooden grinder, turned vertically upon its trendle by a mule or horſe. In paſſing over the coffee it takes off the parchment, which is nothing but a thin ſkin that detaches itſelf from the berry in proportion as it grows dry. The parchment being removed, it is taken out of this mill to be put into another, which is called the *winnowing-mill*. This machine is provided with four pieces of tin fixed upon an axle, which is turned by a ſlave with conſiderable force; and the wind that is made by the motion of theſe plates clears the coffee of all the pellicles that are mixed with it. It is afterwards put upon a table, where the broken berries, and any filth that may remain among them, are ſeparated by negroes, after which the coffee is fit for ſale.

The coffee-tree is cultivated in Arabia, Perſia, the Eaſt Indies, the iſle of Bourbon, and ſeveral parts of America. It is alſo raiſed in botanic gardens in ſeveral parts of Europe. Prince Eugene's garden at Vienna produced more coffee than was ſufficient for his own conſumption. It delights particularly in hills and mountains, where its root is almoſt always dry, and its head frequently watered with gentle ſhowers. It prefers a weſtern aſpect, and ploughed ground without any appearance of graſs. The plants ſhould be placed at eight feet diſtance from each other, and in holes twelve or fifteen inches deep. If left to themſelves, they would riſe to the height of 16 or 18 feet, as already obſerved; but they are generally ſtinted to five, for the conveniency of gathering their fruit with the greater eaſe. Thus dwarfſt, they extend their branches ſo, that they cover the whole ſpot round about them. They begin to yield fruit the third year, but are not in full bearing till the fifth. With the ſame infirmities that moſt other trees are ſubject to, theſe are likewiſe in danger of being deſtroyed by a worm or by the ſcorching rays of the ſun. The hills where the coffee trees are found have generally a gravelly or chalky bottom. In the laſt, it languiſhes for ſome time and then dies; in the former, its roots, which ſeldom fail of ſtriking between ſtones, obtain nouriſhment, and keep the tree alive and fruitful for 30 years. This is nearly the period for plants of the coffee-tree. The proprietor, at the end of this period, not only finds himſelf without trees, but has his land reduced that it is not fit for any kind of culture; and unleſs he is ſo ſituated, that he can break up a ſpot of virgin land, to make himſelf amends for that which is totally exhauſted by the coffee-trees, his loſs is irreparable.

The coffee produced in Arabia is found ſo greatly to excel that raiſed in the American plantations or elſewhere, that the cultivation of the tree is now but ſeldom practiſed in any of the Britiſh colonies. Large plantations of this kind were formerly made in ſome of

Coffea, Coffee.

of them; and it was propoſed to the parliament to give a proper encouragement for cultivating this commodity there, ſo as to enable the planters to underſell the importers from Arabia. Accordingly, there was an abatement of the duty payable on all coffee imported from our colonies in America, which at that time was ſuppoſed to be ſufficient encouragement for this kind of commerce; but the inferiority of the American coffee to the Arabian hath almoſt ruined the project. Mr Miller propoſes ſome improvements in the method of cultivation. According to him, the trees are planted in too moiſt a ſoil, and the berries are gathered too ſoon. They ought, he ſays, to be permitted to remain on the trees till their ſkins are ſhrivelled, and they fall from the trees when ſhaken. This will indeed greatly diminiſh their weight, but the value of the commodity will thereby be increaſed to more than double of that which is gathered ſooner. In Arabia, they always ſhake the berries off the trees, ſpreading cloths to receive them, and only take ſuch as readily fall at each time. Another cauſe may be the method of drying the berries. They are, he obſerves, very apt to imbibe moiſture, or the flavour of any thing placed near them. A bottle of rum placed in a cloſet, in which a caniſter of coffee-berries cloſely ſtopped, was ſtanding on a ſhelf at a conſiderable diſtance, in a few days ſo impregnated the berries as to render them very diſagreeable. Some years ago, a coffee-ſhip from India had a few bags of pepper put on board, the flavour of which was imbibed by the coffee, and the whole cargo ſpoiled. For theſe reaſons coffee-berries ſhould never be brought over in ſhips freighted with rum, or laid to dry in the houſes where ſugars are boiled or rum diſtilled. When they are fully ripe, they ſhould be taken off when the trees are perfectly dry, and ſpread upon cloths to dry in the ſun, carrying them every evening under cover, to prevent the dews or rain from falling on them. When perfectly dry, they ſhould have their outer ſkins beaten off, and then be carefully packed up in cloths or bags three or four times double.

Coffee alſo denotes a kind of drink, prepared from thoſe berries; very familiar in Europe for theſe 100 years, and among the Turks for 170.

Its origin is not well known. Some aſcribe it to the prior of a monaſtery, who being informed by a goat-herd, that his cattle ſometimes browzing on the tree would wake and caper all night, became curious to prove its virtue: accordingly he firſt tried it on his monks, to prevent their ſleeping at matins. Others, from Schehabeddin, refer the invention of coffee to the Perſians, from whom it was learned in the 15th century by Gemaleddin, mufti of Aden, a city near the mouth of the Red ſea, and who having tried its virtues himſelf, and found that it diſſipated the fumes which oppreſſed the head, inſpired joy, opened the bowels, and prevented ſleep, without being incommoded by it, recommended it firſt to his derviſes, with whom he uſed to ſpend the night in prayer. Their example brought coffee into vogue at Aden; the profeſſors of the law for ſtudy, artiſans to work, travellers to walk in the night, in fine every body at Aden, drank coffee. Hence it paſſed to Mecca, where firſt the devotees, then the reſt of the people, took it. From Arabia Felix it paſſed to Cairo. In 1511, Kahie Beg prohibited it, from a perſuaſion that it inebriated, and inclined to things forbidden. But Sultan Cauſon immediately after took off the prohibition, and coffee advanced from Egypt to Syria, and Conſtantinople. The derviſes declaimed againſt it from the Alcoran, which declares, that coal is not of the number of things created by God for food. Accordingly the mufti ordered the coffee-houſes to be ſhut; but his ſucceſſor declaring coffee not to be *coal*, they were again opened. During the war in Candia the aſſemblies of news-mongers making too free with ſtate affairs, the grand viſir Cuproli ſuppreſſed the coffee-houſes at Conſtantinople, which ſuppreſſion, though ſtill on foot, does not prevent the public uſe of the liquor there. Thevenot the traveller, was the firſt who brought it into France; and a Greek ſervant, named *Paſqua*, brought into England by Mr Dan. Edwards, a Turkey merchant, in 1652, to make his coffee, firſt ſet up the profeſſion of *coffee-man*, and introduced the drink into this iſland.

Coffee.

The word *coffee* is originally Arabic: the Turks pronounce it *caheub*, and the Arabians *cahuah*; which ſome authors maintain to be a general name for any thing that takes away the appetite, others for any thing that promotes appetite, and others again for any thing that gives ſtrength and vigour.—The Mahometans, it is obſerved, diſtinguiſh three kinds of *cahuah*. The firſt is wine, or any liquor that inebriates; the ſecond is made of the pods that contain the coffee-berry; this they call the *Sultan's coffee*, from their having firſt introduced it on account of its heating leſs than the berry, as well as its keeping the bowels open; the third is that made with the berry itſelf, which alone is uſed in Europe, the pods being found improper for tranſportation. Some Europeans who imported the pods, called them the *flower of the coffee-tree*. The deep brown colour of the liquor occaſioned its being called *ſyrup of the Indian mulberry*, under which ſpecious name it firſt gained ground in Europe.

The preparation of coffee conſiſts in roaſting, or giving it a juſt degree of torrefaction on an earthen or metalline plate, till it has acquired a browniſh hue equally deep on all ſides. It is then ground in a mill, as much as ſerves the preſent occaſion. A proper quantity of water is next boiled, and the ground coffee put into it. After it has juſt boiled, it is taken from the fire, and the decoction having ſtood a while to ſettle and fine, they pour or decant it into diſhes. The ordinary method of roaſting coffee among us is in a tin cylindrical box full of holes, through the middle whereof runs a ſpit. Under this is a ſemicircular hearth, whereon is a large charcoal-fire: by help of a jack the ſpit turns ſwift, and ſo roaſts the berry, being now and then taken up to be ſhaken. When the oil riſes, and it is grown of a dark brown colour, it is emptied into two receivers made with large hoops, whoſe bottoms are iron plates: there the coffee is ſhaken, and left till almoſt cold; and if it look bright and oily, it is a ſign it is well done.

Very different accounts have been given of the medicinal qualities of this berry. To determine its real effects on the human body, Dr Percival has made ſeveral experiments, the reſult of which he gives in the following words: "From theſe obſervations we may infer, that coffee is ſlightly aſtringent and antiſeptic; that

Coffee, Coffer.

that it moderates alimentary fermentation, and is powerfully ſedative. Its action on the nervous ſyſtem probably depends on the oil it contains; which receives its flavour, and is rendered mildly empyreumatic, by the proceſs of roaſting. Neumann obtained by diſtillation from one pound of coffee, five ounces five drachms and a half of water, ſix ounces and half a drachm of thick fetid oil, and four ounces and two drachms of a caput mortuum. And it is well known, that rye, torrefied with a few almonds, which furniſh the neceſſary proportion of oil, is now frequently employed as a ſubſtitute for theſe berries.

"The medicinal qualities of coffee ſeem to be derived from the grateful ſenſation which it produces in the ſtomach, and from the ſedative powers it exerts on the *vis vitæ*. Hence it aſſiſts digeſtion, and relieves the headach; and is taken in large quantities, with peculiar propriety by the Turks and Arabians, becauſe it counteracts the narcotic effects of opium, to the uſe of which thoſe nations are much addicted.

"In delicate habits, it often occaſions watchfulneſs, tremors, and many of thoſe complaints which are denominated nervous. It has been even ſuſpected of producing palſies; and from my own obſervation, I ſhould apprehend, not entirely without foundation. Slare affirms, that he became paralytic by the too liberal uſe of coffee, and that this diſorder was removed by abſtinence from that liquor.

"The following curious and important obſervation is extracted from a letter with which I was honoured by Sir John Pringle, in April 1773: 'On reading your ſection concerning coffee, one quality occurred to me which I had obſerved of that liquor, confirming what you have ſaid of its ſedative virtues. It is the beſt abater of the paroxyſms of the periodic aſthma that I have ſeen. The coffee ought to be of the beſt Mocco, newly burnt, and made very ſtrong immediately after grinding it. I have commonly ordered an ounce for one diſh; which is to be repeated freſh after the interval of a quarter or half an hour; and which I direct to be taken without milk or ſugar. The medicine in general is mentioned by Muſgrave, in his treatiſe *De arthritide anomola*; but I firſt heard of it from a phyſician in this place, who having once practiſed in Litchfield, had been informed by the old people of that place, that Sir John Floyer, during the latter years of his life, kept free from, or at leaſt lived eaſy under, his aſthma, from the uſe of very ſtrong coffee. This diſcovery, it ſeems, he made after the publication of his book upon that diſeaſe. Since the receipt of that letter, I have frequently directed coffee in the aſthma with great ſucceſs."

COFFER, in *Architecture*, a ſquare depreſſure or ſinking in each interval between the modillions of the Corinthian cornice; ordinarily filled up with a roſe; ſometimes with a pomegranate, or other enrichment.

COFFER, in *Fortification*, denotes a hollow lodgement, athwart a dry moat, from 6 to 7 feet deep, and from 16 to 18 broad; the upper part made of pieces of timber raiſed two feet above the level of the moat, which little elevation has hurdles laden with earth for its covering, and ſerves as a parapet with embraſures: the coffer is nearly the ſame with the caponiere, excepting that this laſt is ſometimes made beyond the counterſcarp on the glacis, and the coffer always in the moat, taking up its whole breadth, which the caponiere does not. It differs from the traverſe and gallery, in that theſe latter are made by the beſiegers, and the coffer by the beſieged. The beſieged generally make uſe of coffers to repulſe the beſiegers when they endeavour to paſs the ditch. To ſave themſelves from the fire of theſe coffers, the beſiegers throw up the earth on that ſide towards the coffer.

Coffer || Coffin.

COFFERER *of the* KING'S HOUSEHOLD, a principal officer in the court, next under the comptroller. He was likewiſe a white-ſtaff officer, and always a member of the privy council. He had a ſpecial charge and overſight of the other officers of the houſehold. He paid the wages of the king's ſervants below ſtairs, and for proviſions as directed by the board of green cloth. This office is now ſuppreſſed, and the buſineſs of it is tranſacted by the lord ſteward, and paymaſter of the houſehold. He had 100l. a-year wages, and 400l. a-year board wages.

COFFIN, the cheſt in which dead bodies are put into the ground.

The ſepulchral honours paid to the manes of departed friends in ancient times, demand attention, and are extremely curious. Their being *put into a coffin* has been particularly conſidered as a mark of the higheſt diſtinction. With us the pooreſt people have their coffins. If the relations cannot afford them, the pariſh is at the expence. On the contrary, in the eaſt they are not at all made uſe of in our times; Turks and Chriſtians, as Thevenot aſſures us, agree in this. The ancient Jews ſeem to have buried their dead in the ſame manner: neither was the body of our Lord, it ſhould ſeem, put into a coffin; nor that of Eliſha, 2 Kings xiii. 21. whoſe bones were touched by the corpſe that was let down *a little after* into his ſepulchre. However, that they were anciently made uſe of in Egypt, all agree; and antique *coffins of ſtone* and *ſycamore wood*, are ſtill to be ſeen in that country; not to mention thoſe ſaid to be made of a kind of paſteboard; formed by folding or glueing cloth together a great many times, curiouſly plaſtered, and then painted with hieroglyphics. Its being an ancient Egyptian cuſtom, and not practiſed in the neighbouring countries, were, doubtleſs, the cauſe that the ſacred hiſtorian expreſsly obſerves of Joſeph, that he was not only embalmed, but put into a coffin too *; both being managements peculiar to the Egyptians.

* *Gen.* i. 26.

Biſhop Patrick, in his commentary on this paſſage, takes notice of theſe Egyptian coffins of ſycamore wood and of paſteboard; but he doth not mention the contrary uſage in the neighbouring countries, which was requiſite, one might ſuppoſe, in order fully to illuſtrate the place; but even this perhaps would not have conveyed the whole idea of the ſacred author. Maillet apprehends that all were not incloſed in coffins who were laid in the Egyptian repoſitories of the dead; but that it was an honour appropriated to perſons of figure: for after having given an account of ſeveral riches found in thoſe chambers of death, he adds†, "But it muſt not be imagined that the bodies depoſited in theſe gloomy apartments were *all* incloſed in *cheſts*, and placed in niches. The greateſt part were ſimply embalmed and ſwathed after that manner which every one hath ſome notion of;

† Let. vii. p. 181.

Coffin || Cognac.

of; after which they laid them one by the ſide of another without any ceremony. Some were even laid in theſe tombs without any embalming at all; or ſuch a ſlight one, that there remains nothing of them in the linen in which they were wrapped, but the bones, and thoſe half rotten. It is probable, that each conſiderable family had one of theſe burial-places to themſelves; that the niches were deſigned for the bodies of the heads of the families; and that thoſe of their domeſtics or ſlaves had no other care taken of them than the laying them on the ground, after having been embalmed, or even without that; which, undoubtedly, was alſo all that was done even to the heads of families of leſs diſtinction." After this he gives an account of a way of burial, practiſed anciently in that country, which had been but lately diſcovered, and which conſiſted in placing the bodies, after they were ſwathed, upon a layer of charcoal, and covering them with a mat, under a depth of ſand of ſeven or eight feet.

That *coffins* then were not univerſally uſed in Egypt, is undoubted from theſe accounts: and probably they were only perſons of diſtinction who were buried in them. It is alſo reaſonable to believe, that in times ſo remote as that of Joſeph, they might be much leſs common than afterwards; and conſequently, that Joſeph's being put in a coffin in Egypt, might be mentioned with a deſign to expreſs the great honours which the Egyptians did him at his death, as well as in life, being interred after the moſt ſumptuous manner of the Egyptians, *embalmed* and *put into a coffin*. Agreeably to this, the Septuagint verſion, which was made for Egyptians, ſeems to repreſent coffins as a mark of grandeur. Job xxi. 32.

It is no objection to this account, that the widow of Nain's ſon is repreſented as carried forth to be buried in a σορος, or "on a bier:" for the preſent inhabitants of the Levant, who are well known to lay their dead bodies in the earth uninclofed, carry them frequently out to burial in a kind of coffin. So Dr Ruſſel, in particular, deſcribes the bier uſed for the Turks at Aleppo, as a kind of coffin much in the form of ours, only that the lid riſes with a ledge in the middle. Chriſtians, indeed, as he tells us, are carried to the grave on an open bier: but as the moſt common kind of bier reſembles our coffins, that uſed by the people of Nain might very poſſibly be of the ſame kind; in which caſe the word σορος was very proper.

COGGLE, or Cog, a ſmall fiſhing-boat upon the coaſts of Yorkſhire: and cogs (*cogones*) are a kind of little ſhips or veſſels uſed in the rivers Ouſe and Humber; (Stat. 23 Hen. VIII. c. 18.) *Præparatis cogonibus, galleis, et aliis navibus, &c.* (Mat. Paris. ann. 1066.) And hence the cogmen, boatmen, and ſeamen, who, after ſhipwreck or loſſes by ſea, travelled and wandered about to defraud the people, by begging and ſtealing, until they were reſtrained by proper laws.

COGITATION, a term uſed by ſome for the act of thinking.

COGNAC, a town of France in Angoumois, with a caſtle, where Francis I. was born. It is ſeated on the river Charante, in a very pleaſant country, abounding in wine, and remarkable for excellent brandy. W. Long. 0. 10. N. Lat. 45. 44.

Cognac || Coheſion.

COGNATE, in *Scots Law*, any male relation by the mother.

COGNATION, in the civil law, a term for that line of conſanguinity which is between males and females, both deſcended from the ſame father; as agnation is for the line of parentage between males only deſcended from the ſame ſtock.

COGNI, an ancient and ſtrong town of Caramania, in Turkey in Aſia, and the reſidence of a beglerbeg. It is ſeated in a pleaſant country, abounding in corn, fruits, pulſe, and cattle. Here are ſheep whoſe tails weigh 30 pounds. E. Long. 35. 56. N. Lat. 37. 56.

COGNITIONIS CAUSA, in *Scots Law*. When a creditor charges the heir of his debtor to enter, in order to conſtitute the debt againſt him, and the heir renounces the ſucceſſion, the creditor can obtain no decreet of conſtitution of that debt againſt the heir; but only a decreet ſubjecting the *hæreditas jacens*, or the eſtate which belonged to the debtor, to his diligence: and this is called a decreet *cognitionis cauſa*.

COGNIZANCE, or CONNUSANCE, in *Law*, has divers ſignifications. Sometimes it is an acknowledgment of a fine, or confeſſion of ſomething done; ſometimes the hearing of a matter judicially, as to take cognizance of a cauſe; and ſometimes a particular juriſdiction, as cognizance of pleas is an authority to call a cauſe or plea out of another court, which no perſon can do but the king, except he can ſhow a charter for it. This cognizance is a privilege granted to a city or a town to hold plea of all contracts, &c. within the liberty; and if any one is impleaded for ſuch matters in the courts at Weſtminſter, the mayor, &c. of ſuch franchiſe may demand cognizance of the plea, and that it may be determined before them.

COGNIZANCE is alſo uſed for a badge on a waterman's or ſerving-man's ſleeve, which is commonly the giver's creſt, whereby he is decerned to belong to this or that nobleman or gentleman.

COGGS. See COGGLE.

COHABITATION, denotes the ſtate of a man and a woman who live together without being legally married. By the common law of Scotland, cohabitation for year and day, or a complete twelvemonth, is deemed equivalent to matrimony.

CO-HEIR, one who ſucceeds to a ſhare of an inheritance, to be divided among ſeveral.

COHESION, one of the four ſpecies of attraction, denoting that force by which the parts of bodies adhere or ſtick together.

1 Conſidered by Sir Iſaac Newton as an eſſential property of matter.

This power was firſt conſidered by Sir Iſaac Newton as one of the properties eſſential to all matter, and the cauſe of all that variety we obſerve in the texture of different terreſtrial bodies. He did not, however, abſolutely determine that the power of coheſion was an immaterial one; but thought it might poſſibly ariſe, as well as that of gravitation, from the action of an ether.

2 His account of the original conſtitution of matter.

His account of the original conſtitution of matter is as follows: It ſeems probable, that God in the beginning formed *matter* in ſolid, maſſy, impenetrable, moveable particles; of ſuch ſizes, figures, and other properties, and in ſuch proportion to ſpace, as moſt conduced to the end for which he formed them; and that

Cohesion.

that these primitive particles being solid, are incomparably harder than any porous bodies composed of them; even so very hard as never to wear or break in pieces; no ordinary power being able to divide what God himself made one at the first creation. While the particles continue entire, they may compose bodies of one and the same nature and texture in all ages; but should they wear away, or break in pieces, the nature of all things depending on them would be changed. Water and earth composed of old worn particles and fragments of particles, would not now be of the same texture with water and earth composed of entire particles in the beginning. And therefore, that nature may be lasting, the changes of corporeal things are to be placed in the various separations and new associations and motions of these permanent particles; compound bodies being apt to break, not in the midst of solid particles, but where these particles are laid together, and touch in a few points." It seems farther, "That these particles have not only a *vis inertiæ*, accompanied with such passive laws of motion as naturally result from that force; but also that they are moved by certain active principles, such as that of gravity, and that which causeth fermentation and the cohesion of bodies. These principles are to be considered not as occult qualities, supposed to result from the specific forms of things, but as general laws of nature by which the things themselves are formed; their truth appearing to us by phenomena, though their cause is not yet discovered."

3 Attraction the general law of nature.

The general law of nature, by which all the different bodies in the universe are composed, according to Sir Isaac Newton, is that of attraction: i. e. "Every particle of matter has an attractive force, or a tendency to every other particle; which power is strongest in the point of contact, and suddenly decreases, insomuch that it acts no more at the least sensible distance; and at a greater distance is converted into a repellent force, whereby the parts fly from each other. On this principle of attraction may we account for the cohesion of bodies, otherwise inexplicable.

4 Formation of particles of different sizes.

"The smallest particles may cohere by the strongest attractions, and compose bigger particles of weaker virtue; and many of these may cohere, and compose bigger particles, whose virtue is still less: and so on for divers successions, until the progression end in the biggest particles, on which the operations in chemistry, and the colours of natural bodies, depend; and which, by cohering, compose bodies of a sensible magnitude.

5 Distinction of bodies into hard, soft, humid, &c.

If the body is compact, and bends or yields inward to pressure without any sliding of its parts, it is hard and elastic, returning to its figure with a force arising from the mutual attraction of its parts. If the parts slide from one another, the body is malleable or soft. If they slip easily, and are of a fit size to be agitated by heat, and the heat is great enough to keep them in agitation, the body is fluid: and if it be apt to stick to things, it is humid; and the drops of every fluid affect a round figure by the mutual attractions of their parts, as the globe of the earth and sea affects a round figure from the mutual attraction and gravity of its parts.

"Since metals dissolved in acids attract but a small quantity of the acid, their attractive force reaches but to a small distance. Now, as in algebra, where affirmative quantities cease, there negative ones begin; so in mechanics, where attraction ceases, there a repulsive virtue must succeed. That there really is such a virtue seems to follow from the reflections and inflections of the rays of light; the rays being repelled by bodies in both these cases without the immediate contact of the reflecting and inflecting body. The same thing seems also to follow from the emission of light; a ray, as soon as shaken off from a body by the vibrating motion of the parts of the body, and got beyond the reach of attraction, being driven away with exceeding great velocity; for that force which is sufficient to turn it back in reflection may be sufficient to emit it. From the same repelling power it seems to be that flies walk upon the water without wetting their feet; that the object-glasses of long telescopes lie upon one another without touching; and that dry powders are difficultly made to touch one another so as to stick together, without melting them or wetting them with water, which, by exhaling, may bring them together.

6 Existence of repulsive power proved.

"The particles of all hard homogeneous bodies which touch one another, cohere with a great force; to account for which, some philosophers have recourse to a kind of hooked atoms, which in effect is nothing else but to beg the question. Others imagine, that the particles of bodies are connected by rest, i. e. in effect by nothing at all; and others, by conspiring motions, i. e. by a relative rest among themselves. For myself, it rather appears to me, that the particles of bodies cohere by an attractive force, whereby they tend mutually to each other."

7 No conclusion to be drawn from this account.

From this account of the formation and constitution of bodies, we can conclude nothing, except that they are composed of an infinite number of little particles, kept together by a force or power; but of what nature that power is, whether material or immaterial, we must remain ignorant till farther experiments are made. Some of the Newtonian philosophers, however, have positively determined these powers to be immaterial. In consequence of this supposition, they have so refined upon attractions and repulsions, that their systems seem not far from downright scepticism, or denying the existence of matter altogether. A system of this kind we find adopted by Dr Priestley*, from Messrs Boscovich and Michell, in order to solve some difficulties concerning the Newtonian doctrine of light. "The easiest method (says he) of solving all difficulties, is to adopt the hypothesis of Mr Boscovich, who supposes that matter is not impenetrable, as has been perhaps universally taken for granted; but that it consists of physical points only, endued with powers of attraction and repulsion in the same manner as solid matter is generally supposed to be: provided, therefore, that any body moves with a sufficient degree of velocity, or has a sufficient *momentum* to overcome any powers of repulsion that it may meet with, it will find no difficulty in making its way through any body whatever; for nothing else will penetrate one another but powers, such as we know do in fact exist in the same place, and counterbalance or overrule one another. The most obvious difficulty, and indeed almost the only one that attends this hypothesis, as it supposes the mutual penetrability of matter, arises from the idea

* *Hist. of Vision*, vol. p. 392.

8 Mr Michell's hypothesis adopted by Dr Priestley.

Cohesion.

9 Bodies oppose each other not from actual contact.

idea of the nature of matter, and the difficulty we meet with in attempting to force two bodies into the same space. But it is demonstrable that the first obstruction arises from no actual contact of matter, but from mere powers of repulsion. The difficulty we can overcome; and having got within one sphere of repulsion, we fancy that we are now impeded by the solid matter itself. But the very same is the opinion of the generality of mankind with respect to the first obstruction. Why, therefore, may not the next be only another sphere of repulsion, which may only require a greater force than we can apply to overcome it, without disordering the arrangement of the constituent particles; but which may be overcome by a body moving with the amazing velocity of light.

10 Mr Baxter's opinion.

"This scheme of the *immateriality of matter* as it may be called, or rather the *mutual penetration of matter*, first occurred to Mr Michell on reading *Baxter on the immateriality of the soul*. He found that this author's idea of matter was, that it consisted, as it were of bricks cemented together with immaterial mortar. These bricks, if he would be consistent with his own reasoning, were again composed of less bricks, cemented likewise by an immaterial mortar; and so on *ad infinitum*. This putting Mr Michell upon the consideration of the several appearances of nature, he began to perceive that the bricks were so covered with this immaterial mortar, that if they had any existence at all, it could not possibly be perceived; every effect being produced, in nine instances of ten certainly, and probably in the tenth also, by this immaterial spiritual, and penetrable mortar. Instead therefore of placing the world upon the giant, the giant upon the tortoise, and the tortoise upon, he could not tell what, he placed the world at once upon itself."

11 Cohesion supposed owing to elementary fire.

Other philosophers have supposed the powers both of gravitation and cohesion to be material; and to be only different actions of the ethereal fluid, or elementary fire. In support of this it has been urged, that before we have recourse to a spiritual and immaterial power as the cause of any natural phenomenon, we ought to be well assured that there is no material substance with which we are acquainted, that is capable of producing such effects. In the present case, we are so far from having such assurance, that the contrary is manifest to our senses. One instance of this is in the experiment with the *Magdeburg hemispheres*, as they are called. These are two hollow hemispheres of brass, exactly fitted to one another, so as to form one globe when joined together, without admitting any air at the joining. In this state, if the air within them is exhausted by means of a pump, they will cohere with such force, if they are five or six inches diameter, as to require a weight of some hundreds of pounds to separate them. The pressure of the atmosphere, we see, is in this case capable of producing a very strong cohesion; and if there is in nature any fluid more penetrating, as well as more powerful in its effects, than the air we breathe, it is possible that what is called the *attraction of cohesion* may some how or other be an effect of the action of that fluid. Such a fluid as this is the element of fire. Its activity is such as to penetrate all bodies whatever; and in the state in which it is commonly called *fire*, it acts according to the quantity of solid matter contained in the body. In this state, it is capable of dissolving the strongest cohesions observed in nature; but whatever is capable of dissolving any cohesion, must necessarily be endued with greater power than that by which the cohesion is caused. Fire, therefore, being able to dissolve cohesions, must also be capable of causing them, provided its power is exerted for that purpose. Nor will it seem at all strange that this fluid should act in two such opposite ways, when we consider the different appearances which it assumes. These are three, viz. fire or heat, in which it consumes, destroys, and dissolves: light, in which it seems deprived of all destructive or dissolvent power, and to be the most mild, quiet, and placid being in nature. The third state of this element is, when it becomes what is called the *electric fluid;* and then it attracts, repels, and moves bodies, in a vast variety of ways, without either burning or rendering them visible by its light. In this state it is not less powerful than in either of the other two; for a violent shock of electricity will displace and tear in pieces the most heavy and solid bodies. The seeming capricious nature of this fluid, however, probably renders it less suspected as the cause of cohesion than it otherwise would be, were the attractions regular and permanent, which we observe it to occasion. But here we must observe, that the fluid has an existence in all bodies before the experiments are tried which make its effects visible to us, and is acting in them according to its settled and established laws. While acting in this manner it is perfectly invisible; and all we can do is, to produce some little infringement of these regular laws according to which it commonly acts. In some cases, however, the electrical attractions produced by art are found to be pretty permanent and strong. Thus, Mr Symmer, in some experiments upon silk stockings, found their attraction so strong, that it required upwards of 15 pounds weight to separate them from each other; and this attraction would continue for more than an hour. In plates of glass, too, he observed a remarkable cohesion when electrified. In the Philosophical Transactions for 1777, we find this hypothesis taken notice of, and in some measure adopted, by Mr Henley. "Some gentlemen (says he) have supposed that the electric matter is the cause of the cohesion of the particles of bodies. If the electric matter be, as I suspect, a real elementary fire inherent in all bodies, that opinion may probably be well founded; and perhaps the soldering of metals, and the cementation of iron, by fire, may be considered as strong proofs of the truth of their hypothesis."

On this last hypothesis we must observe, that if the electric, or any other fluid, is supposed to be the cause of the attraction of cohesion universally, the particles of that fluid must be destitute of all cohesion between themselves; otherwise we should be at as great a loss to account for the cohesion of these particles, as for that of terrestrial matter. Philosophers, indeed, do not suppose any cohesion between the particles of the electric fluid themselves; it is generally believed that the particles of this fluid are repulsive of one another, though attracted by all other matter. If this is a fact, we cannot suppose the electric fluid to be the cause of cohesion. The probability or improbability of the hypothesis, just mentioned, must greatly depend on its be-

Coheſion || Coimbra.

ing aſcertained whether the particles of the electric fluid do really repel one another, and attract all other kinds of matter, or not; but for this we muſt refer to the article ELECTRICITY.

COHOBATION, in *Chemiſtry*, an operation by which the ſame liquor is frequently diſtilled from the ſame body, either with an intention to diſſolve this body, or to produce ſome change upon it. This is one of thoſe operations which the ancient chemiſts practiſed with great patience and zeal, but which is now neglected. To make the operation eaſier, and to prevent the trouble of frequently changing the veſſels, a particular kind of alembic, called a *pelican*, was invented. This veſſel was made in the form of a cucurbit with an alembic-head, but had two ſpouts communicating with the body. As the vapour roſe up into the head, it was gradually condenſed, and ran down the ſpouts into the body of the pelican, from whence it was again diſtilled; and ſo on.

COHORN (N.) the greateſt engineer Holland has produced. Among his other works, which are eſteemed maſterpieces of ſkill, he fortified Bergen-op-zoom; which, to the ſurpriſe of all Europe, was taken by the French in 1747; but that, it is believed, was the effect of treachery. He wrote a treatiſe on fortification, and died in 1704.

COHORT, in Roman antiquity, the name of part of the Roman legion, comprehending about 600 men. There were ten cohorts in a legion, the firſt of which exceeded all the reſt both in dignity and number of men. When the army was ranged in order of battle, the firſt cohort took up the right of the firſt line; the reſt followed in their natural order; ſo that the third was in the centre of the firſt line of the legion, and the fifth on the left; the ſecond between the firſt and third; and the fourth between the third and fifth: the five remaining cohorts formed a ſecond line in their natural order.

COIF, the badge of a ſergeant of law, who is called ſergeant of the coif, from the lawn coif they wear under their caps when they are created ſergeants.

The chief uſe of the coif was to cover the clerical tonſure. See TONSURE.

COILING, on ſhipboard, implies a ſort of ſerpentine winding of a cable or other rope, that it may occupy a ſmall ſpace in the ſhip. Each of the windings of this ſort is called a *fake*; and one range of fakes upon the ſame line is called a *tier*. There are generally from five to ſeven fakes in a tier; and three or four tiers in the whole length of the cable. This, however, depends on the extent of the fakes. The ſmaller ropes employed about the ſails are coiled upon cleats at ſea, to prevent their being entangled amongſt one another in traverſing, contracting, or extending the ſails.

COILON, in the ancient Grecian theatres, the ſame with the cavea of the Romans.

COIMBRA, a handſome, large, and celebrated town of Portugal, capital of the province of Beira, with a biſhop's ſee, and a famous univerſity. The cathedral and the fountains are very magnificent. It is ſeated in a very pleaſant country abounding in vineyards, olive-trees, and fruits. It ſtands on a mountain, by the ſide of the river Mondego. W. Long. 8. 17. N. Lat. 40. 12.

Coimbra || Coin.

COIN, a piece of metal converted into money by the impreſſion of certain marks or figures thereon.

COIN differs from MONEY as the ſpecies from the genus. Money is any matter, whether metal, wood, leather, glaſs, horn, paper, fruits, ſhells, or kernels, which have currency as a medium in COMMERCE. Coin is a particular ſpecies, always made of metal, and ſtruck according to a certain proceſs called COINING.

The preciſe epocha of the invention of money is too ancient for our annals; and, if we might argue from the neceſſity and obvioufneſs of the thing, muſt be nearly coeval with the world.

Whether coins be of equal antiquity, may admit of ſome doubt; eſpecially as moſt of the ancient writers are ſo frequent and expreſs in their mention of leathern-moneys, paper-moneys, wooden-moneys, &c. Some, however, notwithſtanding this, are of opinion, that the firſt moneys were of metal: the reaſons they give, and the firmneſs, neatneſs, cleanneſs, durableneſs, and univerſality of metals; which, however, do rather conclude they ought to have been ſo, than that they actually were ſo.

In effect, the very commodities themſelves were the firſt moneys, i. e. were current for one another by way of exchange; and it was the difficulty of cutting or dividing certain commodities, and the impoſſibility of doing it without great loſs, that firſt put men on the expedient of a general medium. See EXCHANGE.

Indeed, thus much may be ſaid in behalf of coins, that, on this view, it was natural for men to have their firſt recourſe to metals, as being almoſt the only things whoſe goodneſs, and as it were integrity, is not diminiſhed by partition; beſides the advantages above expreſſed, and the conveniences of melting and returning them into a maſs of any ſize or weight.

It was probably, then, this property of metals which firſt accuſtomed people, who traded together, to account them in lieu of quantities of other merchandiſes in their exchanges, and at length to ſubſtitute them wholly in their ſtead; and thus aroſe money; as it was their other property to preſerve any mark or impreſſion a long time, which confirmed them in the right; and thus was the firſt riſe of coins.

In the firſt ages, each perſon cut his metal into pieces of different ſizes and forms, according to the quantity to be given for any merchandiſe, or according to the demand of the ſeller, or the quantity ſtipulated between them. To this end they went to market loaded with metal in proportion to the purchaſe to be made, and furniſhed with inſtruments for portioning it, and ſcales for dealing it out, according as occaſion required. By degrees, it was found more commodious to have pieces ready weighed; and as there were different weights required according to the value of the different wares, all thoſe of the ſame weight began to be diſtinguiſhed with the ſame mark or figure: thus were coins carried one ſtep further. At length the growing commerce of money beginning to be diſturbed with frauds, both in the weights and the matter, the public authority interpoſed; and hence the firſt ſtamps or impreſſions of money; to which ſucceeded

Coin.

ed the names of the moniers; and at length the effigy of the prince, the date, legend, and other precautions to prevent the alterations of the ſpecies; and thus were coins completed.

Modern COINS. In England the current ſpecies of gold are the guinea, half-guinea, ſeven-ſhillings piece, Jacobus, laureat, angel, and roſe noble; the four laſt of which are now ſeldom to be met with; having been moſt of them converted into guineas, chiefly during the reign of Charles II. and James II. The ſilver coins are the crown, half-crown, ſhilling, and ſixpence. Copper coins are the farthing, half-penny, penny and two-penny pieces.

In Scotland, by the articles of the Union, it is appointed that all the coins be reduced to the Engliſh, and the ſame accounts obſerved throughout. Till then the Scots had their pounds, ſhillings, and pence, as in England; but their pound was but 20 pence Engliſh, and the others in proportion: accordingly, their merk was $13\frac{1}{3}$s. Scots, current in England at $13\frac{1}{2}$d.; their noble in proportion. Beſides theſe they had their turnorer pence and half-pence; their penny $\frac{7}{12}$ of that of England: beſides baſe money of achiſons, babees, and placks. The bodle $\frac{1}{6}$ of the penny, $\frac{1}{4}$ of the achiſon, $\frac{1}{3}$ of the babee, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of the plack.

In Ireland, the coins are as in England, viz. ſhillings, pence, &c. with this difference, that their ſhilling is but equal to $11\frac{3}{400}$d. ſterling: whence their pound is only 18s $5\frac{1}{4}$d.

But, for a view of all the coins preſently current in the four quarters of the globe, with their values and proportions, ſee the table ſubjoined to the article MONEY.

In many places ſhells are current for coins; particularly a ſmall white kind dug out of the ground in the Maldives, and ſome parts of America, called in the Indies *cowries* or *coris*, on the coaſt of Africa *bonges*, and in America *porcelaines*; of which it takes a vaſt number to be equivalent in value to a penny. Of zimbis, another kind of ſhell current, particularly in the kingdoms of Angola and Congo, two thouſand make what the negroes call a *macoute*, which is no real money; for of this there is none in this part of Africa, but a manner of reckoning: thus, two Flemiſh knives they eſteem a macoute; a copper baſon two pounds weight, and 12 inches diameter, they reckon three macoutes; a fuſee 10, &c.

In ſome places fruits are current for coins. Of theſe there are three ſorts uſed; two in America, particularly among the Mexicans, which are the cacao and maize; the other in the Eaſt Indies, viz. almonds brought thither from Lar, and growing in the deſarts of Arabia. Of cacao 15 are eſteemed equivalent to a Spaniſh rial, or ſeven pence ſterling. Maize has ceaſed to be a common money ſince the diſcovery of America by the Europeans. Almonds are chiefly uſed where the *cowries* are not current. As the year proves more or leſs favourable to this fruit, the value of the money is higher or lower. In a common year 40 almoſt are ſet againſt a *peſcha*, or halfpenny ſterling; which brings each almond to $\frac{1}{10}$ of a farthing.

Ancient COINS are thoſe chiefly which have been current among the Jews, Greeks and Romans. Their values and proportions are as follow:

JEWISH.

						ſterl.	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Gerah							0	0	$1\frac{57}{100}$
10	Becah						0	0	$1\frac{11}{10}$
20	2	Shekel					0	0	$2\frac{3}{8}$
1200	120	50	Maneh / Mina hebraica				5	14	$0\frac{3}{4}$
60000	6000	3000	60	Talent			342	3	9
Solidus aureus, or ſextula, worth							0	12	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Siculus aureus, worth							1	16	6
A talent of gold, worth							5475	0	0

GRECIAN.

									ſter.	*s.*	*d.*	*qrs.*
Lepton										0	0	$0\frac{31}{320}$
7	Chalcus									0	0	$0\frac{31}{48}$
14	2	Dichalcus								0	0	$1\frac{7}{24}$
28	4	2	Hemiobolum							0	0	$2\frac{7}{12}$
56	8	4	2	Obolus						0	1	$1\frac{1}{6}$
112	16	8	4	2	Diobolum					0	2	$2\frac{1}{3}$
224	32	16	8	4	2	Tetrobolum				0	5	$0\frac{2}{3}$
336	48	24	12	6	3	$1\frac{1}{2}$	Drachma			0	7	3
662	96	48	24	12	6	3	2	Didrachmon		1	3	2
1324	112	96	48	24	12	6	4	2	Tetrardſtat.	2	7	0
1660	384	120	60	30	15	$7\frac{1}{2}$	5	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ Pentrad.	3	2	3

Note: Of theſe the drachma, didrachma, &c. were of ſilver, the reſt for the moſt part of braſs. The other parts, as tridrachm, tribolus, &c. were ſometimes coined.

Note alſo: The drachma is here, with the generality of authors, ſuppoſed equal to the denarius; though there is reaſon to believe that the drachma was ſomewhat the weightier. See DRACHMA and DENARIUS.

	ſter.	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
The Grecian gold coin was the ſtater aureus, weighing two Attic drachms, or half of the ſtater argenteus, and exchanging uſually for 25 Attic drachms of ſilver in our money.		0	16	$1\frac{3}{4}$
According to our proportion of gold to ſilver - - -		1	0	9
There were likewiſe the ſtater Cyzicenus, exchanging for 28 Attic drachms, or Stater Philippicus, and ſtater Alexandrinus, of the ſame value.		0	18	1
Stater Daricus, according to Joſephus, worth 50 Attic drachms, or - Stater Crœſius, of the ſame value.		1	12	$3\frac{1}{2}$

ROMAN.

									ſter.	*s.*	*d.*	*qrs.*
Teruncius										0	0	$0\frac{75}{100}$
2	Semilibella									0	0	$1\frac{55}{100}$
4	2	Libella / As								0	0	$3\frac{7}{10}$
10	5	$2\frac{1}{2}$	Seſtertius							0	1	$3\frac{1}{4}$
20	10	5	2	Quinarius / Victoriatus						0	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$
40	20	10	4	2	Denarius					0	7	3

Note.

Coin. Coinage.

Note. Of these the denarius, victoriatus, sestertius, and sometimes the as, were of silver, the rest of brass. See As, &c.

There were sometimes also coined of brass the triens, sextans, uncia, sextula, and dupondius.

	l.	*s.*	*d.*
The Roman gold coin was the aureus, which weighed generally double the denarius; the value of which, according to the first proportion of coinage, mentioned by Pliny, was	1	4	$3\frac{3}{4}$
According to the proportion that obtains now amongst us, worth	1	0	9
According to the decuple proportion, mentioned by Livy and Julius Pollux, worth	0	12	11
According to the proportion mentioned by Tacitus, and which afterwards obtained, whereby the aureus exchanged for 25 denarii, its value,	0	16	$1\frac{3}{4}$

Coin, in *Architecture*, a kind of dye cut diagonally, after the manner of a flight of a staircase, serving at bottom to support columns in a level, and at top to correct the inclination of an entablature supporting a vault.

Coin is also used for a solid angle composed of two surfaces inclined towards each other, whether that angle be exterior, as the coin of a wall, a tree, &c. or interior, as the coin of a chamber or chimney. See Quoin.

COINAGE, or Coining, the art of making money, as performed either by the hammer or mill.

Formerly the fabric of coins was different from what it is at present. They cut a large plate of metal into several little squares, the corners of which were cut off with scissars. After having shaped these pieces, so as to render them perfectly conformable, in point of weight, to the standard piece, they took each piece in hand again, to make it exactly round by a gentle hammering. This was called a *planchet*, and was fit for immediate coining. Then engravers prepared, as they still do, a couple of steel masses in form of dyes, cut and terminated by a flat surface, rounded off at the edges. They engraved or stamped on it the hollow of a head, a cross, a scutcheon, or any other figure, according to the custom of the times, within a short legend. As one of these dyes was to remain dormant, and the other moveable, the former ended in a square prism, that it might be introduced into the square hole of the block, which, being fixed very fast, kept the dye as steady as any vice could have done. The planchet of metal was horizontally laid upon this inferior mass, to receive the stamp of it on one side, and that of the upper dye, wherewith it was covered, on the other. This moveable dye, having its round engraved surface resting upon the planchet, had at its opposite extremity a flat, square, and larger surface, upon which they gave several heavy blows, with a hammer of an enormous size, till the double stamp was sufficiently, in relievo, impressed on each side of the planchet. This being finished, was immediately succeeded by another, and they thus became a standard coin, which had the degree of fineness of the weight and mark determined by the judgment of the inspectors, to make it good current money; the strong tempering which was and is still given to the two dyes, rendering them capable of bearing those repeated blows. Coining has been considerably improved and rendered expeditious, by several ingenious machines, and by a wise application of the surest physical experiments to the methods of fining, dyeing, and stamping the different metals.

The three finest instruments the mint-man uses, are the laminating engine; the machine for making the impressions on the edges of coins; and the mill.

After they have taken the laminæ, or plates of metal, out of the mould into which they are cast, they do not beat them on the anvil, as was formerly done, but make them pass and repass between the several rollers of the laminating engine, which being gradually brought closer and closer, to each other, presently give the lamina its uniform and exact thickness. Instead of dividing the lamina into small squares, they at once cut clean out of it as many planchets as it can contain, by means of a sharp steel trepan, of a roundish figure, hollow within, and of a proportionable diameter, to shape and cut off the piece at one and the same time. After those planchets have been prepared and weighed with standard pieces, filed or scraped, to get off the superfluous part of the metal, and then boiled and made clean, they arrive, at last, at the machine (fig. 1.), which marks them upon the edge; and finally, the mill (fig. 2), which, squeezing each of them singly between the two dyes, brought near each other with one blow, forces the two surfaces or fields of the piece to fill exactly all the vacancies of the two figures engraved hollow. The engine which serves to laminate lead, gives a sufficient notion of that which serves to flatten gold and silver laminæ between rollers of a lesser size. Plate CL.

The principal pieces of the machine (fig. 1.), to stamp coins on the edge, are two steel laminæ, about a line thick. One half of the legend, or of the ring, is engraved on the thickness of one of the laminæ, and the other half on the thickness of the other; and these two laminæ are straight, although the planchet marked with them be circular. Fig. 1.

When they stamp a planchet, they first put it between the laminæ in such a manner, as that these being each of them laid flat upon a copperplate, which is fastened upon a very thick wooden table, and the planchet being likewise laid flat upon the same plate, the edge of the planchet may touch the two laminæ on each side, and in their thick part.

One of these laminæ is immoveable, and fastened with several screws; the other slides by means of a dented wheel, which takes into the teeth that are on the surface of the lamina. This sliding lamina makes the planchet turn in such a manner, that it remains stamped on the edge, when it has made one turn. Only crown and half-crown pieces can bear the impression of letters on the thickness of their edges.

The coining engine or mill is so fitted for dispatch, (fig. 2.), that a single man may stamp 20,000 planchets in one day: gold, silver, and copper planchets, are all of them coined with a mill, to which the coining squares (fig. 3.) commonly called dyes are fastened; that of the face under, in a square box furnished with male and female screws, to fix and keep it steady; and the other above, in a little box garnished with the same screws, to fasten the coining square. The planchet Fig. 2.

Coinage. chet is laid flat on the ſquare of the effigy, which is dormant; and they immediately pull the bar of the mill by its cords, which cauſes the ſcrew ſet within it to turn. This enters into the female ſcrew, which is in the body of the mill, and turns with ſo much ſtrength, that by pulling the upper ſquare upon that of the effigy, the planchet, violently preſſed between both ſquares, receives the impreſſion of both at one pull, and in the twinkling of an eye.

The planchet thus ſtamped and coined, goes through a final examination of the mint wardens, from whoſe hands it goes into the world.

In the COINING *of Medals*, the proceſs is the ſame in effect with that of money, the principal difference conſiſting in this, that money having but a ſmall relievo, receives its impreſſion at a ſingle ſtroke of the engine: whereas for medals, the height of their relievo makes it neceſſary that the ſtroke be repeated ſeveral times: to this end the piece is taken out from between the dyes, heated, and returned again; which proceſs, in medallions and large medals, is repeated 15 or 20 times before the full impreſſion be given: care muſt be taken, every time the planchet is removed, to take off the ſuperfluous metal ſtretched beyond the circumference with a file. Medallions, and medals of a high relievo, are uſually firſt caſt in ſand, by reaſon of the difficulty of ſtamping them in the preſs, where they are put only to perfect them; in regard the ſand does not leave them clear, ſmooth, and accurate enough. Therefore we may ſee that medals receive their form and impreſſion by degrees, whereas money receives them all at once.

Britiſh COINAGE, both by the beauty of the engraving, and by the invention of the impreſſions on the edges, that admirable expedient for preventing the alteration of the ſpecies, is carried to the utmoſt perfection.

It was only in the reign of King William III. that the hammer money ceaſed to be current in England, where till then it was ſtruck in that manner, as in other nations. Before the hammer ſpecie was called in, the Engliſh money was in a wretched condition, having been filed and clipped by natives as well as foreigners, inſomuch that it was ſcarce left of half the value: the retrieving this diſtreſſed ſtate of the Engliſh money is looked upon as one of the glories of King William's reign.

The Britiſh coinage is now wholly performed in the Tower of London, where there is a corporation for it, under the title of the *mint*. Formerly there were here, as there are ſtill in other countries, the rights of ſeinorage and braſſage; but ſince the eighteenth year of King Charles II. there is nothing taken either for the king or for the expences of coining; ſo that weight is returned for weight to any perſon who carries their gold and ſilver to the Tower.

The ſpecies coined in Great Britain are eſteemed contraband goods, and not to be exported. All foreign ſpecies are allowed to be ſent out of the realm, as well as gold and ſilver in bars, ingots, duſt, &c.

Barbary COINAGE, particularly that of Fez and Tunis, is under no proper regulations, as every goldſmith, Jew, or even private perſon, undertakes it at pleaſure; which practice renders their money exceedingly bad, and their commerce very unſafe.

Muſcovite COINAGE. In Muſcovy there is no other coin ſtruck but ſilver, and that only in the cities of Moſcow, Novogorod, Twere, and Pleſkow, to which may be added Peterſburgh. The coinage of each of theſe cities is let out to farm, and makes part of the royal revenue. Coinage

Perſian COINAGE. All the money made in Perſia is ſtruck with a hammer, as is that of the reſt of Aſia; and the ſame may be underſtood of America, and the coaſts of Africa, and even Muſcovy: the king's duty, in Perſia, is ſeven and a half per cent. for all the moneys coined, which are lately reduced to ſilver and copper, there being no gold coin there except a kind of medals, at the acceſſion of a new ſophi.

Spaniſh COINAGE is eſteemed one of the leaſt perfect in Europe. It is ſettled at Seville and Segovia, the only cities where gold and ſilver are ſtruck.

COIRE, or, as the Germans call it, CHUR, a large and handſome town of Switzerland, and capital of the country of the Griſons, with a biſhop's ſee whoſe prelate has the right of coining money. It is divided into two parts; the leaſt of which is of the Roman Catholic religion, and the greateſt of the Proteſtant. It is governed by its own laws, and ſeated in a plain, abounding in vineyards and game, on the river Preſſure, half a mile from the Rhine. E. Long. 9. 25. N. Lat. 46. 50.

COITION, the intercourſe between male and female in the act of generation.

It is obſerved that frogs are forty days in the act of coition. Bartholine, &c. relate, that butterflies make 130 vibrations of the wings in one act of coition.

COIX, JOB'S-TEARS. See BOTANY *Index*. In Spain and Portugal the poor people grind the ſeeds of this plant in times of ſcarcity, and make a coarſe kind of bread of them. The ſeeds are incloſed in ſmall capſules about the bigneſs of an Engliſh pea, and of different colours. Theſe are ſtrung upon ſilk, and uſed inſtead of bracelets by ſome of the poorer ſort in the Weſt Indies, but eſpecially by the negroes.

COKE, or COOKE, SIR EDWARD, lord chief juſtice of the king's bench in the reign of James I. was deſcended from an ancient family in Norfolk, and born at Milcham in 1549. When he was a ſtudent in the Inner-Temple, the firſt occaſion of his diſtinguiſhing himſelf was the ſtating the caſe of a cook belonging to the Temple ſo exactly, that all the houſe, who were puzzled with it, admired him and his pleading, and the whole bench took notice of him. After his marriage with a lady of great fortune, preferments flowed in upon him. The cities of Norwich and Coventry choſe him for their recorder; the county of Norfolk, for one of their knights in parliament; and the houſe of commons, for their ſpeaker, in the 35th year of Queen Elizabeth. The queen appointed him ſolicitor-general in 1592, and attorney-general the next year. In 1603, he was knighted by King James I.; and in November the ſame year, upon the trial of Sir Walter Raleigh, &c. at Wincheſter, he treated that gentleman with a ſcurrility of language hardly to be paralleled. June 27. he was appointed lord chief juſtice of the common pleas; and in 1613, lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, and ſworn one of the privy council. In 1615, he was very vigorous in the diſcovery and proſecution of the perſons employed in poiſoning Coke.

Sir

Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower in 1612. His contest not long after with the lord chancellor Egerton, with some other cases, hastened the ruin of his interest at court; so that he was sequestrated from the council-table and the office of lord chief justice. In 1621, he vigorously maintained in the house of commons, that no proclamation is of any force against the parliament. The same year, being looked upon as one of the great incendiaries in the house of commons, he was removed from the council of state with disgrace; the king saying, "that he was the fittest instrument for a tyrant that ever was in England:" he was also committed to the Tower, and his papers were seized. Upon the calling of a new parliament in 1625, the court-party, to prevent his being elected a member, got him appointed sheriff of Buckinghamshire; to avoid the office, if possible, he drew up exceptions against the oath of a sheriff, but was obliged to undertake the office. In 1628 he spoke vigorously upon grievances, and made a speech, in which he affirmed, that "the duke of Buckingham was the cause of all our miseries" While he lay upon his deathbed, his papers and last will were seized by an order of council. He died in 1634, and published many works: the most remarkable are his Institutes of the Laws of England; the first part of which is only a translation and comment of Sir Thomas Littleton, one of the chief justices of the common pleas in the reign of Edward IV.

COKENHAUSEN, a strong town of Livonia in Russia on the river Dwina. E. Long. 25. 50. N. Lat. 56. 30.

COL, one of the western islands of Scotland, is annexed to the county of Argyle. It is 13 miles long, and 9 broad. It abounds in corn, pasture, salmon, eels, and cod. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in the fisheries. W. Long. 7. 15. N. Lat. 57.

COLAPIS, Colops, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Liburnia, which after a winding north-east course, falls into the Savus at the Insula Segestica. Now the *Culpe*, the boundary of the Alps, running through Croatia into the Save. Colapiani, the people living on it (Pliny).

COLARBASIANS, or Colorbasians, a set of Christians in the second century; so called from their leader Colarbasus, a disciple of Valentinus; who, with Marcus, another disciple of the same master, maintained the whole plenitude and perfection of truth and religion to be contained in the Greek alphabet; and that it was upon this account that Jesus Christ was called the *alpha* and *omega*. This sect was a branch of the Valentinians. See also Marcosians.

COLBERG, a strong, handsome sea-port town of Germany in Pomerania, belonging to the king of Prussia. It is remarkable for its salt works; and is seated at the mouth of the river Persant, on the Baltic sea, 60 miles north-east of Stetin, and 30 north-east of Camin. It was taken by the Russians in 1761, but restored at the subsequent peace. E. Long. 15. 39. N. Lat. 54. 22.

COLBERT, John Baptist, Marquis of Segnelai, one of the greatest statesmen that France ever had, was born at Paris in 1619; and descended from a family that lived at Rheims in Champagne, no way considerable for its splendour and antiquity. His grandfather is said to have been a wine merchant, and his father at first followed the same occupation; but afterwards became clerk to a notary. In 1648, his relation John Baptist Colbert, lord of S. Pouange, preferred him to the service of Michael le Tellier, secretary of state, whose sister he had married; and here he discovered such diligence, and exactness in executing all the commissions that were entrusted to his care, that he quickly grew distinguished. One day his master sent him to Cardinal Mazarine, who was then at Sedan, with a letter written by the queen-mother; and ordered him to bring it back, after that minister had seen it. Colbert carried the letter, and would not return without it, though the cardinal treated him roughly, used several arts to deceive him, and obliged him to wait for it several days. Some time after, the cardinal returning to court, and wanting one to write his agenda, or memoranda, desired Le Tellier to furnish him with a fit person for that employment: and Colbert being presented to him, the cardinal had some remembrance of him, and desired to know where he had seen him. Colbert was afraid of putting him in mind of Sedan, lest the remembrance of his importunacy, in demanding the queen's letter, should renew the cardinal's anger. But his eminency was so far from hating him for his faithfulness to his late master, that he received him on condition that he should serve him with the like zeal and fidelity.

Colbert applied himself wholly to the advancement of his master's interests, and gave him so many marks of his diligence and skill, that afterwards he made him his intendant. He accommodated himself so dexterously to the inclinations of that minister, by retrenching his superfluous expences, that he was entrusted with the management of that gainful trade of selling benefices and governments. It was by Colbert's counsel, that the cardinal obliged the governors of frontier places to maintain their garrisons with the contributions they exacted; with which advice his eminency was extremely pleased. He was sent to Rome to negociate the reconciliation of Cardinal de Retz, for which the pope had showed some concern; and to persuade his holiness to consent to the disincamerating of Castro, according to the treaty concluded with his predecessor Urban VIII. Upon the whole Mazarine had so high an opinion of Colbert's abilities, and withal such a regard for his faithful services, that at his death, which happened in 1661, he earnestly recommended him to Louis XIV. as the propereſt person to regulate the finances, which at that time stood in much need of reformation. Louis accepted the recommendation, and made Colbert intendant of the finances. He applied himself to their regulation, and succeeded, though it procured him many enemies, and some affronts. France is also obliged to this minister for establishing at that time her trade with the East and West Indies: a great design, and from which she has reaped innumerable advantages.

In 1664, he became superintendant of the buildings; and from that time applied himself so earnestly to the enlarging and adorning of the royal edifices, that they are at present so many masterpieces of architecture: witness the palace of the Thuilleries, the Louvre, St Germain, Fountainbleau, and Chambord. As for Versailles, it may be said that he raised it from the ground.

Colbert.

ground. It was formerly a dog-kennel, where Louis XIII. kept his hunting furniture: it is now a palace fit for the greateſt monarch. But royal palaces were not Colbert's only care; he formed ſeveral deſigns for increaſing the beauty and convenience of the capital city, and he did it with great magnificence and grandeur. The public was obliged to this ſame miniſter for the eſtabliſhment of the academy for painting and ſculpture in 1664. The king's painters and ſculptors, with other ſkilful profeſſors of thoſe arts, being proſecuted at law by the maſter-painters at Paris, joined together, and began to form a ſociety, under the name of the Royal Academy for Sculpture and Painting. Their deſign was to keep public exerciſes for the ſake of improving thoſe fine arts, and advancing them to the higheſt degree of perfection. They put themſelves under the protection of Mazarine, and choſe Chancellor Seguier their vice-protector; and after Mazarine's death choſe Seguier their protector, and Colbert their vice-protector. It was at his ſolicitation that they were finally eſtabliſhed by a patent, containing new privileges, 1664. Colbert, being made protector after the death of Seguier, thought fit that a hiſtoriographer ſhould be appointed, whoſe buſineſs it ſhould be to collect all curious and uſeful obſervations that might be made at their conferences. This was accordingly done; and his majeſty was pleaſed to ſettle on him a ſalary of 300 livres. To Colbert alſo the lovers of naval knowledge are obliged for the erection of the Academy of Sciences, for the making of which the more uſeful, he cauſed to be erected, in 1667, the royal obſervatory at Paris, which was firſt inhabited by Caſſini. But theſe are not the only obligations France has to that miniſter. She owes to him all the advantages ſhe receives by the union of the two ſeas; a prodigious work, begun in 1666 and finiſhed in 1680. Colbert was alſo very intent upon matters of a more private nature, ſuch as regarded the order, decency, and well-being of ſociety. He undertook to reform the courts of juſtice, and to put a ſtop to the uſurpation of noble titles, which it ſeems was then very common in France. In the former of theſe attempts he failed, in the latter he ſucceeded.

In 1669, he was made ſecretary of ſtate, and entruſted with the management of affairs relating to the ſea; and his performances in this province were anſwerable to the confidence his majeſty repoſed in him. He ſuppreſſed ſeveral offices, which were chargeable, but uſeleſs; and in the mean time, perceiving the king's zeal for the extirpation of hereſy, he ſhut up the chamber inſtituted by the edicts of Paris and Roan. He propoſed ſeveral new regulations concerning criminal courts, and was extremely ſevere with the parliament of Thouloufe for obſtructing the meaſures he took to carry the ſame into execution. His main deſign in reforming the tedious methods of proceeding at law, was to give the people more leiſure to apply themſelves to trading; for the advancement of which he procured an edict, to erect a general inſurance-office at Paris, for merchants, &c. In 1672, he was made miniſter of ſtate; for how buſied ſoever he was in the regulation of public affairs, yet he never neglected his own or his family's intereſt and grandeur, or miſſed any opportunity of advancing either. He had been married many years, had ſons and daughters grown up, all of which, as occaſion ſerved, he took care to marry to great perſons. For though he had no reaſon to doubt of his maſter's favour, yet he wiſely ſecured his fortune by powerful alliances. However, buſineſs was certainly Colbert's natural turn, and he not only loved it, but was very impatient to be interrupted in it, as the following anecdote may ſerve to ſhow. A lady of great quality was one day urging him, when he was in the height of his power, to do her ſome piece of ſervice, and perceiving him inattentive and inflexible, threw herſelf at his feet, in the preſence of above 100 perſons, crying, "I beg your greatneſs, in the name of God, to grant me this favour." Upon which Colbert, kneeling down over againſt her, replied, in the ſame mournful tone, "I conjure you madam, in the name of God, not to diſturb me."

Colbert, Colcheſter.

This great miniſter died of the ſtone, September 6. 1683, in his 65th year, leaving behind him ſix ſons and three daughters. He was of a middle ſtature, rather lean than fat. His mien was low and dejected, his air gloomy, and his aſpect ſtern. He ſlept little, and was very ſober. Though naturally ſour and moroſe, he knew how to act the lover, and had miſtreſſes. He was of a ſlow conception, but ſpoke judiciouſly of every thing after he had once comprehended it. He underſtood buſineſs pretty well, and he purſued it with unwearied application. Thus he filled the moſt important places with high reputation and credit; and his influence diffuſed itſelf through every part of the government. He reſtored the finances, the navy, the commerce; and he erected thoſe various works of art, which have ever ſince been monuments of his taſte and magnificence. He was a lover of learning, though he never applied to it himſelf; and therefore conferred donations and penſions upon ſcholars in other countries, while he eſtabliſhed and protected academies in his own. He invited into France painters, ſtatuaries, mathematicians, and artiſts of all kinds, who were any way eminent, thus giving new life to the ſciences, and making them flouriſh, as they did, exceedingly. Upon the whole, he was a wiſe, active, generous-ſpirited miniſter; ever attentive to the intereſts of his maſter, the happineſs of the people, the progreſs of arts and manufactures, and in ſhort to every thing that could advance the credit and intereſt of his country. He was a pattern for all miniſters of ſtate; and every nation may wiſh themſelves bleſſed with a Colbert.

COLCHESTER, the chief town of Eſſex, is pleaſantly ſituated upon an eminence, gradually riſing on the ſouth ſide of the river Colne. It is the ancient *Colonia Camulodunum*, from which word, *Colonia*, both the town and the river Colne received their names. The Saxons called it Colneceaſter. That it flouriſhed under the Romans, ſeveral buildings full of their bricks, and innumerable quantities of coin dug in and about it, fully evince. In the year 1763, a curious teſſelated or moſaic pavement was found in a garden three feet under the ſurface of the earth. The emperor Conſtantine the Great was born here, his mother Helen being daughter of Cool, governor or king of this diſtrict under the Romans. She is ſaid to have found out the croſs of Chriſt at Jeruſalem; and on that account

count the arms of this town are a croſs regulee between three ducal coronets, two in chief and one in baſe, the coronet in baſe paſſing through the croſs.

The walls of the town are ſtill tolerably entire on the ſouth, eaſt, and weſt ſides, but much decayed on the north ſide; they are generally about nine feet thick. By a ſtatute of Henry VIII. this town was made the ſee of a ſuffragan biſhop.

This town is the moſt noted in England for making of baize; it is alſo of ſpecial note for candying the eringo roots, and for oyſters.

In the concluſion of the civil war 1648, this town ſuſtained a ſevere ſiege of 10 weeks; and the beſieged making a very gallant defence, it was changed into a blockade, wherein the garriſon and inhabitants ſuffered the utmoſt extremity of hunger, being reduced to the neceſſity of eating horſe-fleſh, dogs, and cats, and were at laſt obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, when their two valiant chief officers, Sir Charles Lucas, and Sir George Liſle, were ſhot under the caſtle walls in cold blood. Colcheſter is a borough by preſcription, and under that right ſends two members to parliament, all their charters being ſilent on that head. The charter was renewed in 1763. The town is now governed by a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, 18 aſſiſtants, 18 common-council men. Quarter ſeſſions are held here four times in the year.

The famous abbey-gate of St John is ſtill ſtanding, and allowed to be a ſurpriſing, curious, and beautiful piece of Gothic architecture, great numbers of perſons coming from diſtant places to ſee it. It was built, together with the abbey, in 1097; and Guido, ſteward to King William Rufus, laid the firſt ſtone.

St Ann's chapel, ſtanding at the eaſt end of the town, is valuable in the eſteem of antiquarians as a building of great note in the early days of Chriſtianity, and made no ſmall figure in hiſtory many centuries paſt. It is ſtill pretty entire. St Botoph's priory was founded by Ernulphus, in the reign of Henry I. in the year 1110. It was demoliſhed in the wars of Charles I. by the parliament army under Sir Thomas Fairfax. The ruins ſtill exhibit a beautiful ſketch of ancient maſonry, much admired by the lovers of antiquities. The caſtle is ſtill pretty entire, and is a magnificent ſtructure, in which great improvements have of late been made. Here is an excellent and valuable library.

The markets, which are on Wedneſday and Saturday, are very well ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions. There are no fewer than ſix diſſenting meeting houſes in this town. Colcheſter is 51 miles from London, and 22 ENE of Chelmsford. It had 16 pariſh churches, in and out of the walls, only 12 of which are now uſed, the reſt being damaged at the ſiege in 1648. E. Long. 1. 0. N. Lat. 51. 55.

COLCHI (Arrian, Ptolemy), a town of the Hither India, thought to be *Cochin*, on the coaſt of Malabar; now a factory and ſtrong fort of the Dutch. E. Long. 75. 0. N. Lat. 10. 0.

COLCHICUM, MEADOW-SAFFRON. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLCHIS, a country of Aſia, at the ſouth of Aſiatic Sarmatia, eaſt of the Euxine ſea, north of Armenia, and weſt of Iberia. It is famous for the expedition of the Argonauts, and as the birth-place of Medea. It was fruitful in poiſonous herbs, and produced excellent flax. The inhabitants were originally Egyptians, who ſettled there when Seſoſtris king of Egypt extended his conqueſts in the north.

COLCOTHAR, the ſubſtance remaining after the diſtillation or calcination of martial vitriol or ſulphate of iron. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

COLD, in a relative ſenſe, ſignifies the ſenſation produced by the abſtraction of heat from the body.

The nature of cold, and the methods of producing it artificially, have been treated of under the article CHEMISTRY, to which we refer the reader.

Great degrees of cold occur naturally in many parts of the globe in the winter-time. In the winter of 1780, Mr Wilſon of Glaſgow obſerved, that a thermometer laid on the ſnow ſunk to 25° below 0; but this was only for a ſhort time; and in general our atmoſphere does not admit of very great degrees of cold for any length of time. In 1732, the thermometer at Peterſburg ſtood at 28° below 0; and in 1737, when the French academicians wintered at the north polar circle, or near it, the thermometer ſunk to 33° below 0; and in the Aſiatic and American continent, ſtill greater degrees of cold are very common.

The effects of theſe extreme degrees of cold are very ſurpriſing. Trees are burſt, rocks rent, and rivers and lakes frozen ſeveral feet deep; metallic ſubſtances bliſter the ſkin like red-hot iron: the air, when drawn in by reſpiration, hurts the lungs, and excites a cough: even the effects of fire in a great meaſure ſeem to ceaſe; and it is obſerved, that though metals are kept for a conſiderable time before a ſtrong fire, they will ſtill freeze water when thrown upon them. When the French mathematicians wintered at Torneo in Lapland, the external air, when ſuddenly admitted into their rooms, converted the moiſture of the air into whirls of ſnow; their breaſts ſeemed to be rent when they breathed it, and the contact of it was intolerable to their bodies; and the alcohol, which had not been highly rectified, burſt ſome of their thermometers by the congelation of the aqueous part.

Extreme cold very often proves fatal to animals in thoſe countries where the winters are very ſevere; and thus 7000 Swedes periſhed at once in attempting to paſs the mountains which divide Norway from Sweden. It is not neceſſary indeed, that the cold, in order to prove fatal to the human life, ſhould be ſo very intenſe as has been juſt mentioned. There is only requiſite a degree ſomewhat below 32° of Fahrenheit, accompanied with ſnow or hail, from which ſhelter cannot be obtained. The ſnow which falls upon the clothes, or the uncovered parts of the body, then melts, and by a continual evaporation carries off the animal heat to ſuch a degree, that a ſufficient quantity is not left for the ſupport of life. In ſuch caſes, the perſon firſt feels himſelf extremely chill and uneaſy; he begins to turn liſtleſs, unwilling to walk or uſe exerciſe to keep himſelf warm; and at laſt turns drowſy, ſits down to refreſh himſelf with ſleep, but wakes no more. An inſtance of this was ſeen not many years ago at Terra del Fuego, when Dr Solander, with ſome others, having taken an excurſion up the country, the cold was ſo intenſe, that one of their number died. The Doctor himſelf, though he had warned his companions of the

the danger of ſleeping in that ſituation, yet could not be prevented from making that dangerous experiment himſelf; and though he was awakened with all poſſible expedition, his body was ſo much ſhrunk in bulk, that his ſhoes fell off his feet, and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that he was recovered.

In thoſe parts of the world where vaſt maſſes of ice are produced, the accumulation of it, by abſorbing the heat of the atmoſphere, occaſions an abſolute ſterility in the adjacent countries, as is particularly the caſe with the iſland of Iceland, where the vaſt collections of ice floating out from the northern ocean, and ſtopped on that coaſt, are ſometimes ſeveral years in thawing. Indeed, where great quantities of ice are collected, it would ſeem to have a power like fire, both augmenting its own cold and that of the adjacent bodies. An inſtance of this is related under the article EVAPORATION, in Mr Wedgewood's experiment, where the true cauſe of this phenomenon is alſo pointed out.

COLD, in *Medicine*. See MEDICINE *Index*.

COLD. See FARRIERY *Index*.

COLDENIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLDINGHAM, ſuppoſed to be the *Colonia* of Ptolemy, and called by Bede the city Coldana and of Colud (*Coludum*), ſituated on the borders of Scotland, about two miles from Eyemouth, was a place famous many ages ago for its convent. This was the oldeſt nunnery in Scotland, for here the virgin-wife Etheldreda took the veil in 670; but by the ancient name *Coludum* it ſhould ſeem that it had before been inhabited by the religious called *Culdees*. In 870 it was deſtroyed by the Danes, but its name rendered immortal by the heroiſm of its nuns; who, to preſerve themſelves inviolate from thoſe invaders, cut off their lips and noſes; and thus rendering themſelves objects of horror, were, with their abbeſs Ebba, burnt in the monaſtery by the diſappointed ſavages. After this it lay deſerted till the year 1098, when King Edgar founded on its ſite a priory of Benedictines in honour of St Cuthbert, and beſtowed it on the monk of Durham.

Mr Pennant's deſcription of the black, joyleſs, heathy moor where it was ſituated, might be ſufficient to guard the fair inhabitants of the nunnery were it ſtill ſubſiſting. That deſcription, however, is now altogether inapplicable: The whole tract, five miles over, has been ſince improved, and converted into corn fields; the cheerleſs village of Old Cambus is no more; a decent inn with good accommodations has been eſtabliſhed at a convenient diſtance; and the paſſage of the ſteep glen called the *Peaſe*, which terminates the moor on the road towards Edinburgh, and was formerly the terror of travellers, is now rendered ſafe and eaſy by means of a bridge extending from one ſide of the chaſm to the other.

COLDINGUEN, a town of Denmark, in North Jutland, and dioceſe of Ripen. It is remarkable for its bridge, over which paſs all the oxen and other cattle that go from Jutland into Germany, which brings in a conſiderable revenue to the king. It is ſeated on an eminence, in a pleaſant country abounding with game. E. Long. 9. 25. N. Lat. 55. 35.

COLD-FINCH, a ſpecies of MOTACILLA. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COLD-SHIRE IRON, that which is brittle when cold.

COLE, WILLIAM, the moſt famous botaniſt of his time, was born at Adderbury in Oxfordſhire about the year 1626, and ſtudied at Merton college in Oxford. He at length removed to Putney, near London; and publiſhed "The Art of Simpling; and Adam in Eden, or Nature's Paradiſe." Upon the reſtoration of King Charles II. he was made ſecretary to Dr Duppa, biſhop of Wincheſter; but died two years after, aged 37.

COLE-FISH, a ſpecies of GADUS. See ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

COLE-Seed, the ſeed of the *napus ſativa*, or long-rooted, narrow-leaved rapa, called in Engliſh *navew*, and reckoned by Linnæus among the braſſicas, or cabbage kind. See BRASSICA.

This plant is cultivated to great advantage in many parts of England, on account of the rape oil expreſſed from its ſeeds. The practice of ſowing it was firſt introduced by the Germans and Dutchmen who drained the fens of Lincolnſhire; and hence the notion hath generally prevailed, that it will thrive only in a marſhy ſoil; but this is now found to be a miſtake. In preparing the land which is to receive it, care muſt be taken to plough it in May, and again about midſummer, making the ground as fine and even as poſſible. It is to be ſown the very day of the laſt ploughing, about a gallon on an acre. In the months of January, February, and March, it affords very good food for cattle, and will ſprout again when cut; after which it is excellent nouriſhment for ſheep. After all, if it is not too cloſely fed, it will bear ſeed againſt next July. The ſame caution, however, is requiſite with this food as with clover, till cattle are accuſtomed to it, otherwiſe it is apt to ſwell them. When this plant is cultivated ſolely with a view to the ſeed, it muſt be ſown on deep ſtrong land without dung, and muſt be ſuffered to ſtand till one-half of the ſeeds at leaſt are turned brown; which, according to the ſeaſons, will be ſometimes ſooner, ſometimes later. In this ſtate it is to be cut in the ſame manner and with the ſame care as wheat; and every handful as it is cut is to be regularly ranged on ſheets, that it may dry leiſurely in the ſun, which will commonly be in a fortnight; after which it is to be carefully threſhed out, and carried to the mill for expreſſing the oil. The produce of cole-ſeed is generally from five to eight quarters on an acre; and is commonly ſold at 20s. per quarter.

COLEOPTERA, or BEETLE, the name of Linnæus's firſt order of inſects. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

COLEWORT. See BRASSICA.

COLERAIN, a large town of Ireland, in the county of Londonderry and province of Ulſter; ſeated on the river Bann, four miles ſouth of the ocean, in W. Long. 7. 2. N. Lat. 55. 10. It was formerly a place of great conſideration, being the chief town of a county erected by Sir John Perrot, during his government of Ireland; whereas it is now only the head of one of the baronies in the county of Londonderry; but it is ſtill a corporation, and ſends two members to parliament. It is of a tolerable ſize, and very elegantly built. The port is very indifferent, occaſioned by the extreme rapidity of the river, which repels the tide,

Colerain || Colet.

tide, and makes the coming up to the town difficult; so that it has but little trade, and might perhaps have less, if it was not for the valuable salmon-fishery, which amounts to some thousand pounds a-year. If the navigation of the Bann could be opened, which is totally obstructed by a ridge of rocks, it would quickly change the face of things; for then, by the help of this river, and the Newry canal, there would be a direct communication across the kingdom, and, with the assistance of the Black-water river, which likewise falls into Lough Neagh, almost all the counties of the province of Ulster might have a correspondence with each other by water-carriage, to their reciprocal and very great emolument.

COLES, Elisha, author of the well known Latin and English dictionary, was born in Northamptonshire about the year 1640; and was entered of Magdalene College Oxford, which he left without taking a degree; and taught Latin to young people, and English to foreigners, in London, about the year 1663. He afterwards became an usher in Merchant-taylors school; but for some great fault, nowhere expressly mentioned, he was forced to withdraw to Ireland, whence he never returned. He was, however, a good critic in the English and Latin tongues; and wrote several useful books of instruction in his profession.

COLET, John, dean of St Paul's, the son of Henry Colet, knight, was born in London in the year 1466. His education began in St Anthony's school in that city, from whence, in 1483, he was sent to Oxford, and probably to Magdalene college. After seven years study of logic and philosophy, he took his degrees in arts. About the year 1493, Mr Colet went to Paris and thence to Italy, probably with a design to improve himself in the Greek and Latin languages, which at this time were imperfectly taught in our universities. On his return to England in 1497, he took orders; and returned to Oxford, where he read lectures *gratis*, on the epistles of St Paul. At this time he possessed the rectory of St Dennington in Suffolk, to which he had been instituted at the age of 19. He was also prebendary of York, and canon of St Martin's le Grand in London. In 1502 he became prebendary of Sarum; prebendary of St Paul's in 1505; and immediately after dean of that cathedral, having previously taken the degree of doctor of divinity. He was no sooner raised to this dignity, than he introduced the practice of preaching and expounding the scriptures; and soon after established a perpetual divinity lecture in St Paul's church, three days in every week; an institution which gradually made way for the reformation. About the year 1508, Dean Colet formed his plan for the foundation of St Paul's school, which he completed in 1512, and endowed with estates to the amount of 122l. and upwards. The celebrated grammarian, William Lyle, was his first master, and the company of mercers were appointed trustees. The dean's notions of religion were so much more rational than those of his contemporary priests, that they deemed him little better than a heretic; and on that account he was so frequently molested, that he at last determined to spend the rest of his days in peaceful retirement. With this intention he built a house near the palace of Richmond; but being seized with the sweating sickness, he died in 1519, in the 53d year of his age. He was buried on the south side of the choir of St Paul's; and a stone was laid over his grave, with no other inscription than his name. Besides the preferments above mentioned, he was rector of the guild of Jesus at St Paul's, and chaplain to King Henry VIII. Dean Colet, though a Papist, was an enemy to the gross superstitions of the church of Rome. He disapproved auricular confession, the celibacy of the priests, and such other ridiculous tenets and ceremonies as have ever been condemned by men of sound understanding in every age and country. He wrote, 1. *Rudimenta grammatices*. 2. The construction of the eight parts of speech. 3. Daily devotions. 4. *Epistolæ ad Erasmum*. 5. Several sermons: and other works which still remain in manuscript.

Colet || Coliseum.

COLIBERTS (*Coliberti*), in *Law*, were tenants in soccage, and particularly such villeins as were manumitted or made freemen. But they had not an absolute freedom; for though they were better than servants, yet they had superior lords to whom they paid certain duties, and in that respect might be called servants, though they were of middle condition between freemen and servants.

COLIC, a severe pain in the lower venter, so called because the colon was formerly supposed to be the part affected. See Medicine *Index*.

Colic, in *Farriery*. See Farriery *Index*.

COLIGNI, Gaspard de, admiral of France, was born in 1516. He signalized himself in his youth, in the reigns of Francis I. and Henry II. and was made colonel of infantry and admiral of France in 1552. Henry II. employed him in the most important affairs; but after the death of that prince, he embraced the reformed religion, and became the chief of the Protestant party: he strongly opposed the house of Guise, and rendered this opposition so powerful, that it was thought he would have overturned the French government. On the peace made after the battles of Jarnac and Montcontour, Charles IX. deluded Coligni into security by his deceitful favours; and though he recovered one attempt on his life, when he attended the nuptials of the prince of Navarre, yet he was included in the dreadful massacre of the Protestants on St Bartholomew's day 1572, and his body treated with wanton brutality by a misguided Popish populace.

COLIMA, a sea-port town of Mexico in North America, and capital of a fertile valley of the same name. It is seated at the mouth of a river, in W. Long. 109. 6. N. Lat. 18. 30.

COLIOURE, a small, but ancient and strong town of France, in Roussillon, seated at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, with a small harbour. E. Long. 3. 10. N. Lat. 43. 24.

COLIR, an officer in China, who may properly be called an inspector, having an eye over what passes in every court or tribunal of the empire. In order to render him impartial, he is kept independent, by having his post for life. The power of the colirs is such, that they make even the princes of the blood tremble.

COLISEUM, or Colisæum, in the ancient architecture, an oval amphitheatre, built at Rome by Vespasian, in the place where stood the bason of Nero's gilded house. The word is formed from *colosæum*, on account of the colossus of Nero that stood near it; or,

or, according to Nardini, from the Italian *coliseo*. In this were placed ſtatues, repreſenting all the provinces of the empire; in the middle whereof ſtood that of Rome, holding a golden apple in her hand. The ſame term, *coliſeum*, is alſo given to another amphitheatre of the emperor Severus. In theſe *coliſea* were repreſented games, and combats of men and wild beaſts; but there is now little remaining of either of them, time and war having reduced them to ruins.

COLLAERT, ADRIAN, an eminent engraver who flouriſhed about 1550, was born at Antwerp. After having learned in his own country the firſt principles of engraving, he went to Italy, where he reſided ſome time to perfect himſelf in drawing. He wrought entirely with the graver, in a firm neat ſtyle, but rather ſtiff and dry. The vaſt number of plates executed by his hand ſufficiently evince the facility with which he engraved; and though exceedingly neat, yet they are ſeldom highly finiſhed.

COLLAERT, *Hans* or *John*, ſon to the foregoing, was alſo an excellent artiſt. He drew and engraved exactly in the ſtyle of his father, and was in every reſpect equal to him in merit. He muſt have been very old when he died; for his prints are dated from 1555 to 1622. He aſſiſted his father in all his great works, and engraved beſides a prodigious number of plates of various ſubjects. One of his beſt prints is *Moſes ſtriking the rock*, a large print, lengthwiſe, from Lambert Lombard. A great number of ſmall figures are introduced into this print; and they are admirably well executed: the heads are fine, and the drawing very correct.

COLLAR, in Roman antiquity, a ſort of chain put generally round the neck of ſlaves that had run away, after they were taken, with an inſcription round it, intimating their being deſerters, and requiring their being reſtored to their proper owners, &c.

COLLAR, in a more modern ſenſe, an ornament conſiſting of a chain of gold, enamelled, frequently ſet with ciphers or other devices, with the badge of the order hanging at the bottom, wore by the knights of ſeveral military orders over their ſhoulders, on the mantle, and its figure drawn round their armories.

Thus, the collar of the order of the Garter conſiſts of S. S. with roſes enamelled red, within a garter enamelled blue, and the george at the bottom.

Lord Mayor's COLLAR is more uſually called chain. See CHAIN.

Knights of the COLLAR, a military order in the republic of Venice, called alſo the order of St Mark, or the Medal. It is the doge and the ſenate that confer this order; the knights wear no particular habit, only the collar, which the doge puts around their neck, with a medal, wherein is repreſented the winged lion of the republic.

COLLAR of a Draught-horſe, a part of harneſs made of leather and canvas, and ſtuffed with ſtraw or wool, to be put about the horſes neck.

COLLARAGE, a tax or fine laid for the collars of wine-drawing horſes.

COLLATERAL, any thing, place, country, &c. ſituated by the ſide of another.

COLLATERAL, in genealogy, thoſe relations which proceed from the ſame ſtock, but not in the ſame line of aſcendants or deſcendants, but being, as it were, aſide of each other. Thus, uncles, aunts, nephews, nieces, and couſins, are collaterals, or in the ſame collateral line: thoſe in a higher degree, and nearer the common root, repreſent a kind of paternity with regard to thoſe more remote. See CONSANGUINITY.

COLLATERAL Succeſſion. When a defunct, for want of heirs deſcended of himſelf, is ſucceeded in his eſtate by a brother or ſiſter, or their deſcendants, the eſtate is ſaid to have gone to *collateral heirs*.

COLLATIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Sabines, thought to be diſtant between four and five miles from Rome to the eaſt; ſituated on an eminence (Virgil.) Of this place was Tarquinius Collatinus, married to Lucretia, raviſhed by Sextus Tarquinius (Livy); ſituated on this or on the left ſide of the Anio (Pliny). Extant in Cicero's time, but in Strabo's day only a village; now no trace of it remains.—Another ſuppoſed *Collatia* of Apulia, near Mount Garganus, becauſe Pliny mentions the *Collatini* in Apulia, and Frontinus the *Ager Collatinus*.

COLLATINA PORTA, a gate of Rome, at the Collis Hortulorum, afterwards called *Pinciana*, from the Pincii, a noble family. Its name *Collatina* is from *Collatia*, to the right of which was the Via Collatina, which led to that town.

COLLINA, a gate of Rome at the Collis Quirinalis not far from the temple of Venus Erycina (Ovid); called alſo *Salaria*, becauſe the Sabines carried their ſalt through it (Tacitus). Now *Salaro*.

COLLATION, in the canon law, the giving or beſtowing of a benefice on a clergyman by a biſhop, who has it in his own gift or patronage. It differs from inſtitution in this, that inſtitution is performed by the biſhop, upon the preſentation of another; and collation is his own gift or preſentation; and it differs from a common preſentation, as it is the giving of the church to the perſon, and preſentation is the giving or offering of the perſon to the church. But collation ſupplies the place of preſentation and inſtitution, and amounts to the ſame as inſtitution where the biſhop is both patron and ordinary. Anciently the right of preſentation to all churches was in the biſhop; and now if the patron neglects to preſent to a church, this right returns to the biſhop by collation. If the biſhop neglects to collate within ſix months after the elapſe of the patron, then the archbiſhop hath a right to do it; and if the archbiſhop neglects, then it devolves to the king; the one as ſuperior, to ſupply the defects of biſhops, the other as ſupreme, to ſupply all defects of government.

COLLATION, in common law, the compariſon or preſentation of a copy to its original, to ſee whether or not it be conformable; or the report or act of the officer who made the compariſon. A collated act is equivalent to its original, provided all the parties concerned were preſent at the collation.

COLLATION, in *Scots Law*, that right which an heir has of throwing the whole heritable and moveable eſtates of the deceaſed into one maſs, and ſharing it equally with the others in the ſame degree of kindred, when he thinks ſuch ſhare will be more than the value of the heritage to which he had an excluſive title.

COLLATION is alſo uſed among the Romaniſts for the meal or repaſt made on a faſt day, in lieu of a ſupper. Only fruits are allowed in a collation: F. Lobi-

neau,

neau obſerves, that anciently there was not allowed even bread in the collations in Lent, nor any thing beſides a few comfits and dried herbs and fruits; which cuſtom, he adds, obtained till the year 1513. Cardinal Humbert obſerves farther, that in the middle of the 11th century there were no collations at all allowed in the Latin church in the time of Lent; and that the cuſtom of collations was borrowed from the Greeks, who themſelves did not take it up till about the 11th century.

COLLATION is alſo popularly uſed for a repaſt between meals, particularly between dinner and ſupper. The word collation, in this ſenſe, Du Cange derives from *collocutio*, "conference," and maintains, that originally collation was only a conference, or converſation on ſubjects of piety, held on faſt days in monaſteries; but that, by degrees, the cuſtom was introduced of bringing in a few refreſhments; and that by the exceſſes to which thoſe ſober repaſts were at length carried, the name of the abuſe was retained, but that of the thing loſt.

COLLATION of Seals, denotes one ſeal ſet on the ſame label, on the reverſe of another.

COLLEAGUE, a partner or aſſociate in the ſame office or magiſtrature. See ADJUNCT.

COLLECT, COLLECTION, a voluntary gathering of money, for ſome pious or charitable purpoſe. Some ſay, the name *collect*, or *collection*, was uſed, by reaſon thoſe gatherings were anciently made on the days of *collects*, and in *collects*, i. e. in aſſemblies of Chriſtians; but, more probably, *quia colligebatur pecunia*.

COLLECT, is ſometimes alſo uſed for a tax, or impoſition, raiſed by a prince for any pious deſign. Thus, hiſtories ſay, that in 1166, the king of England coming into Normandy appointed a collect for the relief of the holy land, at the deſire and after the example of the king of France. See CROISADE.

COLLECT, in the liturgy of the church of England, and the maſs of the Romaniſts, denotes a prayer accommodated to any particular day, occaſion, or the like, See LITURGY and MASS.

In the general, all the prayers in each office are called *collects;* either becauſe the prieſt ſpeaks in the name of the whole aſſembly, whoſe ſentiments and deſires he ſums up by the word *oremus*, "let us pray," as is obſerved by Pope Innocent III. or, becauſe thoſe prayers are offered when the people are aſſembled together, which is the opinion of Pamelius on Tertullian.

The congregation itſelf is in ſome ancient authors called *collect*. The popes Gelaſius and Gregory are ſaid to have been the firſt who eſtabliſhed *collects*. Deſpence, a doctor of the faculty of Paris, has an expreſs treatiſe on *collects*, their origin, antiquity, authors, &c.

COLLECTIVE, among grammarians, a term applied to a noun expreſſing a multitude, though itſelf be only ſingular; as an army, company, troop, &c. called *collective nouns*.

COLLECTOR, in general, denotes a perſon who gets or brings together things formerly diſperſed and ſeparated. Hence,

COLLECTOR, in matters of civil polity, is a perſon appointed by the commiſſioners of any duty, the inhabitants of a pariſh, &c. to raiſe or gather any kind of tax.

COLLECTOR, among botaniſts, one who gets together as many plants as he can, without ſtudying botany in a ſcientifical manner.

COLLEGATORY, in the *Civil Law*, a perſon who has a legacy left him in common with one or more other perſons.

COLLEGE, an aſſemblage of ſeveral bodies or ſocieties, or of ſeveral perſons into one ſociety.

College, among the Romans, ſerved indifferently for thoſe employed in the offices of religion, of government, the liberal and even mechanical arts and trades; ſo that, with them, the word ſignified what we call a corporation or company.

In the Roman empire, there were not only the *college of augurs*, and the *college of capitolini*, i. e. of thoſe who had the ſuperintendance of the capitoline games; but alſo colleges of artificers, *collegium artificum;* college of carpenters, *fabricorum* or *fabrorum tignariorum;* of potters, *figulorum;* of founders, *ærariorum;* the college of locksmiths, *fabrorum ferrariorum;* of engineers of the army, *tignariorum;* of butchers, *laniorum;* of dendrophori, *dendrophororum;* of centonaries, *centonariorum;* of makers of military caſques, *ſagariorum;* of tent-makers, *tabernaculariorum;* of bakers, *piſtorum;* of muſicians, *tibicinum*, &c. Plutarch obſerves, that it was Numa who firſt divided the people into colleges, which he did to the end that each conſulting the intereſts of their colleges, whereby they were divided from the citizens of the other colleges, they might not enter into any general conſpiracy againſt the public repoſe.

Each of theſe colleges had diſtinct meeting places or halls; and likewiſe, in imitation of the ſtate, a treaſury and common cheſt, a regiſter, and one to repreſent them, upon public occaſions, and acts of government. Theſe colleges had the privilege of manumitting ſlaves, of being legates, and making by-laws for their own body, provided they did not claſh with thoſe of the government.

There are various colleges on foot among the moderns, founded on the model of thoſe of the ancients. Such are the three colleges of the empire, viz.

COLLEGE of Electors, or their Deputies, aſſembled in the diet of Ratiſbon.

COLLEGE of Princes; the body of princes, or their deputies at the diet of Ratiſbon.

COLLEGE of Cities, is, in like manner, the body of deputies which the imperial cities ſend to the diet.

COLLEGE of Cardinals, or the *Sacred COLLEGE;* a body compoſed of the three orders of cardinals. See CARDINALS.

COLLEGE, is alſo uſed for a public place endowed with certain revenues, where the ſeveral parts of learning are taught.

An aſſemblage of ſeveral of theſe colleges conſtitutes an univerſity. The erection of colleges is part of the royal prerogative, and not to be done without the king's licenſe.

The eſtabliſhment of colleges or univerſities is a remarkable period in literary hiſtory. The ſchools in cathedrals and monaſteries confined themſelves chiefly to the teaching of grammar. There were only

ly one or two maſters employed in that office. But, in colleges, profeſſors are appointed to teach all the different parts of ſcience. The firſt obſcure mention of academical degrees in the univerſity of Paris (from which the other univerſities in Europe have borrowed moſt of their cuſtoms and inſtitutions), occurs A. D. 1215.

COLLEGE of Civilians, commonly called *Doctors Commons*; a college founded by Dr Harvey, dean of the arches, for the profeſſors of the civil law reſiding in London; where uſually, likewiſe, reſide the judge of the arches court of Canterbury, judge of the admiralty, of the prerogative court, &c. with other civilians; who all live, as to diet and lodging, in a collegiate manner, commoning together; whence the appellation of *Doctors Commons*. Their houſe being conſumed in the great fire, they all reſided at Exeter-houſe in the Strand till 1672; when their former houſe was rebuilt, at their own expence, in a very ſplendid manner. To this college belong 34 proctors, who make themſelves parties for their clients, manage their cauſes, &c.

COLLEGE of Physicians, a corporation of phyſicians in London, who, by ſeveral charters and acts of parliament of Henry VIII. and his ſucceſſors, have certain privileges, whereby no man, though a graduate in phyſic of any univerſity, may, without licenſe, under the ſaid college-ſeal, practiſe phyſic in or within ſeven miles of London; with power to adminiſter oaths, fine and impriſon offenders in that and ſeveral other particulars; to ſearch the apothecaries ſhops, &c. in and about London, to ſee if their drugs, &c. be wholeſome, and their compoſitions according to the form preſcribed by the ſaid college in their diſpenſatory. By the ſaid charter they are alſo freed from all troubleſome offices, as to ſerve on juries, be conſtable, keep watch, provide arms, &c.

The ſociety had anciently a college in Knight-rider-ſtreet, the gift of Dr Linacre, phyſician to King Henry VIII. Since that time they have had a houſe built them by the famous Dr Harvey, in 1652, at the end of Amen-corner, which he endowed with his whole inheritance in his lifetime; but this being burnt in the great fire in 1666, a new one was erected at the expence of the fellows, in Warwick-lane, with a noble library, given partly by the marquis of Dorcheſter, and partly by Sir Theodore Mayerne.

Of this college there are at preſent a preſident, four cenſors, eight electors, a regiſter, and a treaſurer choſen annually in October; the cenſors have, by charter, power to ſurvey, govern, and arreſt, all phyſicians, or others practiſing phyſic, in or within ſeven miles of London, and to fine, amerce, and impriſon them, at diſcretion. The number of fellows was anciently thirty, till King Charles II. increaſed their number to forty; and King James II. giving them a new charter, allowed the number of fellows to be enlarged ſo as not to exceed fourſcore; reſerving to himſelf and ſucceſſors the power of placing and diſplacing any of them for the future.

The college is not very rigorous in aſſerting their privileges; there being a great number of phyſicians, ſome of very good abilities, who practiſe in London, &c. without their licenſe, and are connived at by the college; yet, by law, if any perſon not expreſsly allowed to practiſe, take on him the cure of any diſeaſe, and the patient die under his hand, it is deemed felony in the practiſer. In 1696, the college made a ſubſcription, to the number of forty-two of their members, to ſet on foot a diſpenſatory for the relief of the ſick poor: ſince that they have erected two other diſpenſatories.

Edinburgh COLLEGE of Physicians was erected on the 26th November 1681. The deſign of this inſtitution was, to prevent the abuſes daily committed by foreign and illiterate impoſtors, quacks, &c. For this reaſon, his majeſty, at the time above mentioned, granted letters patent to erect into a body corporate and politic, certain phyſicians in Edinburgh and their ſucceſſors, by the title of "the Preſident and Royal College of Phyſicians at Edinburgh," with power to chooſe annually a council of ſeven, one whereof to be preſident: theſe are to elect a treaſurer, clerk, and other officers; to have a common ſeal; to ſue and be ſued; to make laws for promoting the art of phyſic, and regulating the practice thereof within the city of Edinburgh, town of Leith, and diſtricts of the Canongate, Weſtport, Pleaſance, and Potterrow: through all which the juriſdiction of the college extends. Throughout this juriſdiction, no perſon is allowed to practiſe phyſic, without a warrant from the college, under the penalty of 5l. ſterling the firſt month, to be doubled monthly afterwards while the offence is continued; one-half the money ariſing from ſuch fines to go to the poor, the other to the uſe of the college. They are alſo empowered to puniſh all licentiates in phyſic within the above-mentioned bounds, for faults committed againſt the inſtitutions of the college; and to fine them of ſums not exceeding 40s. On ſuch occaſions, however, they muſt have one of the bailies of the city to ſit in judgment along with them, otherwiſe their ſentence will not be valid. They are alſo empowered to ſearch and inſpect all medicines within their juriſdiction, and throw out into the ſtreet all ſuch as are bad or unwholeſome. That they may the better attend their patients, they are exempted from watching, warding, and ſerving on juries. They are, however, reſtrained from erecting ſchools for teaching the art of phyſic, or conferring degrees on any perſon qualified for the office of a phyſician; but are obliged to licenſe all ſuch as have taken their degrees in any other univerſity, and to admit as honorary members all the profeſſors of phyſic in the reſt of the univerſities of Scotland. Theſe privileges and immunities are not, however, to interfere with the rights and privileges of the apothecary-ſurgeons, in their practice of curing wounds, contuſions, fractures, and other external operations.

Edinburgh COLLEGE of Surgeons. This is but a very late inſtitution, by which the ſurgeons of Edinburgh are incorporated into a *Royal College*, and authorized to carry into execution a ſcheme for making proviſion for their widows and children, &c. They have alſo the privilege of examining and licenſing, if found qualified, all practitioners in ſurgery within certain bounds.

COLLEGE of Juſtice, the ſupreme civil court of Scotland; otherwiſe called *Court of Seſſion*, or *of Council and Seſſion*. See LAW *Index*.

Sion COLLEGE, or the college of the London clergy, which has been a religious houſe time out of mind, ſometimes

College. ſometimes under the denomination of a priory, ſometimes under that of a ſpital or hoſpital: at its diſſolution under 31ſt Henry VIII. it was called *Elſon's Spital*, from the name of its founder, a mercer, in 1329. At preſent it is a compoſition of both, viz. a college for the clergy of London, who were incorporated in 1630, in purſuance to the will of Dr White, under the name of the *Preſident and Fellows of Sion College;* and an hoſpital for ten poor men and as many women. The officers of the corporation are the preſident, two deans, and four aſſiſtants, who are annually choſen from among the rectors and vicars of London; and are ſubject to the viſitation of the biſhop. They have a good library, built and ſtocked by Mr Simpſon, and furniſhed by ſeveral other benefactors, chiefly for the clergy of the city, without excluding other ſtudents on certain terms; and a hall, with chambers for ſtudents, generally occupied by the miniſters of the neighbouring pariſhes.

Greſham COLLEGE, or COLLEGE *of Philoſophy;* a college founded by Sir Thomas Greſham, and endowed with the revenue of the Royal Exchange. One moiety of this endowment the founder bequeathed to the mayor and aldermen of London and their ſucceſſors, in truſt, that they ſhould find four able perſons to read within the college, divinity, geometry, aſtronomy, and muſic; who are choſen by a committee of the common council, conſiſting of the lord mayor, three aldermen, and eight commoners, and allowed each, beſides lodging, 50l. per annum. The other moiety he left to the company of mercers, to find three more able perſons, choſen by a committee of that company, conſiſting of the maſter and three wardens, during their office, and eight of the court of aſſiſtants, to read law, phyſic, and rhetoric, on the ſame terms; with this limitation, that the ſeveral lecturers ſhould read in term-time, every day in the week, except Sundays; in the morning in Latin, in the afternoon the ſame in Engliſh; but that in muſic to be read only in Engliſh. By 8th Geo. III. cap. 32. the building appropriated to this college was taken down, and the exciſe office erected in its room. Each of the profeſſors is allowed 50l. per annum, in lieu of the apartments, &c. relinquiſhed by them in the college, and is permitted to marry, notwithſtanding the reſtriction of Sir Thomas Greſham's will. The lectures are now read in a room over the Royal Exchange; and the city and mercer's company are required to provide a proper place for this purpoſe.

In this college formerly met the Royal Society, that noble academy, inſtituted by King Charles II. and celebrated throughout the world for their improvements in natural knowledge. See their hiſtory and policy under SOCIETY.

COLLEGE de Propaganda Fide, was founded at Rome in 1622 by Gregory XV. and enriched with ample revenues. It conſiſts of thirteen cardinals, two prieſts, and a ſecretary; and was deſigned for the propagation and maintenance of the Romiſh religion in all parts of the world. The funds of this college have been very conſiderably augmented by Urban VIII. and many private donations. Miſſionaries are ſupplied by this inſtitution, together with a variety of books ſuited to their ſeveral appointments. Seminaries for their inſtruction are ſupported by it, and a number of charitable eſtabliſhments connected with and conducive to the main object of its inſtitution.

Another college of the ſame denomination was eſtabliſhed by Urban VIII. in 1627, in conſequence of the liberality of John Baptiſt Viles, a Spaniſh nobleman. This is ſet apart for the inſtruction of thoſe who are deſigned for the foreign miſſions. It was at firſt committed to the care of three canons of the patriarchal churches; but ever ſince the year 1641 it is under the ſame government with the former inſtitution.

COLLEGE of Heralds, commonly called the *Herald's Office;* a corporation founded by charter of King Richard III. who granted them ſeveral privileges, as to be free from ſubſidies, tolls, offices, &c. They had a ſecond charter from King Henry VI.; and a houſe built near Doctors Commons, by the earl of Derby, in the reign of King Henry VII. was given them by the duke of Norfolk, in the reign of Queen Mary, which houſe is now rebuilt.

This college is ſubordinate to the earl marſhal of England. They are aſſiſtants to him in his court of chivalry, uſually held in the common hall of the college, where they ſit in their rich coats of his majeſty's arms. See HERALD.

COLLEGE of Heralds in Scotland, conſiſts of Lyon king at arms, ſix heralds, and ſix purſuivants, and a number of meſſengers. See LYON.

COLLEGIANS, COLLEGIANI, COLLEGIANTS, a religious ſect formed among the Arminians and Anabaptiſts in Holland, about the beginning of the ſeventeenth century; ſo called becauſe of their colleges, or meetings, twice every week, where every one, females excepted, has the ſame liberty of expounding the Scripture, praying, &c. They are ſaid to be all either Arians or Socinians; they never communicate in the college, but meet twice a-year from all parts of Holland at Rhinſbergh, whence they are alſo called *Rhinſberghers*, a village two miles from Leyden, where they communicate together; admitting every one that preſents himſelf, profeſſing his faith in the divinity of the Holy Scriptures, and reſolution to live ſuitably to their precepts and doctrines, without regard to his ſect or opinion. They have no particular miniſters, but each officiates as he is diſpoſed. They never baptize without dipping.

COLLEGIATE, or COLLEGIAL, churches, are thoſe which have no biſhop's ſee, yet have the ancient retinue of the biſhop, the *canons and prebends*. Such are Weſtminſter, Rippon, Windſor, &c. governed by deans and chapters.

Of theſe collegiate churches there are two kinds; ſome of royal, and others of eccleſiaſtical foundation; each of them, in matters of divine ſervice, regulated in the ſame manner as the cathedrals. There are even ſome collegiate churches that have the epiſcopal rights. Some of theſe churches were anciently abbeys, which in time were ſecularized. The church of St Peter's, Weſtminſter, was anciently a cathedral; but the revenues of the monaſtery being by act of parliament, 1 Elizabeth, veſted in the dean and chapter, it commenced a collegiate church. In ſeveral cauſes the ſtyling it *cathedral*, inſtead of *collegiate church* of Weſtminſter, has occaſioned error in the pleadings.

COLLET,

Collet || Collins.

COLLET, among jewellers, denotes the horizontal face or plane at the bottom of brilliants. See BRILLIANT.

COLLET, in glaſs-making, is that part of glaſs veſſels which ſticks to the iron inſtrument wherewith the metal was taken out of the melting-pot: theſe are afterwards uſed for making green glaſs.

COLLETICS, in *Pharmacy*, denotes much the ſame with AGGLUTINANTS or VULNERARIES.

COLLIER, JEREMY, a learned Engliſh nonjuring divine, born in 1650, and educated in Caius college Cambridge. He had firſt the ſmall rectory of Ampton near St Edmund's Bury in Suffolk, which in ſix years he reſigned, to come to London, in 1685, where he was made lecturer of Gray's Inn; but the change of government that followed, ſoon rendered the public exerciſe of his function impracticable. He was committed to Newgate for writing againſt the revolution; and again, for carrying on a correſpondence which that change of events made treaſonable; but was releaſed both times, without trial, by the intervention of friends. It is obſervable that he carried his ſcruples ſo far, as to prefer confinement to the tacit acknowledgment of the juriſdiction of the court by accepting his liberty upon bail. Suitable to theſe principles, he next acted a very extraordinary part with two other clergymen of his own way of thinking, at the execution of Sir John Friend and Sir William Perkins for the aſſaſſination plot; by giving them ſolemn abſolution, and by impoſition of hands. Abſconding for which, he continued under an outlawry to the day of his death in 1726. Theſe proceedings having put a ſtop to his activity, he employed his retired hours rather more uſefully in literary works. In 1698, he attempted to reform our theatrical entertainments, by publiſhing his "Short view of the immorality and profaneneſs of the Engliſh ſtage," which engaged him in a controverſy with the wits of the time; but as Mr Collier defended his cenſures not only with wit, but with learning and reaſon, it is allowed that the decorum obſerved, for the moſt part, by ſucceeding dramatic writers, has been owing to his animadverſions. He next undertook a tranſlation of Morreri's great Hiſtorical and Geographical Dictionary; a work of extraordinary labour, and which appeared in 4 vols. folio. After this he publiſhed "An Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of Great Britain, chiefly of England," in 2 vols. folio; which is allowed to be written with great judgment, and even with impartiality. He was beſides engaged in ſeveral controverſies, which his conduct and writings gave riſe to, not material to mention. In Queen Anne's reign, Mr Collier was tempted, by offers of conſiderable preferment, to a ſubmiſſion; but as he was a nonjuror upon principle, he could not be brought to liſten to any terms.

COLLIER, or COALLIER. See COALLIER.

COLLIERY, COALERY, or COALLIERY. See COALERY.

COLLINS, ANTHONY, a polemical writer, born at Heſten near Hounſlow in the county of Middleſex in 1676, was the ſon of Henry Collins, a gentleman of about 1500l. a-year. He was firſt bred at Eton college, and then went to King's-college Cambridge, where he had for his tutor Mr Francis Hare, afterwards biſhop of Chicheſter. He was afterwards a ſtudent of the Temple; but not reliſhing the law, ſoon abandoned that ſtudy. He was an ingenious man, and author of ſeveral curious books. His firſt remarkable piece was publiſhed in 1707, "An Eſſay concerning the uſe of reaſon in propoſitions, the evidence whereof depends on human teſtimony." In 1702, he entered into the controverſy between Mr Clark and Dr Dodwell, concerning the immortality of the ſoul. In 1713, he publiſhed his diſcourſe on free-thinking, which made a prodigious noiſe. In 1725, he retired into the county of Eſſex, and acted as a juſtice of peace and deputy lieutenant for the ſame county, as he had done before for that of Middleſex and liberty of Weſtminſter. The ſame year, he publiſhed a "Philoſophical Eſſay concerning human liberty." In 1718, he was choſen treaſurer of the county of Eſſex; and this office he diſcharged with great honour. In 1724, he publiſhed his "Hiſtorical and critical Eſſay on the 39 Articles." Soon after, he publiſhed his "Diſcourſe of the Grounds and reaſons of the Chriſtian religion;" to which is prefixed, "An Apology for free debate and liberty of writing; which piece was immediately attacked by a great number of authors. In 1726 appeared his "Scheme of literary prophecy conſidered, in a view of the controverſy occaſioned by a late book entitled, A diſcourſe of the grounds," &c. In this diſcourſe he mentions a MS. diſſertation of his, to ſhow the Sibylline oracles to be a forgery made in the times of the primitive Chriſtians, who, for that reaſon, were called *Sibylliſts* by the Pagans; but it never appeared in print. His Scheme of literary Prophecy was replied to by ſeveral writers; and particularly by Dr John Rogers, in his "Neceſſity of divine revelation aſſerted." In anſwer to which our author wrote, "A letter to the Reverend Dr Rogers, on occaſion," &c. His health began to decline ſome years before his death, and he was very much afflicted with the ſtone, which at laſt put an end to his life at his houſe in Harley ſquare in 1729. He was interred in Oxford chapel, where a monument was erected to him, with an epitaph in Latin. His curious library was open to all men of letters, to whom he readily communicated all the aſſiſtance in his power; he even furniſhed his antagoniſts with books to confute himſelf, and directed them how to give their arguments all the force of which they were capable. He was remarkably averſe to all indecency and obſcenity of diſcourſe; and was, independent of his ſcepticiſm, a ſincerely good man.

COLLINS, *John*, an eminent accountant and mathematician, born in 1624, and bred a bookſeller at Oxford. Beſides ſeveral treatiſes on practical ſubjects, he communicated ſome curious papers to the Royal Society, of which he was a member, which are to be found in the early numbers of the Philoſophical Tranſactions: and was the chief promoter of many other ſcientifical publications in his time. He died in 1683; and about 25 years after, all his papers coming into the hands of the learned William Jones, Eſq. F. R. S. it appeared that Mr Collins held a conſtant correſpondence for many years with all the eminent mathematicians; and that many of the late diſcoveries in phyſical knowledge, if not actually made by him, were yet brought forth by his endeavours.

COLLINS, *William*, an admirable poet, was born

Collins. at Chichester, about the year 1724. He received his classical education at Winchester, after which he studied at New college in Oxford, was admitted a commoner of King's college in the same university, and was at length elected a demy of Magdalene college. While at Oxford, he applied himself to the study of poetry, and published his Oriental Eclogues; after which he came to London. He was naturally possessed of an ear for all the varieties of harmony and modulation; his heart was susceptible of the finest feelings of tenderness and humanity, and was particularly carried away by that high enthusiasm which gives to imagination its strongest colouring; and he was at once capable of soothing the ear with the melody of his numbers, of influencing the passions by the force of the pathos, and of gratifying the fancy by the luxury of description. With these powers, he attempted lyric poetry; and in 1746, published his Odes, descriptive and allegorical; but the sale of this work being not at all answerable to its merit, he burnt the remaining copies in indignation. Being a man of a liberal spirit and a small fortune, his pecuniary resources were unhappily soon exhausted; and his life became a miserable example of necessity, indolence, and dissipation. He projected books which he was well able to execute; and became in idea an historian, a critic, and a dramatic poet; but wanted the means and encouragement to carry these ideas into execution. Day succeeded day, for the support of which he had made no provision; and he was obliged to subsist, either by the repeated contributions of a friend or the generosity of a casual acquaintance. His spirits became oppressed, and he sunk into a sullen despondence. While in this gloomy state of mind, his uncle Colonel Martin died, and left him a considerable fortune. But this came too late for enjoyment; he had been so long harassed by anxiety and distress that he fell into a nervous disorder, which at length reduced the finest understanding to the most deplorable childishness. In the first stages of this disorder he endeavoured to relieve himself by travelling, and passed into France; but the growing malady obliged him to return; and having continued, with short intervals, in this pitiable state till the year 1756, he died in the arms of his sister.

The following character of the poetry of Collins is drawn by Mrs Barbauld, and is extracted from an essay prefixed to an edition of his works published in 1797. "He will be acknowledged to possess imagination, sweetness, bold and figurative language. His numbers dwell on the ear, and easily fix themselves in the memory. His vein of sentiment is by turns tender and lofty, always tinged with a degree of melancholy, but not possessing any claim to originality. His originality consists in his manner, in the highly figurative garb in which he clothes abstract ideas, in the felicity of his expressions, and his skill in embodying ideal creations. He had much of the mysticism of poetry, and sometimes became obscure, by aiming at impressions stronger than he had clear and well-defined ideas to support. Had his life been prolonged, and with life had he enjoyed that ease which is necessary for the undisturbed exercise of the faculties, he would probably have risen far above most of his contemporaries'."

COLLINSON, Peter, an eminent naturalist and antiquarian, descended of an ancient family, was born on the paternal estate called *Hugal Hall*, or *Height of Hugal*, near Windermere lake, in the parish of Stavely, about ten miles from Kendal in Westmoreland. Whilst a youth, he discovered his attachment to natural history. He began early to make a collection of dried specimens of plants, and had access to the best gardens at that time in the neighbourhood of London. He became early acquainted with the most eminent naturalists of his time; the Drs Derham, Woodward, Hale, Lloyd, and Sloane, were amongst his friends. Among the great variety of articles which form that superb collection, now (by the wise disposition of Sir Hans and the munificence of parliament) the British Museum, small was the number of those with whose history Mr Collinson was not well acquainted; he being one of those few who visited Sir Hans at all times familiarly; their inclinations and pursuits in respect to natural history being the same, a firm friendship had early been established between them. Peter Collinson was elected a fellow of the Royal Society on the 12th of December 1728; and perhaps was one of the most diligent and useful members, not only in supplying them with many curious observations himself, but in promoting and preserving a most extensive correspondence with learned and ingenious foreigners in all countries and on every useful subject. Besides his attention to natural history, he minuted every striking hint that occurred either in reading or conversation; and from this source he derived much information, as there were very few men of learning and ingenuity who were not of his acquaintance at home; and most foreigners of eminence in natural history, or in arts and sciences, were recommended to his notice and friendship. His diligence and economy of time were such, that though he never appeared to be in a hurry, he maintained an extensive correspondence with great punctuality; acquainting the learned and ingenious in distant parts of the globe with the discoveries and improvements in natural history in this country, and receiving the like information from the most eminent persons in almost every other. His correspondence with the ingenious Cadwallader Colden, Esq. of New-York, and the justly celebrated Dr Franklin of Philadelphia, furnish instances of the benefit resulting from his attention to all improvements. The latter of these gentlemen communicated his first essays on electricity to Mr Collinson, in a series of letters, which were then published, and have been reprinted in a late edition of the Doctor's ingenious discoveries and improvements. Perhaps, in some future period, the account procured of the management of sheep in Spain, published in the Gentleman's Magazine for May and June 1764, may not be considered among the least of the benefits accruing from his extensive and inquisitive correspondence. His conversation, cheerful and usefully entertaining, rendered his acquaintance much desired by those who had a relish for natural history, or were studious in cultivating rural improvements; and secured him the intimate friendship of some of the most eminent personages in this kingdom, as distinguished by their taste in planting and horticulture, as by their rank and dignity. He was the first who introduced the great variety of seeds and shrubs which are now the principal

Collinson || Collybus.

principal ornaments of every garden; and it was owing to his indefatigable induſtry, that ſo many perſons of the firſt diſtinction are now enabled to behold groves tranſplanted from the weſtern continent flouriſhing as luxuriantly in their ſeveral domains as if they were already become indigenous to Britain. He had ſome correſpondents in almoſt every nation in Europe, ſome in Aſia, and even at Pekin; who all tranſmitted to him the moſt valuable ſeeds they could collect, in return for the treaſures of America. The great Linnæus, during his reſidence in England, contracted an intimate friendſhip with Mr Collinſon, which was reciprocally increaſed by a multitude of good offices, and continued to the laſt. Beſides his attachment to natural hiſtory, he was very converſant in the antiquities of our own country, having been elected a member of the Society of Antiquaries April 7. 1737; and he ſupplied them often with many curious articles of intelligence and obſervation, reſpecting both our own and other countries. He died in 1768, leaving behind him many materials for the improvement of natural hiſtory.

COLLINSONIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLLIQUAMENTUM, in *Natural Hiſtory*, an extreme tranſparent fluid in an egg, obſervable after two or three days incubation, containing the firſt rudiments of the chick. It is included in one of its own proper membranes, diſtinct from the albumen. Harvey calls it the *oculus*.

COLLIQUATION, in *Chemiſtry*, is applied to animal, vegetable, and mineral ſubſtances, tending towards fuſion. See FUSION.

COLLIQUATION, in *Phyſic*, a term applied to the blood, when it loſes its craſis or balſamic texture; and to the ſolid parts, when they waſte away by means of the animal fluids flowing off through the ſeveral glands, and particularly thoſe of the ſkin, faſter than they ought; which occaſions fluxes of many kinds, but moſtly profuſe, greaſy, and clammy ſweats.

COLLIQUATIVE FEVER, in *Phyſic*, a fever attended with a diarrhœa, or with profuſe ſweats.

COLLISION, the ſtriking of one hard body againſt another; or the friction or percuſſion of bodies moving violently with different directions, and daſhing againſt each other, as flint and ſteel.

COLLUM, the ſame with NECK.

COLLUSION, in *Law*, a ſecret underſtanding between two parties, who plead or proceed fraudulently againſt each, to the prejudice of a third perſon.

COLLUTHIANS, a religious ſect who roſe about the beginning of the fourth century, on occaſion of the indulgence ſhown to Arius by Alexander, patriarch of Alexandria. Several people being ſcandalized at ſo much condeſcenſion; and, among the reſt, Colluthus, a prieſt of the ſame city, he hence took a pretence for holding ſeparate aſſemblies, and by degrees proceeded to the ordination of prieſts, as if he had been a biſhop, pretending a neceſſity for this authority in order to oppoſe Arius. To his ſchiſm he added hereſy, teaching, that God did not create the wicked; that he was not author of the evils that befal men, &c. He was condemned by a council held at Alexandria by Oſius, in the year 330.

COLLYBUS (Κολλυβος), in antiquity, the ſame with what is now called *the rate of exchange*.

Collyræ || Colman.

COLLYRÆ, or COLLYRIDES, in antiquity, a certain ornament of hair, worn by the women on their necks. It was made up in the form of the ſmall roundiſh cakes called κολλυρεαι, *collyræ*.

COLLYRIDIANS, in church hiſtory, a ſect, towards the cloſe of the 4th century, denominated from a little cake, called by the Greeks κολλυριδιαι, *collyridia*, which they offered to the Virgin Mary.

This ſect, it ſeems, conſiſted chiefly of Arabian women, who out of an extravagance of devotion to the Virgin, met on a certain day in the year, to celebrate a ſolemn feaſt, and to render divine honours to Mary as to a goddeſs, eating the cake which they offered in her name. St Epiphanius, who relates the hiſtory of this ſuperſtitious ceremony, ridicules it. They ſprung up in oppoſition to the ANTIDICO-MARIANITES.

COLLYRIUM, in *Pharmacy*, a topical remedy for a diſorder of the eyes, deſigned to cool and repel hot ſharp humours.

COLMAN, GEORGE, a miſcellaneous and theatrical writer, was born at Florence about the year 1733. He was the ſon of Mr Colman, at that time Britiſh reſident at the court of the duke of Tuſcany, and of a ſiſter of the counteſs of Bath. He received the early part of his education at Weſtminſter ſchool, where Lloyd, Churchill, Bonnel, Thornton, and ſome others who became afterwards diſtinguiſhed literary characters, were among his intimate companions. While at ſchool he appeared in the character of a poet, having addreſſed a copy of verſes to his couſin Lord Pulteney, which were afterwards publiſhed in the magazine of St James. He was next ſent to Chriſt Church College, Oxford, where he gave many proofs of his lively genius, uniting with Thornton in producing a weekly periodical paper, entitled the "Connoiſſeur," which was continued from January 1754, to September 1756, and afterwards publiſhed in 4 vols. 12mo. Although this work met not with an equal ſhare of approbation with the World, the Adventurer, and the Rambler, which made their appearance much about the ſame time, yet it may with juſtice be affirmed, that ſome papers of it are ſuperior to any which theſe performances contain, for a ludicrous delineation of the current manners, which has always been conſidered as an eſſential department of every periodical work. When Mr Colman took the degree of A. M. he left the college and reſided in London. He entered at Lincoln's Inn, and in proper time was admitted to the bar; but literary purſuits were much more conſonant to the bent of his genius. He publiſhed in 1760 a dramatic piece of great humour, called *Polly Honeycombe*, which was ſucceſsfully acted in Drury-Lane; and the following year he gave the world his comedy of the Jealous Wife, deemed the beſt which had for many years appeared. By the demiſe of Lord Bath he came to the poſſeſſion of a handſome fortune, and it was farther augmented by the death of General Pulteney, in 1767. He ſtill continued to write for the ſtage, and produced, along with Garrick, that excellent comedy called the Clandeſtine Marriage. He alſo tranſlated the comedies of Terence into a kind of blank verſe, which gained him conſiderable applauſe.

He ſoon after this made a purchaſe of Haymarket theatre from Mr Samuel Foote, which he ſupplied with

pieces either original or tranſlations, and ſelected the ableſt actors, particularly in comedy. To a tranſlation he made of Horace's Art of Poetry, he prefixed an ingenious account of the intention of its author; and added importance to the whole work by many critical notes. The Genius, and the Gentleman, were other two of his performances, as alſo a number of ſmall pieces of the humorous kind. His underſtanding was much impaired by a ſtroke of the palſy, which ſeized him in the year 1789, in conſequence of which melancholy event, his ſon was intruſted with the management of the theatre. He died in the month of Auguſt 1794, in the 62d year of his age.

COLMAR, a conſiderable town of France, in Upper Alſace, of which it is the capital. It has great privileges, and the Proteſtants have liberty of conſcience. It is ſeated near the river Ill, in E. Long. 7. 27. N. Lat. 48. 5.

COLMARS, a town of France in Provence, and the dioceſe of Sens. It is ſeated near the Alps, in E. Long. 6. 35. N. Lat. 44. 7.

COLMOGOROD, a town of the empire of Ruſſia, with an archbiſhop's ſee, ſeated in an iſland formed by the river Dwina, in E. Long. 39. 42. N. Lat. 64. 14.

COLNBROOK, a town of Buckinghamſhire in England, ſeated on the river Coln, which ſeparates this county from Middleſex. It is a great thoroughfare on the weſtern road, and has ſeveral good inns. W. Long. 0. 25. N. Lat. 51. 30.

COLNE, a town of Lancaſhire in England, ſeated on a ſmall hill near the confines of the county. W. Long. 2. 5. N. Lat. 53. 50.

COLOCHINA, an ancient town of the Morea, in Turkey in Europe. E. Long. 23. 22. N. Lat. 36. 32.

COLOCYNTHIS, in *Botany*, a ſpecies of CUCUMIS.

COLOCZA, a town of Hungary, ſeated on the Danube, and capital of the county of Bath, with an archbiſhop's ſee. It was taken by the Turks in 1686, but afterwards retaken by the Imperialiſts. E. Long. 18. 29. N. Lat. 46. 38.

COLOGNA, a town of Italy, in Padua, and in the territory of Venice. E. Long. 17. 27. N. Lat. 45. 14.

COLOGNE, The ARCHBISHOPRIC or DIOCESE of, one of the ſtates that compoſe the electoral circle of the Rhine, in Germany. It is bounded on the north by the duchy of Cleves and Gueldres, on the weſt by that of Juliers, on the ſouth by the archbiſhopric of Cleves, and on the eaſt by the duchy of Berg, from which it is almoſt wholly ſeparated by the Rhine. This country is very fruitful in corn and wine, which the inhabitants diſpoſe of by embarking it on the Rhine, it extending above ſeventy miles along that river. It is divided into the Higher and Lower Dioceſe: the Higher Dioceſe contains that part which lies above Cologne, wherein is Bonne, the capital town of this electorate, and where the elector reſides; beſides which there are Leichnich, Andernach, Bruyl, Zulich, and Kerpen. The Lower Dioceſe is on the other ſide of Cologne, and contains the towns of Zonz, Neuys, Heizarwart, Kempen, Rhynberg, and Alpen. The city of Cologne and county of Meurs, though within the dioceſe of Cologne, do not belong to it; for Cologne is a free city, and Meurs belongs to the houſe of Naſſau Orange; but by way of recompenſe, the elector has conſiderable dominions in Weſtphalia, which they call the *Domain*. It contains the duchy of Weſtphalia, and the county of Rechlinchuſen. This prelate is one of the electors of the empire, and holds alternately with that of Treves the ſecond or third rank in the electoral college. He is arch-chancellor of the empire in Italy, which dignity was very important when the emperors were maſters of Italy, but now it is next to nothing. When the emperors were crowned at Aix-la-chapelle, the archbiſhop of Cologne performed the ceremony, which cauſed him to pretend to the ſame right elſewhere; but he was oppoſed by the archbiſhop of Mentz. This occaſioned an order, that they ſhould each of them have that honour in his own dioceſe, but if it was done elſewhere, they ſhould perform it alternately. The archbiſhop of Cologne is elected by the chapter in that city, which is the moſt illuſtrious in all Germany. They are all princes or counts, except eight doctors, who have no occaſion to prove their nobility.

COLOGNE, an ancient and celebrated town of Germany, in the dioceſe of that name, with an archbiſhop's ſee, and a famous univerſity, ſeated on the river Rhine, in E. Long. 7. 10. N. Lat. 50. 55. In the times of the Romans, this city was called *Colonia Agrippina*, and *Ubiorum*, becauſe it was built by Agrippina, the wife of Claudius I. and mother of Nero; and becauſe the Ubii inhabited this country on the Lower Rhine. In 755 it was an archbiſhopric, and in 1260 entered into the Hanſeatic league, which has now no exiſtence. The univerſity was eſtabliſhed in 1388 by Pope Urban VI. The city is fortified with ſtrong walls, flanked with 83 large towers, and ſurrounded with three ditches; but theſe fortifications being executed after the ancient manner, could make but a poor defence at preſent. It lies in the ſhape of a half-moon, and is ſaid to have 20 gates, 19 pariſhes, 17 monaſteries, and 365 churches and chapels; but the ſtreets, in general, are dirty and badly paved, the windows of the houſes compoſed of ſmall bits of round glaſs, and the inhabitants are but few for ſo large a place. It is inhabited moſtly by Papiſts; but there are alſo many Proteſtants, who repair to the neighbouring town of Mulheim, in the duchy of Berg, for public worſhip. Its trade, which is conſiderable, eſpecially in Rheniſh wine, is chiefly in the hands of Proteſtants, and carried on by the Rhine. The ſhips with which they trade to the Netherlands are of a particular conſtruction, and conſiderable burden. The clergy here are very numerous, and have large revenues. That of the archbiſhop is 130,000l. Baron Polnitz ſays, that though Cologne is one of the greateſt cities, it is one of the moſt melancholy in all Europe; there being nothing to be ſeen but prieſts, friars, and ſtudents, many of whom beg alms with a ſong, and nothing to be heard but the ringing of bells; that there are very few families of quality; that the vulgar are very clowniſh; and that the noblemen of the chapter ſtay no longer in town than their duty obliges them. Mr Wright, in his Travels, ſays, that the women go veiled; and that the beſt gin is that diſtilled from the juniper berries which grow in this neighbourhood. This city is perhaps the moſt remarkable of any in the world for the great number of precious relics it contains, of which the Popiſh clergy

Cologne. no doubt make their advantage. In the church of St Urſula, they pretend to ſhow her tomb, and the bones of the 11,000 pretended virgin martyrs, though that ſtory is entirely owing to a miſtaken inſcription. The heads of ſome of theſe imaginary martyrs are kept in caſes of ſilver, others are covered with ſtuffs of gold, and ſome have caps of cloth of gold and velvet. Brevat ſays, he ſaw between 4000 and 5000 ſkulls, decked with garlands and coronets, ranged on ſhelves. The canoneſſes of St Urſula, who muſt be all counteſſes, have a handſome income. In their church they pretend to ſhow three of the thorns of our Saviour's crown, and one of the veſſels which contained the water that he converted into wine at the marriage of Cana. In the church of St Gereon are 900 heads of Mooriſh cavaliers, ſaid to have been in the army of Conſtantine before it was converted, and to have been beheaded for refuſing to ſacrifice to idols. Every one of the heads has a cap of ſcarlet, adorned with pearls. In the magnificent cathedral of St Peter, the three wiſe men who came from the eaſt to viſit our Saviour, are ſaid to be interred. They lie in a large purple ſhrine ſpangled with gold, ſet upon a pedeſtal of braſs, in the midſt of a ſquare mauſoleum, faced within and without with marble and jaſper. It is opened every morning at nine o'clock, if two of the canons of the cathedral are preſent, when the kings or wiſe men are ſeen lying at full length, with their heads bedecked with a crown of gold garniſhed with precious ſtones. Their names, which are *Gaſper*, *Melchier*, and *Balthaſar*, are in purple characters on a little grate, which is adorned with an infinite number of large rich pearls and precious ſtones, particularly an oriental topaz as big as a pigeon's egg, and valued at above 30,000 crowns. Over againſt them are ſix large branches of ſilver, with wax candles, which burn night and day. The bones of theſe men, we are told, were brought to Conſtantinople by Helena mother to Conſtantine, from thence to Milan by Euſtorpius biſhop of that ſee, and afterwards hither by Archbiſhop Rainold. In the Jeſuits college are the portraits of the firſt 13 generals of that order, with Ignatius Loyola at their head; and in the church, which is the fineſt in Cologne, are many rich ſtatues, with an amazing quantity of fine ſilver plate; and the utenſils for maſs are all of gold enriched with precious ſtones. In the Cordeliers church, is the tomb of the famous Duns Scotus, ſurnamed *Doctor Subtilis*, with this epitaph, "Scotia me genuit, Anglia me ſuſcepit, Gallia me docuit, Colognia me tenet." Cologne is a free imperial city, and as ſuch has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the empire, and circle of the Lower Rhine. In thoſe of the empire, it has the firſt place on the Rheniſh bench. Towards the defence of the empire, its aſſeſſment is 825 florins; and towards the maintenance of the chamber-court, 405 rix-dollars 72½ kruitzers, each term. Its militia conſiſts of four companies of foot, who keep guard at the gates. It is governed by its own ſenate, in reſpect to civil matters and cauſes; but the criminal juriſdiction belongs to the elector and his chapter; and ſo jealous are the inhabitants of him, that they will not permit him to ſtay in the city above three days at a time, nor to come into it with a large retinue. For this reaſon the elector reſides commonly at Bonn. Cologne ſurrendered to the French in 1794.

Cologne || Colon.

COLOGNE-Earth, a kind of very light baſtard ochre, of a deep brown colour.

COLOMBO, a handſome, pleaſant, and ſtrong town of Aſia, ſeated on the eaſtern ſide of the iſland of Ceylon in the Eaſt Indies. It was built by the Portugueſe in 1638; and in 1658 they were driven from it by the natives, aſſiſted by the Dutch, who are now in poſſeſſion of it. It is about three quarters of a mile long, and as much in breadth. The natives live in the old town, without the walls of the new; the ſtreets of this laſt are wide and ſpacious; and the buildings are in the modern taſte, particularly the governor's houſe, which is a handſome ſtructure. E. Long. 80. 25. N. Lat. 7. 10.

COLOMEY, or COLOMIA, a town of Poland in Red Ruſſia, ſeated on the river Pruth, in E. Long. 25. 9. N. Lat. 48. 45.

COLOMNA, FABIO, a very learned botaniſt, born at Naples about the year 1567. He became ſkilled in the languages, in muſic, deſigning, painting, and the mathematics; and died about the middle of the 17th century. He wrote, 1. Φυτοβασανος, ſeu Plantarum aliquot (ac piſcium) hiſtoria. 2. Minus cognitarum rariorumque ſtirpium εκφρασις; itemque de aquatilibus, aliiſque nonnullis animalibus, libellus; and other works.

COLON, in *Anatomy*, the firſt and moſt conſiderable of the large inteſtines. See ANATOMY, N° 194.

COLON, in *Grammar*, a point or character formed thus [:], ſerving to mark a pauſe, and to divide the members of a period. See POINTING; ſee alſo PERIOD, COMMA, and SEMICOLON. Grammarians generally aſſign the uſe of a colon to be, to mark the middle of a period; or to conclude a ſenſe leſs perfect than the dot or period:—but, a ſenſe leſs perfect than the period, is an expreſſion extremely vague and indeterminate. See PERIOD.

Others ſay, a colon is to be uſed when the ſenſe is perfect, but the ſentence not concluded; but neither is this over clear and expreſs.

A late author, in a ingenious diſcourſe, *De ratione interpungendi*, marks the office of the colon, and wherein it differs from the ſemicolon, &c. more preciſely. A colon, on his principles, ſerves to diſtinguiſh thoſe conjunct members of a ſentence, which are capable of being divided into other members; whereof one, at leaſt, is conjunct. Thus, in the ſentence, *As we cannot diſcern the ſhadow moving along the dial-plate, ſo the advances we make in knowledge are only perceived by the diſtance gone over;* the two members being both ſimple, are only ſeparated by a comma. In this, *As we perceive the ſhadow to have moved, but did not perceive it moving; ſo our advances in underſtanding, in that they conſiſt of ſuch minute ſteps, are only perceivable by the diſtance;*—the ſentence being divided into two equal parts, and thoſe conjunct ones, ſince they include others; we ſeparate the former by a ſemicolon, and the latter by commas. But in this, *As we perceive the ſhadow to have moved along the dial, but did not perceive it moving; and it appears the graſs has grown, though nobody ever ſaw it grow: ſo the advances we make in knowledge, as they conſiſt of ſuch minute ſteps,* are

are only perceivable by the diſtance—the advancement in knowledge is compared to the motion of a ſhadow, and the growth of graſs; which compariſon divides the ſentence into two principal parts: but ſince what is ſaid of the movement of the ſhadow, and likewiſe of the growth of graſs, contains two ſimple members, they are to be ſeparated by a ſemicolon; conſequently a higher pointing is required to ſeparate them from the other part of the ſentence, which they are oppoſed to: and this is a colon. See PUNCTUATION.

COLONEL, in military matters, the commander in chief of a regiment, whether horſe, foot, or dragoons.

Skinner derives the word from colony, being of opinion, the chiefs of colonies, called *coloniales*, might give the name to chiefs of forces. In the French and Spaniſh armies, colonel is confined to the infantry and dragoons: the commanding officer of a regiment of horſe they uſually call *meſtre de camp*. Formerly, inſtead of colonel, the French uſed the word coronel: and this old ſpelling comes nearer to our common way of pronouncing the word *colonel*.

A colonel may lay any officer of his regiment in arreſt, but muſt acquaint the general with it; he is not allowed a guard, only a ſentry from the quarter-guard.

COLONEL-Lieutenant, he who commands a regiment of guards, whereof the king, prince, or other perſon of the firſt eminence, is colonel. Theſe colonel-lieutenants have always a colonel's commiſſion, and are uſually general officers.

Lieutenant COLONEL, the ſecond officer in a regiment, who is at the head of the captains, and commands in the abſence of the colonel.

COLONIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Trinobantes, a little above Camelodunum. Now Colcheſter in Eſſex, according to Camden, who ſuppoſes it to take its name from the river Colne, and not that it was a colony; though others think Antonine's diſtance agrees with Sudbury.

COLONIA Equeſtris, an ancient and noble colony on the Lacus Lemanus. It appears to be the work of Julius Cæſar, who ſettled there *Equites Limatenei*; and to this Lucan is thought to refer. By the Itinerary it is ſuppoſed to have ſtood between Lauſanne and Geneva, 12 miles from the laſt place by Peutinger's map, which directs to Nyon, placed in Cavo Lemano, according to Lucan's expreſſion, that is, a bay or cove of the lake. Its ancient name was *Noviodunum*, (Notitia Galliæ): hence its modern name.

COLONIA Metallina, or *Metallinenſis*, a town of Luſitania, ſituated on the right or weſt ſide of the Anas, or Guadiana; but now on the left or eaſt ſide, from the river's ſhifting its bed or channel, and called Medelin, a town in Eſtremadura. W. Long. 6. 12. Lat. 38. 45.

COLONIA Morinorum, a town in Belgica, thought to be Tarvenna, the capital of the Morini. Now Terrouen, a town of Artois. E. Long. 2. 15. Lat. 37. 50.

COLONIA Norbenſis, or *Norba Cæſarea*, a town of Luſitania, to the ſouth of Trajan's bridge on the Tagus. Now *Alcantara*, in Eſtremadura. W. Long. 7. 10. N Lat. 39. 10.

COLONIA Trajana, (Antonine, Peutinger); a town of Belgica, ſurnamed alſo *Ulpia*, (Antonine); and *Triceſima*, from being the ſtation of the thirtieth legion, (Ammian). Now Kellen, a village of the duchy of Cleves, a mile from the Rhine.

COLONIA Valentia, (Ptolemy, Livy); a town of the Hither Spain, on the Turias; deſtroyed by Pompey, (Salluſt); reſtored by Julius Cæſar. Still called Valencia, on the river Guadalaviar, in Valencia. W. Long. 35. Lat. 39. 20.

COLONNA, a town of Italy in the Campagna of Rome, 18 miles eaſtward of that city. E. Long. 12. 56. N. Lat. 41. 55.

COLONNA, *Pompey*, cardinal archbiſhop of Montreal in Sicily, and biſhop of a very great number of places, made a conſpicuous figure in the world. He was equally qualified to wear the cardinal's hat and the helmet, and experienced more than once the reverſes of fortune. Julius II. removed him from all his dignities; but Leo I. reſtored him, created him cardinal, and ſent him on ſeveral embaſſies. Clement VII. diveſted him of the purple, and again reſtored him to it. It was pretended he was obliged to him for his exaltation to the papal throne. The pope refuſing him ſome requeſt, he reproached him, ſaying, "That it was by his intereſt he had arrived at his dignity." The pope replied, "It is true, but let me be pope, and do not endeavour to be ſo yourſelf; for by acting as you do, you endeavour to diſpoſſeſs me of that you have raiſed me to." He died viceroy of Naples in 1532. He wrote ſome poems in praiſe of Iſabella Filamarini, in which he proteſts the chaſtity of his wiſhes. He wrote another work, *De laudibus mulierum*.

COLONNADE, in *Architecture*, a periſtyle of a circular figure; or a ſeries of columns diſpoſed in a circle, and inſulated within ſide.

A Polyſtyle COLONNADE, is that whoſe numbers of columns are too great to be taken in by the eye at a ſingle view. Such is the colonnade of the palace of St Peter's at Rome, conſiſting of 284 columns of the Doric order, each above four feet and a half diameter, all in Tiburtine marble.

COLONOS, in *Ancient Geography*, an eminence near Athens, whither Oedipus, after his baniſhment from Thebes, is ſaid to have retired; and hence it is that Sophocles calls the tragedy on the ſubject *Oedipus Coloneus*. A place ſacred to Neptune, and where ſtood an equeſtrian ſtatue of him. Here alſo ſtood Timon's tower; who, for his love of ſolitude, and hatred to mankind, was called *Miſanthropos*, (Pauſanias).

COLONSAY, one of the Hebrides or Weſtern Iſlands belonging to Scotland. It comprehends that of Oronſay, from which it is only ſeparated in time of flood, and both belong to the ſame proprietor, viz. Mr M'Neil. See ORONSAY.

COLONUS, a huſbandman or villager, who was bound to pay yearly a certain tribute, or at certain times of the year to plough ſome part of the lord's land; and from hence comes the word *clown*, who is called by the Dutch, *boor*.

COLONY, a company of people tranſplanted into a remote province in order to cultivate and inhabit it.

We may diſtinguiſh three kinds of colonies. Firſt, those

Colony.

those serving to ease or discharge the inhabitants of a country, where the people are become too numerous, so that they cannot any longer conveniently subsist.

The second are those established by victorious princes and people, in the middle of vanquished nations, to keep them in awe and obedience.

The third may be called *colonies of commerce;* because, in effect, it is trade that is the sole occasion and object thereof.

It was by means of the first kind of colonies that, some ages after the deluge, the east first, and successively all the other parts of the earth, became inhabited; and without mentioning any thing of the Phœnician and Grecian colonies, so famous in ancient history, it is notorious that it was for the establishment of such colonies, that, during the declension of the empire, those torrents of barbarous nations, issuing, for the generality, out of the north, overran the Gauls, Italy, and the other southern parts of Europe; and, after several bloody battles, divided it with the ancient inhabitants.

For the second kind of colonies, the Romans used them more than any other people; and that to secure the conquests they had made from the west to the east. It is well known how many cities in Gaul, Germany, Spain, and even England, value themselves on their having been of the number of Roman colonies.

There were two kinds of colonies among the Romans: those sent by the senate; and the military ones, consisting of old soldiers, broken and disabled with the fatigues of war, who were thus provided with lands as the reward of their services. See BENEFICE. The colonies sent by the senate were either Roman or Latin, i. e. composed either of Roman citizens or Latins. The coloniæ Latinæ were such as enjoyed the *jus Latii;* said to consist in those two things; one, that whoever was edile or prætor in a town of Latium, became for that reason a Roman citizen; the other, that the Latins were subject to the edicts of their own and not to those of the Roman magistrates: in the year of the city six hundred and sixty-two, after the Social war, the city was granted to all Latium, by the *lex Julia.* The coloniæ Romanæ, were such as had the jus Romanum, but not in its full extent; namely, in the right of suffrage, putting up for honours, magistracies, command in the army, &c.; but the jus Quiritum only, or private right; as right of liberty, of gentility, or dignity of family, sacrifice, marriage, &c. For it was long a rule, never to grant the liberty of the city in full to colonies; nor is there any instance to the contrary, till after the Social war, in the year of the city six hundred and sixty-two. According to Ulpian (l. 1. *D. de Cens*), there were other colonies, which had little more than the name, only enjoying what they called *jus Italicum*, i. e. they were free from the tributes and taxes paid by the provinces. Such were the colonies of Tyre, Berytus, Heliopolis, Palmyra, &c. M. Vaillant has filled a volume in folio with medals struck by the several colonies, in honour of the emperors who founded them. The ordinary symbol they engraved on their medals, was either an eagle; as when the veteran legions were distributed in the colonies: or a labourer, holding a plough drawn by a pair of oxen; as when the colony consisted of ordinary inhabitants. On all the medals are seen the names of the decemviri, who held the same rank and had the same authority there as the consuls had at Rome.

Lastly, the colonies of commerce are those established by the English, French, Spaniards, Portuguese, and other nations, within these two last centuries, and which they continue still to establish, in several parts of Asia, Africa, and America: either to keep up a regular commerce with the natives, or to cultivate the ground, by planting sugar-canes, indigo, tobacco, and other commodities. The principal of this kind of colonies are in the one and the other America, northern and southern; particularly Peru, Mexico, Canada, (lately Virginia, New England, Carolina), la Louisiana, l'Acadia, Hudson's Bay, the Antilles islands, Jamaica, Domingo, and the other islands.—In Africa, Madagascar, Cape of Good Hope, Cape Verd, and its islands, and all those vast coasts extending thence as far as to the Red sea. Lastly, in Asia, the famous Batavia of the Dutch; Goa, Diu, of the Portuguese; and some other less considerable places of the English, French, and Danes.

The practice of settling commercial colonies in distant countries hath been adopted by the wisest nations of antiquity, who acted systematically upon maxims of sound policy. This appears to have been the case with the ancient Egyptians, the Chinese, the Phœnicians, the commercial states of Greece, the Carthaginians, and even the Romans; for though the colonies of the latter were chiefly military, it could easily be shown that they were likewise made use of for the purposes of trade. The savage nations who ruined the Roman empire, sought nothing but to extirpate or hold in vassalage those whom they overcame; and therefore, whenever princes enlarged their dominions at the expence of their neighbours, they had recourse to strong forts and garrisons to keep the conquered in awe. For this they have been blamed by the famous Machiavel, who labours to show, that the settling of colonies would have been a cheaper and better method of bridling conquered countries, than building fortresses in them. John de Witt, who was one of the ablest and best statesmen that ever appeared, strongly recommended colonies; as affording a refuge to such as had been unfortunate in trade; as opening a field for such men to exert their abilities, as through want of interest could not raise themselves in their own country; and as a supplement to hospitals and other charitable foundations, which he thought in time might come to be overcharged. Some, however, have ridiculed the supposed advantages of colonies, and asserted that they must always do mischief by depopulating the mother-country.

The history of the British colonies undoubtedly shows, that when colonists become numerous and opulent, it is very difficult to retain them in proper subjection to the parent state. It becomes then a question not very easily answered, how far they are entitled to the rights they had as inhabitants of the mother-country, or how far they are bound by its laws? On this subject Mr Blackstone hath the following observations.

"Plantations, or colonies in distant countries, are either

either fuch where the lands are claimed by right of occupancy only, by finding them defert and uncultivated, and peopling them from the mother-country; or where, when already cultivated, they have either been gained by conqueft, or ceded to us by treaties. And both the rights are founded upon the law of nature, or at leaft on that of nations. But there is a difference between thefe two fpecies of colonies with refpect to the laws by which they are bound. For it hath been held, that if an uninhabited country be difcovered and planted by Englifh fubjects, all the Englifh laws then in being, which are the birthright of every fubject, are immediately there in force. But this muft be underftood with many and very great reftrictions. Such colonifts carry with them only fo much of the Englifh law as is applicable to their own fituation, and the condition of an infant colony; fuch, for inftance, as the general rules of inheritance, and of protection from perfonal injuries. The artificial refinements and diftinctions incident to the property of a great and commercial people, the laws of policy and revenue (fuch efpecially as are enforced by penalties), the mode of maintenance for the eftablifhed clergy, the jurifdiction of fpiritual courts, and a multitude of other provifions, are neither neceffary nor convenient for them, and therefore are not in force. What fhall be admitted, and what rejected, at what times, and under what reftrictions, muft, in cafes of difpute, be decided in the firft inftance by their own provincial judicature, fubject to the revifion and controul of the king in council; the whole of their conftitution being alfo liable to be new-modelled and reformed by the general fuperintending power of the legiflature in the mother-country. But in conquered or ceded countries that have already laws of their own, the king may indeed alter and change thofe laws; but, till he does actually change them, the ancient laws of the country remain, unlefs fuch as are againft the law of God, as in an infidel country. Our American plantations are principally of this latter fort, being obtained in the laft century, either by right of conqueft and driving out the natives (with what natural juftice I fhall not at prefent inquire), or by treaties. And therefore, the common law of England, as fuch, has no allowance or authority there; they being no part of the mother-country, but diftinct (though dependent) dominions. They are fubject, however, to the controul of the parliament; though (like Ireland, Man, and the reft) not bound by any acts of parliament, unlefs particularly named."

With refpect to their interior polity, our colonies, whether thofe we formerly poffeffed or ftill poffefs, may be diftinguifhed into three forts. 1. Provincial eftablifhments, the conftitutions of which depend on the refpective commiffions iffued by the crown to the governors, and the inftructions which ufually accompany thofe commiffions; under the authority of which provincial affemblies are conftituted, with the power of making local ordinances not repugnant to the laws of Britain. 2. Proprietary governments, granted out by the crown to individuals, in the nature of feudatory principalities, with all their inferior regalities, and fubordinate powers of legiflation, which formerly belonged to the owners of counties palatine; yet ftill with thefe expref conditions, that the ends for which the grant was made be fubftantially purfued, and that nothing be attempted which may derogate from the fovereignty of the mother-country. 3. Charter governments, in the nature of civil corporations; with the power of making bye-laws for their own interior regulation, not contrary to the laws of Britain; and with fuch rights and authorities as are fpecially given them in their feveral charters of incorporation. The form of government, in moft of them, is borrowed from that of England. They have a governor named by the king (or, in fome proprietary colonies, by the proprietor), who is reprefentative or deputy. They have courts of juftice of their own, from whofe decifions an appeal lies to the king in council here in England. Their general affemblies, which are their houfe of commons, together with their council of ftate, being their upper houfe, with the concurrence of the king, or his reprefentative the governor, make laws fuited to their own emergencies. But it is particularly declared, by ftat. 7 and 8 W. III. c. 22. that all laws, bye-laws, ufages, and cuftoms, which fhall be in practice in any of the plantations, repugnant to any law made or to be made in this kingdom relative to the faid plantations, fhall be utterly void and of none effect. And, becaufe feveral of the colonies had claimed the fole and exclufive right of impofing taxes upon themfelves, the ftatute 6 Geo. III. c. 12. exprefsly declares, that all his majefty's colonies in America, have been, are, and of right ought to be, fubordinate to and dependent upon the imperial crown and parliament of Great Britain, who have full power and authority to make laws and ftatutes of fufficient validity to bind the colonies and people of America, fubjects to the crown of Great Britain in all cafes whatfoever. And the attempting to enforce this by other acts of parliament, penalties, and at laft by military power, gave rife, as is well known, to the late revolt and final feparation of thirteen colonies. See the article AMERICA. This country is now detached from Britain, and confifts of 13 independent ftates, fometimes denominated the UNITED PROVINCES.

COLOPHON, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Ionia, in the Hither Afia, on a promontory on the Ægean fea, and wafhed by the Halefus. The ancient Colophon was deftroyed by Lyfimachus, in his war with Antigonus, in order to enlarge Ephefus. Pauffanias fays, it was rebuilt in the neighbourhood, in a more commodious fcite. This was one of the cities that laid claim to Homer. *Colophonem addere*, a proverbial faying, explained by Strabo to denote, that the Colophonian horfe turned the fcales in favour of the fide on which they fought. The Colophonians had a grove, a temple, and an oracle of Apollo Clarius (Strabo). Of this town was the poet Antimachus, remarked on for his turgid ftyle by Catullus. He wrote a life of Homer, whom he makes a Colophonian (Plutarch).

COLOPHONY, in *Pharmacy*, black refin, or turpentine, boiled in water, and afterwards dried; or, which is ftill better, the caput mortuum remaining after the diftillation of the ethereal oil, being further urged by a more intenfe and long continued fire.—It receives its name of *colophonia*, from Colophon, a city of Ionia, becaufe the beft was formerly brought from thence. Two forts are mentioned in ancient writings; the

Colophony || Colour.

the one dry, the other in a liquid ſtate. The latter ſeems to have been liquid pitch, which is the crude reſin of the pine brought from Colophon; the other was called *reſina fricta*, and conſiſted only of the former deprived of its humid parts.

COLOQUINTIDA, in *Botany*. See CUCUMIS.

COLORATURA, in *Muſic*, denotes all manner of variations, trillos, diminutions, &c. ſerving to make a ſong agreeable.

COLORNO, a town of Italy, in the Parmaſan, near the river Po, eight miles from Parma. The duke of Parma has a pleaſure-houſe here, one of the moſt delightful ſeats in all Italy, and the gardens are very fine. E. Long. 9. 15. N. Lat. 44. 54.

COLOSSÆ, or COLOSEÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a conſiderable town of Phrygia Magna, in which the Lycus falls into a gulf, and at the diſtance of five ſtadia emerges again, and runs into the Meander (Herodotus). Others ſay, the genuine name is *Coloſſæ*, and the people *Coloſſenſes*, to whom St Paul wrote an epiſtle: Strabo calls them *Coloſſeni*. In Nero's time the town was deſtroyed by an earthquake (Oroſius).

COLOSSUS, a ſtatue of enormous or gigantic ſize. The moſt eminent of this kind was the Coloſſus of Rhodes, a ſtatue of Apollo, ſo high that ſhips paſſed with full ſails betwixt its legs. It was the workmanſhip of Chares, a diſciple of Lyſippus, who ſpent 12 years in making it: it was at length overthrown by an earthquake, after having ſtood 1360 years. Its height was ſix ſcore and ſix feet: there were few people who could fathom its thumb, &c. When the Saracens became poſſeſſed of the iſland, the ſtatue was found proſtrate on the ground: they ſold it to a Jew, who loaded 900 camels with the braſs.

The baſis that ſupported it was a triangular figure; its extremities were ſuſtained with 60 pillars of marble. There was a winding ſtaircaſe to go up to the top of it, from whence one might diſcover Syria, and the ſhips that went into Egypt, in a great looking glaſs, that was hung about the neck of the ſtatue. Among the antiquities of Rome, there are ſeven famous coloſſuſes; two of Jupiter, as many of Apollo, one of Nero, one of Domitian, and one of the Sun.

COLOSTRUM, the firſt milk of any animal after bringing forth young, called in ſome places *beeſtings*. It is remarkable that this milk is generally cathartic, and purges the meconium; thus ſerving both as an aliment and medicine.

An emulſion prepared with turpentine diſſolved with the yolk of an egg, is ſometimes called by this name.

COLOSWAR, a large and celebrated town of Tranſylvania, where the ſenates have their meetings. It is ſeated on the river Samos, in E. Long. 21. 35. N. Lat, 46. 53.

COLOUR, in *Phyſics*, a property inherent in light, by which, according to the various ſizes of its parts, or from ſome other cauſe, it excites different vibrations in the optic nerve; which propagated to the ſenſorium, affect the mind with different ſenſations. See CHROMATICS and OPTICS.

COLOUR, in *Painting*, is applied both to the drugs, and to the tints produced by thoſe drugs variouſly mixed and applied.

The principal colours uſed by painters are red and white lead or ceruſe; yellow and red ochres; ſeveral kinds of earth, umber, orpiment, lamp-black, burnt ivory, black lead, cinnabar or vermilion, gamboge, lacca, blue and green aſhes, verdigris, biſtre, bice, ſmalt, carmine, ultramarine; each of which, with their uſes, &c. are to be found under their proper articles. Colours.

Of theſe colours, ſome are uſed tempered with gum-water, ſome ground with oil, others only in freſco; and others for miniature.

Painters reduce all the colours they uſe under theſe two claſſes, of dark and light colours: dark colours are black, and all others that are obſcure and earthy, as umber, biſtre, &c.

Under light colours are comprehended white, and all others that approach neareſt to it.

Painters alſo diſtinguiſh colours into ſimple and mineral.

Under ſimple colours they rank all thoſe which are extracted from vegetables, and which will not bear the fire; as the yellow made of ſaffron, French berries, lacca, and other tinctures extracted from flowers, uſed by limners, illuminers, &c.

The mineral colours are thoſe which being drawn from metals, &c. are able to bear the fire, and therefore uſed by enamellers. Changeable and permanent colours is another diviſion, which, by ſome, is made of colours.

Changeable colours are ſuch as depend on the ſituation of the objects with reſpect to the eye, as that of a pigeon's neck, taffeties, &c.: the firſt, however, being attentively viewed by the microſcope, each fibre of the feathers appears compoſed of ſeveral little ſquares, alternately red and green, ſo that they are fixed colours.

Water-COLOURS are ſuch as are uſed in painting with gum-water or ſize, without being mixed with oil.

Incapacity of diſtinguiſhing COLOURS. Of this extraordinary defect in viſion, we have the following inſtances in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1777. One of the perſons lived at Maryport in Cumberland. The account was communicated by Mr Huddart to Dr Prieſtley, and is as follows. "His name was Harris, by trade a ſhoemaker. I had often heard from others, that he could diſcern the form and magnitude of all objects very diſtinctly, but could not diſtinguiſh colours. This report having excited my curioſity, I converſed with him frequently on this ſubject. The account he gave was this: That he had reaſon to believe other perſons ſaw ſomething in objects which he could not ſee; that their language ſeemed to mark qualities with preciſion and confidence, which he could only gueſs at with heſitation, and frequently with error. His firſt ſuſpicion of this aroſe when he was about four years old. Having by accident found in the ſtreet a child's ſtocking, he carried it to a neighbouring houſe to inquire for the owner; he obſerved the people called it a *red* ſtocking, though he did not underſtand why they gave it that denomination, as he himſelf thought it completely deſcribed by being called *a ſtocking*. This circumſtance, however, remained in his memory, and, together with ſubſequent obſervations, led him to the knowledge of his defect.

Colour.

"He alſo obſerved, that when young, other children could diſcern cherries on a tree, by ſome pretended difference of colour, though he could only diſtinguiſh them from the leaves by the difference of their ſize and ſhape. He obſerved alſo, that by means of this difference of colour they could ſee the cherries at a greater diſtance than he could, though he could ſee other objects at as great a diſtance as they, that is, where the ſight was not aſſiſted by the colour. Large objects he could ſee as well as other perſons; and even the ſmaller ones if they were not enveloped in other things, as in the caſe of cherries among the leaves.

"I believe he could never do more than gueſs the name of any colour; yet he could diſtinguiſh white from black, or black from any light or bright colour. Dove or ſtraw colour he called *white*, and different colours he frequently called by the ſame name; yet he could diſcern a difference between them when placed together. In general, colours of an equal degree of brightneſs, however they might otherwiſe differ, he confounded together. Yet a ſtriped ribbon he could diſtinguiſh from a plain one; but he could not tell what the colours were with any tolerable exactneſs. Dark colours, in general, he often miſtook for black; but never imagined white to be a dark colour, nor dark to be a white colour.

"He was an intelligent man, and very deſirous of underſtanding the nature of light and colours; for which end he had attended a courſe of lectures in natural philoſophy.

"He had two brothers in the ſame circumſtances as to ſight; and two other brothers and ſiſters, who, as well as their parents, had nothing of this defect.

"One of the firſt mentioned brothers, who is now living, I met with at Dublin, and wiſhed to try his capacity to diſtinguiſh the colours in a priſm; but not having one by me, I aſked him, Whether he had ever ſeen a rainbow? he replied, He had often, and could diſtinguiſh the different colours; meaning only, that it was compoſed of different colours, for he could not tell what they were.

"I then procured and ſhowed him a piece of ribbon; he immediately, and without any difficulty, pronounced it a ſtriped, and not a plain, ribbon. He then attempted to name the different ſtripes: the ſeveral ſtripes of white he uniformly and without heſitation called white; the four black ſtripes he was deceived in; for three of them he thought brown, though they were exactly of the ſame ſhade with the other, which he properly called black. He ſpoke, however, with diffidence, as to all thoſe ſtripes; and it muſt be owned, that the black was not very diſtinct; the light green he called yellow; but he was not very poſitive; he ſaid, "I think this is what you call yellow." The middle ſtripe, which had a ſlight tinge of red, he called a ſort of blue. But he was moſt of all deceived by the orange colour, of which he ſpoke very confidently, ſaying, "This is the colour of graſs, this is green." I alſo ſhowed him a great variety of ribbons, the colour of which he ſometimes named rightly, and ſometimes as differently as poſſible from the true colour.

"I aſked him whether he imagined it poſſible for all the various colours he ſaw to be mere difference of light and ſhade; and that all colours could be compoſed of theſe two mixtures only? With ſome heſitation he replied, No, he did imagine there was ſome other difference.

"It is proper to add, that the experiment of the ſtriped ribbon was made in the day-time, and in a good light."

Colours for ſtaining different kinds of Stones. See Chemistry.

Colour, in *Dyeing*. See Dyeing.

Colour of Plants, is an attribute found to be very variable. Different colours are obſerved, not only in different individuals of the ſame ſpecies, but likewiſe in different parts of the ſame individual. Thus, marvel of Peru, and ſweet-william, have frequently petals of different colours on the ſame plant. Three or four different colours are frequently found upon the ſame leaf or flower, as on the leaves of the amaranthus tricolor, and the flowers of the tulip, auricula, three-coloured violet and others. To produce the moſt beautiful and ſtriking variety of colours in ſuch flowers, is the principal delight and buſineſs of the floriſt.

The primitive colours, and their intermediate ſhades or gradations enumerated by botaniſts, are as follow:

Water-colour, *hyalinus*.
  White.
Lead-colour, *cinereus*.
  Black, *niger*.
Brown, *fuſcus*.
Pitch-black, *ater*.
  Yellow, *luteus*.
Straw-colour, *flavus*.
Flame-colour, *fulvus*.
Iron-colour, *gilvus*.
  Red.
Fleſh-colour, *incarnatus*.
Scarlet, *coccineus*.
  Purple.
Violet-colour, *cæruleo-purpureus*.
  Blue, *cæruleus*.
  Green.

Theſe colours ſeem to be appropriated to particular parts of the plant. Thus white is moſt common in roots, ſweet berries, and the petals of ſpring flowers. Water-colour, in the filaments and ſtyles. Black, in the roots and ſeeds; rarely in the ſeed-veſſel, and ſcarce ever to be found in the petals. Yellow is frequently in the antheræ or tops of the ſtamina; as likewiſe in the petals of autumnal flowers, and the compound ligulated flowers of Linnæus. Red is common in the petals of ſummer flowers, and in the acid fruits. Blue and violet-colour in the petals. Green in the leaves and calyx, but rarely in the petals. In the interchanging of colours, which in plants is found to depend upon differences in heat, climate, ſoil, and culture, a ſort of elective attraction is obſerved to take place. Thus, red is more eaſily changed into white and blue; blue into white and yellow; yellow into white; and white into purple. A red colour is often changed into a white, in the flowers of heath, mother of thyme, betony, pink, viſcous campion, *cucubalus*, trefoil, orchis, foxglove, thiſtle, cudweed, ſaw-wort, roſe,

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rose, poppy, fumitory, and geranium. Red passes into blue in pimpernel. Blue is changed into white in bell-flower, greek-valerian, bind-weed, columbine, violet vetch, milk-wort, goat's rue, viper's buglossa, comfrey, borrage, hyssop, dragon's head, scabious, blue-bottle, and succory. Blue is changed into yellow in crocus. Yellow passes easily into white in melilot, agrimony, mullein, tulip, *blattaria* or moth-mullein, and corn marigold. White is changed into purple in wood-sorrel, thorn-apple, pease, and daisy.

Although plants are sometimes observed to change their colour upon being moistened with coloured juices, yet that quality in vegetables seems not so much owing to the nature of their nourishment, as to the action of the internal and external air, heat, light, and the primitive organization of the parts. In support of this opinion, we may observe with Dr Grew, that there is a far less variety in the colours of roots, than of the other parts of the plant; the pulp within the skin, being usually white, sometimes yellow, rarely red. That this effect is produced by their small intercourse with the external air, appears from this circumstance, that the upper parts of roots, when they happen to stand naked above the ground, are often dyed with several colours: thus the tops of sorrel roots turn red; those of turnips, mullein, and radishes, purple; and many others green; whilst those parts of the same roots which lie more under ground, are commonly white. The green colour is so proper to leaves, that many, as those of sage, the young sprouts of St John's wort, and others which are reddish when in the bud, acquire a perfect green upon being fully expanded. In like manner, the leaves of the sea-side grape (*polygonum*), which when young are entirely red, become, as they advance in growth, perfectly green, except the middle and transverse ribs, which retain their former colour.

As flowers gradually open and are exposed to the air, they throw off their old colour and acquire a new one. In fact, no flower has its proper colour till it is fully expanded. Thus the purple stock julyflowers are white or pale in the bud. In like manner bachelor's buttons, blue-bottle, poppy, red daisies, and many other flowers, though of divers colours when blown, are all white in the bud. Nay, many flowers change their colour thrice successively; thus, the very young buds of lady's looking-glass, buglossa, and the like, are all white; the larger buds purple or murrey; and the open flowers blue.

With respect to the colours of the juices of plants, we may observe, that most resinous gums are tinctured; some, however, are limpid; that which drops from the domestic pine is clear as rock-water. The milk of some plants is pale, as in burdock; of others white, as in dandelion, euphorbium, and scorzonera; and of others yellow, as in lovage, and greater celandine. Most mucilages have little colour, taste, or smell. Of all the colours above enumerated, green is the most common to plants, black is the most rare.

Colour being a quality in plants so apt to change, ought never to be employed in distinguishing their species. These ought to be characterized from circumstances not liable to alteration by culture or other accidents. The same inconstancy of colour observed in the flowers, is likewise to be found in the other parts of plants. Berries frequently change from green to red, and from red to white. Even in ripe fruits, the colour, whether white, red, or blue, is apt to vary; particularly in apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees. Seeds are more constant in point of colour than the vessel which contains them. In the seeds, however, of the poppy, oats, pea, bean, and kidney-bean, variations are frequently observed. The root, too, although not remarkably subject to change, is found to vary in some species of carrot and raddish. Leaves frequently become spotted, as in a species of orchis, hawk-weed, ranunculus, knot-grass, and lettuce; but seldom relinquish their green colour altogether. Those of some species of amaranthus, or flower-gentle, are beautifully coloured. The spots that appear on the surface of the leaves are of different colours, liable to vary, and not seldom disappear altogether. The leaves of officinal lung-wort, and some species of sow-bread, sorrel, trefoil, and ranunculus, are covered with white spots. Those of dog's-tooth violet, with purple and white. Those of several species of ranunculus, and orchis, with black and purple. Those of amaranthus tricolor, with green, red, and yellow. Those of ranunculus acris, and a species of bog-bean, with red or purple. The under surface of the leaves of some species of pimpernel and the sea-plantain is marked with a number of dots or points; a white line runs through the leaves of Indian reed, black-berried heath, and a species of Canary grass: and the margin or brim of the leaf, in some species of box, honeysuckle, ground-ivy, and the evergreen oak, is of a silver-white colour. The whole plant is often found to assume a colour that is unnatural or foreign to it. The varieties in some species of eryngo, mug-wort, orrach, amaranthus, purslane, and lettuce, furnish examples.

Such being the inconstancy of colours in all the parts of the plant, specific names derived from that quality are very properly, by Linnæus, deemed erroneous; whether they respect the colour of the flower, fruit, seeds, roots, leaves, or express in general the beauty or deformity of the entire plant, with a particular view to that circumstance. Of this impropriety, committed by former botanists, Linnæus himself is not always guiltless. Thus the two species of *sarracena*, or the side-saddle flower, are distinguished by the colour of their petals into the yellow and purple sarracena; although the shapes and figure of the leaves afforded much more constant as well as striking characters. The same may be said of his lupinus albus and luteus; reseda alba, glauca, and lutea; angelica atro purpurea; dictamnus albus; lamium album; selago coccinea; sida alba; passiflora rubra, lutea, incarnata, and cœrulea; and of many others, in which the specific name is derived from a character or quality that is so liable to vary in the same species.

We shall conclude this article with observing, that of all sensible qualities, colour is the least useful in indicating the virtues and powers of vegetables. The following general positions on this subject are laid down by Linnæus, and seem sufficiently confirmed by experiment. A yellow colour generally indicates a bitter taste; as in gentian, aloe, celandine, turmeric, and other yellow flowers. Red indicates an acid or sour taste; as in cranberries, barberries, currants, raspberries, mulberries, cherries, the fruit of the rose, sea-buck-

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thorn, and ſervice-tree. Herbs that turn red towards autumn, have likewiſe a ſour taſte; as ſorrel, wood-ſorrel, and bloody dock. Green indicates a crude alkaline taſte, as in leaves and unripe fruits. A pale colour denotes an inſipid taſte, as in endive, aſparagus, and lettuce. White promiſes a ſweet luſcious taſte; as in white currants and plums, ſweet apples, &c. Laſtly, black indicates a harſh, nauſeous, diſagreeable taſte; as in the berries of deadly nightſhade, myrtle-leaved ſumach, herb-chriſtopher, and others; many of which are not only unpleaſant to the taſte, but pernicious and deadly in their effects.

To be aſcertained of the acid or alkaline property of any plant, expreſs ſome of the juice, and rub it upon a piece of blue paper; which, if the plant in queſtion is of an acid nature, will turn red; if of an alkaline, green. For the methods of extracting colours from the different parts of plants, ſee the article *Colour Making*.

Difference of Colour *in the Human Species*. See Complexion.

Colour, in *Heraldry*. The colours generally uſed in heraldry are, red, blue, black, green, and purple; which the heralds call *gules*, *azure*, *ſable*, *vert* or *ſinople*, and *purpure*; tenne or tawny, and ſanguine, are not ſo common; as to yellow and white, called *or* and *argent*, they are metals, not colours.

The metals and colours are ſometimes expreſſed in blazon by the names of precious ſtones, and ſometimes by thoſe of planets or ſtars. See Blazoning.

Oenomaus is ſaid firſt to have invented the diſtinctions of colours, to diſtinguiſh the gundillæ of combatants at the Circenſian games; the green for thoſe who repreſented the earth, and blue for thoſe who repreſented the ſea,

Colours, in the military art, include the banners, flags, enſigns, &c. of all kinds, borne in the army or fleet. See Flag and Standard.

Colours, in the Latin and Greek churches, are uſed to diſtinguiſh ſeveral myſteries and feaſts celebrated therein.

Five colours only are regularly admitted in the Latin church: theſe are white, green, red, violet, and black. The white is for the myſteries of our Saviour, the feaſt of the Virgin, thoſe of the angels, ſaints, and confeſſors: the red is for the myſteries and ſolemnities of the holy ſacrament, the feaſts of the apoſtles and martyrs; the green for the time between pentecoſt and advent, and from epiphany to ſeptuageſima; the violet in advent and Chriſtmas, in vigils, rogations, &c. and in votive maſſes in time of war; laſtly, the black is for the dead, and the ceremonies thereto belonging.

In the Greek church, the uſe of colours is almoſt aboliſhed, as well as among us. Red was, in the Greek church, the colour for Chriſtmas and the dead, as black among us.

To Colour *Strangers Goods*, is when a freeman allows a foreigner to enter goods at the cuſtomhouſe in his name.

Colour-Making, the art of preparing the different kinds of colours uſed in painting.

This art properly belongs to chemiſtry; and is one of the moſt curious, though leaſt underſtood, parts of it. The principles on which colour-making depends are entirely different from thoſe on which the theory of other parts of chemiſtry is founded; and the practical part being in the hands of thoſe who find it their intereſt to conceal their methods as much as poſſible, it thence happens, that there is not only no diſtinct theory of this art, but ſcarce a ſingle good receipt for making any one colour hath ever yet appeared.

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1 Diviſion of colours into opaque and tranſparent.

The firſt general diviſion of colours is into opaque and tranſparent. By the firſt are meant ſuch colours as, when laid over paper, wood, &c. cover them fully, ſo as to efface any other painting or ſtain that might have been there before; the others are of ſuch a nature as to leave the ground on which they are laid viſible through them. Of the firſt kind are white-lead, red-lead, vermilion, &c.; of the latter kind are the colours uſed for illuminating maps, &c.

2 Oil and water colours.

Another diviſion is into oil-colours and water-colours; by which is meant ſuch as are appropriated to painting in oil and in water. Moſt of thoſe which are proper for painting in water, are alſo proper for being uſed in oil. There is, however, this remarkable difference betwixt colours when mixed with water and with oil, that ſuch as are quite opaque in water will become perfectly tranſparent in oil. Thus, blue verditer, though exceedingly opaque in water, if ground with oil, ſeems totally to diſſolve, and will become very tranſparent. The ſame thing happens to ſuch colours as have for their baſis the oxide of tin, alabaſter, or calcareous earth. The moſt perfectly opaque colours in oil are ſuch as have lead, mercury, or iron, for their baſis: to the latter, however, Pruſſian blue is an exception; for though the baſis of that colour is iron, it proves quite tranſparent when ground with oil. In water colours, thoſe prepared from metals, Pruſſian blue alone excepted, are always opaque; from vegetables or animals, tranſparent. Coals, however, whether vegetable or animal, are opaque both in water and oil.

3 Simple and compound ones.

Colours, again, may be conſidered as either ſimple or compound. The ſimple ones are ſuch as require nothing to be ſuperadded to them, in order to make a full ſtrong colour, without regarding whether they are formed of many or few ingredients; and in this view, white-lead, red-lead, vermilion, oxides of iron, &c. are ſimple colours. The compound ones are formed by the union of two or more colouring ſubſtances; as blue and yellow united together to form a green, red and yellow to form an orange, a white earth or oxide with the red colour of cochineal or brazil to form a lake, &c.; and thus carmine, lake, roſe pink, Dutch-pink, Engliſh-pink, &c. are compound colours.

4 True and falſe colours.

The laſt and moſt important diviſion of colours is into true and falſe. By the former are meant thoſe which retain their colour under every poſſible variety of circumſtances, without fading in the leaſt: the others are ſuch as do not; but either loſe their colour altogether, or change to ſome other. What is chiefly apt to affect colours, is their being expoſed to the ſun in ſummer, and to the cold air in winter: but to this there is one exception, viz. white-lead; which, when ground with oil, retains its whiteneſs if expoſed to the weather, but degenerates into a browniſh or yellowiſh colour if cloſe kept. In water this ſubſtance is very apt to loſe its colour, whether expoſed to the air or not.

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not. The great desideratum in colour-making is to produce the first kind of colours, viz. such as will not fade by exposure to the weather; and indeed it is to be regretted, that the most beautiful are in general the least permanent. It may, for the most part, however, be expected, that the more simple any colour is, the less liable will it be to change upon exposure to the air.

The great difficulty of knowing *à priori* whether a colour will fade or not, is owing to our ignorance concerning the nature of colouring substances. With all our disadvantages, however, we may observe, that whatever change of colour is produced in any substance by exposure to the sun and air, that colour to which it changes will bid fair for being permanent, and therefore ought to be employed where it can be done.

5 Instances of colours produced by exposure to the sun and air.

Of these changes the instances are but very rare. One is the purple of the ancients, which assumed its colour by exposure to the sun, and consequently was exceedingly permanent. Another is in the solution of silver; which, being mixed with chalk, the precipitate turns to purplish black where it is exposed to the sun. A third is in solutions of indigo by alkaline substances, which constantly appear green till exposed to the air by spreading them very thin, upon which they become almost instantaneously blue, and continue so ever after.

6 By the mixture of two vegetable juices.

Sometimes, though still more rarely, a very remarkable change of colour happens, upon mixing two vegetable juices together. Almost the only instance of this we have on the authority of Mr George Forster, who informs us, that the inhabitants of Otaheite dye their cloth of a crimson colour, by mixing together the yellow juice of a small species of fig with the greenish juice of a kind of fern. But the most remarkable alterations of colour are effected by different metallic and saline solutions mixed with certain animal or vegetable substances; and with these the colour-maker will be principally conversant.

7 Effects of acids and alkalies on colours.

It is a common observation in chemistry, that acids mixed with blue vegetable juices turn them red, and alkalies green. It is equally certain, though not so generally known, that acids of all kinds generally tend to heighten red colours, so as to make them approach to the scarlet or true crimson; and alkalies to darken, or make them approach to blue or purple. Mixed with yellow colours, acids also universally tend to brighten the yellow; and alkalies to turn it to an orange, and make it become more dull. But though this is very generally the case, we are not to expect that all acids are equally powerful in this respect. The nitric acid is found to heighten the most of any, and the muriatic acid the least of the mineral ones. The vegetable, as might be expected, are less powerful than the mineral acids. Thus, if with a tincture of cochineal, either in water or alcohol, is mixed the pure nitrous acid, it will change the colour to an exceeding high orange or flame colour, which it will impart to cloth. If sulphuric acid is used, a full scarlet, inclining to crimson rather than orange, is produced. With muriatic acid, a true crimson colour, bordering on purple, is the consequence. Alkalies, both fixed and volatile, change the colour to a purple, which is brighter with the volatile than the fixed alkalies.

Here it is obvious, that whatever colours are produced by the mixture of different substances together; the permanency of these colours can only be in proportion to the ability of such mixtures to resist the weather. Thus, suppose a high scarlet or orange colour is produced by means of spirit of nitre, it is plain that, was such a colour exposed to the air, it could remain no longer than the spirit of nitre which produced it remained. In proportion, therefore, as the spirit of nitre was exhaled into the air, or otherwise destroyed, the colour behoved to fade, and at last to be totally destroyed; and thus, in proportion to the destructibility of the substances by which colours are produced, will be the disposition of such colours to fade, or the contrary. In this respect alkalies are much more destructible than acids, and consequently less proper for the preparation of colours. With regard to acids, the nitric seems most destructible, the sulphuric less so, and the muriatic the least of all. From the extreme fixity of the phosphoric acid and sedative salt, perhaps they might be of service in preserving colours.

8 Permanency of colours, by what determined.

As all colours, whether derived from the animal or vegetable kingdom, must be extracted either by pure water or some other liquid menstruum, they cannot be used for the purposes of painting till the colouring substance is united with some earthy or solid matter capable of giving it a *body*, as the workmen call it; and, according to the nature of this substance, the colour will be transparent or otherwise. This basis ought to be of the most fixed and durable nature; unalterable by the weather, by acids, or by alkalies. It ought also to be of a pure white colour, and easily reducible into an impalpable powder. For this reason all earthy substances should be avoided as being acted upon by acids; and therefore, if any of these were added to heighten the colour, they would not fail to be destroyed, and their effect totally lost. Precipitates of lead, bismuth, &c. though exceedingly fine and white, ought also to be avoided, as being apt to turn black by exposure. The only substance to be chosen in preference to all others, is oxide of tin, prepared either by fire or the nitric acid. This is so exceedingly refractory as not only to be unalterable by alkalies, acids, or the sun and weather, but even by the focus of a very large burning mirror. It is besides white as snow, and capable of being reduced to an extreme degree of fineness, insomuch that it is made use of for polishing metallic speculums. For these reasons, it is the most proper basis for all fine colours. For coarse ones, the white precipitate of lead, mentioned under the article CHEMISTRY, will answer very well. It hath a very strong body, i. e. is very opaque, and will cover well; may be easily ground fine, and is much less apt to turn black than white lead; it is besides very cheap, and may be prepared at the small expence of 3d. per pound.

9 Opaque or transparent colours, how formed.

10 Oxide of tin, the most proper basis for fine colours.

11 Precipitate of lead most proper for coarse ones.

12 General method of preparing colours.

If what we have just now observed is attended to, the general method of extracting colours from any vegetable or animal substance, and fixing them on a proper basis, must be very easily understood. For this purpose, a quantity of oxide of tin is to be procured in proportion to the quantity of colour desired. This must be well rubbed in a glass mortar, with a little of the substance designed for brightening the colour, as alum, cream of tartar, spirit of nitre, &c. after which it must be dried, and left for some time, that

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that the union between the two ſubſtances may be as perfect as poſſible. If the colour is to be a very fine one, ſuppoſe from cochineal, the colouring matter muſt be extracted with alcohol without heat. When the ſpirit is ſufficiently impregnated, it is to be poured by little and little upon the oxide, rubbing it conſtantly, in order to diſtribute the colour equally through all parts of the oxide. The ſpirit ſoon evaporates, and leaves the oxide coloured with the cochineal. More of the tincture is then to be poured on, rubbing the mixture conſtantly as before; and thus, with proper management, may very beautiful colours, not inferior to the beſt carmine, be prepared at a moderate expence. If, inſtead of cochineal, we ſubſtitute brazil-wood, turmeric, logwood, &c. different kinds of red, yellow, and purple, will be produced. For the coarſer colours, aqueous decoctions are to be uſed in a ſimilar manner; only, as theſe are much longer in evaporating than the alcohol, very little muſt be poured on at a time, and the colours ought to be made in large quantity, on account of the tedioufneſs of the proceſs.

13 Effects of different kinds of ſalts.

Hitherto we have conſidered only the effects of the pure and ſimple ſalts, viz. acids and alkalies, on different colours; but by combining the acids with alkalies, earths, or metals, theſe effects may be varied almoſt *in infinitum;* neither is there any rule yet laid down by which we can judge *à priori* of the changes of colour that will happen on the admixture of this or that particular ſalt with any colouring ſubſtance. In general, the perfect neutrals act weakly; the imperfect ones, eſpecially thoſe formed from metals, much more powerfully. Alum and ſal ammoniac conſiderably heighten the colour of cochineal, brazil, turmeric, fuſtic, madder, logwood, &c. The ſame thing is done, though in a leſs degree, by common ſalt, Glauber's ſalt, nitre, and many other neutrals. Solutions of iron in all the acids ſtrike a black with every one of the above-mentioned ſubſtances; and likewiſe with ſumach, galls, and other aſtringents. Solutions of lead, or ſaccharum ſaturni, univerſally debaſe red colours to a dull purple. Solution of copper changes the purple colour of logwood to a pretty good blue; and, in general, ſolutions of this metal are friendly to blue colours. The effects of ſolutions of gold, ſilver, and mercury, are not ſo well known; they ſeem to produce dark colours of no great beauty.

14 Solution of tin the moſt powerful.

The moſt powerful ſolution, however, with regard to a great number of colours, is that of tin, made in nitro-muriatic acid. Hence we may ſee the fallacy of Mr Delaval's hypotheſis concerning colours*, that the leaſt refrangible ones are produced by the moſt denſe metals: for tin, which hath the leaſt denſity of any metal, hath yet, in a ſtate of ſolution, the moſt extraordinary effects upon the leaſt refrangible colours as well as thoſe that are moſt ſo. The colour of cochineal is changed by it into the moſt beautiful ſcarlet; a ſimilar change is made upon the colouring matter of gum lac. Brazil-wood is made to yield a fine purpliſh crimſon; logwood, a beautiful dark purple; turmeric, fuſtic, weld, and all yellow-colouring woods and flowers, are made to communicate colours far more beautiful than can be got from them by any other method. The blue colour of the flowers of violets, eye-bright, iris, &c, are heightened ſo as to equal, if not excel, the blue produced by a ſolution of copper in volatile alkali. In ſhort, this ſolution ſeems to be of much more extenſive uſe in colour-making, when properly applied, than any thing hitherto thought of. It is not, however, univerſally ſerviceable. The colour of madder it totally deſtroys, and likewiſe that of ſaf-flower, changing them both to a dull orange. It likewiſe ſpoils the colour of archil; and what is very remarkable, the fine red colour of tincture of roſes made with ſulphuric acid is by ſolution of tin changed to a dirty green.

* See *Chromatics*, N° 8.

15 Directions for the choice of colouring materials.

The moſt important conſideration in colour-making is to make choice of ſuch materials as produce the moſt durable colours; and if theſe can be produced, an ordinary colour from them is to be preferred to a bright one from thoſe which fade ſooner. In what the difference conſiſts between the colours that fade and thoſe which do not, is not known with any degree of certainty. From ſome appearances it would ſeem, that thoſe ſubſtances which are moſt remarkable for keeping their colour, contain a viſcous glutinous matter, ſo combined with a reſinous one as to be ſoluble both in water and alcohol. The moſt durable red colour is prepared from gum-lac. This is very ſtrongly reſinous, though at the ſame time ſo far glutinous, that the colouring matter can be extracted from it by water. Next to gum-lac are madder-roots and cochineal. The madder is an exceedingly penetrating ſubſtance, inſomuch that, when given to animals along with their food, it tinges their bones of a deep red colour. Its colouring matter is ſoluble both in water and alcohol. Along with the pure red, however, there is in madder a kind of viſcous aſtringent ſubſtance, of a dark brown colour, which ſeems to give the durability to the whole. The colouring matter of cochineal, though ſoluble both in water and alcohol, is very tenacious and mucilaginous, in which it bears ſome reſemblance to the *purpura* of the ancients, which kept its colour exceedingly well. Where the colours are fugitive, the tinging ſubſtance ſeems to be too reſinous or too mucilaginous. Thus the colours of brazil, turmeric, &c. are very reſinous, eſpecially the latter, inſomuch that the colouring matter of turmeric can ſcarcely be extracted by water. Both theſe are periſhable, though beautiful colours; and much more are the red, purple, and blue flowers, commonly to be met with. Theſe ſeem to be entirely mucilaginous, without the leaſt quantity of reſinous matter. The yellow flowers are different, and in general keep their colour pretty well. Whether it would be poſſible, by adding occaſionally a proper quantity of gum or reſin, to make the fugitive colours more durable, hath not yet been tried, but ſeems to have ſome probability. What tends a little to confirm this, is a proceſs given by M. Hellot for imparting durability to the colour of brazil. It conſiſts only in letting decoctions of the wood ſtand for ſome time in wooden caſks till they grow ſtale and *ropy*. Pieces of woollen cloth now dyed in the liquor acquired a colour ſo durable, that they were not in the leaſt altered by expoſure to the air during four months in the winter ſeaſon. Whether this change in the durability of the colour was effected by the ropineſs following the fermentation,

16 M. Hellot method of improving the durability of brazil-wood.

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tion, or by ſome other cauſe, or whether the experiment can be at all depended upon, muſt be referred to ſuture obſervation.

17 Preparation of different colours.

Having thus collected all that can as yet be depended upon for eſtabliſhing a general theory of colour-making, we ſhall now proceed to give an account of the different pigments generally to be met with in the colour-ſhops.

18 Lamp-black.

1. *Black.* Theſe are lamp-black, ivory-black, blue-black, and Indian-ink. The firſt is the fineſt of what are called the ſoot-blacks, and is more uſed than any other. Its preparation is deſcribed in the Swediſh Tranſactions for the year 1754, as a proceſs dependent on the making of common reſin: the impure reſinous juice collected from inciſions made in pine and fir trees, is boiled down with a little water, and ſtrained whilſt hot through a bag; the dregs and pieces of bark left in the ſtrainer are burnt in a low oven, from which the ſmoke is conveyed through a long paſſage into a ſquare chamber, having an opening on the top on which is a large ſack made of thin woollen ſtuff: the ſoot, or lamp-black, concretes partly in the chamber, from whence it is ſwept out once in two or three days, and partly in the ſack, which is now and then gently ſtruck upon, both for ſhaking down the ſoot, and for clearing the interſtices betwixt the threads, ſo as to procure a ſufficient draught of air through it. In this manner lamp-black is prepared at the turpentine houſes in England, from the dregs and refuſe of the reſinous matters which are there manufactured.

19 Dr Lewis's obſervations.

On this ſubject Dr Lewis hath ſome curious obſervations. "The ſoot (ſays he) ariſing in common chimneys, from the more oily or reſinous woods, as the fir and pine, is obſerved to contain more diſſoluble matter than that from the other woods; and this diſſoluble matter appears, in the former, to be more of an oily or reſinous nature than in the latter, alcohol extracting it moſt powerfully from the one, and water from the other. The oilineſs and ſolubility of the ſoot ſeeming therefore to depend on thoſe of the ſubject it is made from, it has been thought that lamp-black muſt poſſeſs theſe qualities in a greater degree than any kind of common ſoot. Nevertheleſs, on examining ſeveral parcels of lamp-black, procured from different ſhops, I could not find that it gave any tincture at all, either to alcohol or to water.

Suſpecting ſome miſtake or ſophiſtication, or that the lamp-black had been burnt or charred, as it is to fit it for ſome particular uſes, I prepared myſelf ſome ſoot from linſeed-oil, by hanging a large copper pan over the flame of a lamp to receive its ſmoke. In this manner the more curious artiſts prepare lamp-black for the nicer purpoſes; and from this collection of it from the flame of a lamp, the pigment probably received its name. The ſoot ſo prepared gave no tincture either to water or to alcohol, any more than the common lamp-black of the ſhops. I tried different kinds of oily and reſinous bodies with the ſame reſult; even the ſoots obtained from fiſh oils and tallow did not appear to differ from thoſe of the vegetable oils and reſins. They were all of a finer colour than the lamp-black commonly ſold.

"Some ſoot was collected in like manner from fir and other woods, by burning ſmall pieces of them ſlowly under a copper-pan. All the ſoots were of a deeper black colour than thoſe obtained from the ſame kinds of wood in a common chimney; and very little, if at all, inferior to thoſe of the oils: they gave only a juſt diſcernible tincture to water and alcohol, while the ſoots of the chimney imparted a ſtrong deep one to both. The ſoot of mineral bitumens, in this cloſe way of burning, appears to be of the ſame qualities with thoſe of woods, oil, and reſins: in ſome parts of Germany, great quantities of good lamp-black are prepared from a kind of pit-coal.

"It appears, therefore, that the differences of ſoots do not depend altogether on the qualities of the ſubjects, but in a great meaſure on the manner in which the ſubject is burnt, or the ſoot caught. The ſoots produced in common chimneys, from different kinds of wood, reſinous and not reſinous, dry and green, do not differ near ſo much from one another, as thoſe which are produced from one kind of wood in a common chimney, and in the confined way of burning above mentioned.

20 Ivory-black.

Ivory-black is prepared from ivory or bones burnt in a cloſe veſſel. This, when finely ground, forms a more beautiful and deeper colour than lamp-black; but in the common methods of manufacturing, it is ſo much adulterated with charcoal-duſt, and ſo groſsly levigated, as to be unfit for uſe. An opaque deep black for water-colours, is made by grinding ivory-black with gum water, or with the liquor which ſettles from the whites of eggs after they have been ſuffered to ſtand a little. Some uſe gum water and the whites of eggs together, and report, that a ſmall addition of the latter makes the mixture flow more freely from the pencil, and improves its gloſſineſs. It may be obſerved, however, that though ivory-black makes the deepeſt colour in water as well as in oil painting, yet it is not on this account always to be preferred to other black pigments. A deep jet-black colour is ſeldom wanted in painting; and in the lighter ſhades, whether obtained by diluting the black with white bodies, or by applying it thin on a white ground, the particular beauty of the ivory-black is in a great meaſure loſt.

21 Blue-black.

Blue black is ſaid to be prepared from the burnt ſtalks and tendrils of the vine. Theſe, however, the colour-makers ſeldom give themſelves the trouble of procuring, but ſubſtitute in its place a mixture of ivory-black, and the common blue uſed for clothes.

22 Indian-ink.

Indian-ink is an excellent black for water-colours. It hath been diſcovered by Dr Lewis to conſiſt of a mixture of lamp-black and common glue. Ivory black, or charcoal, he found to anſwer equally well, provided they were levigated to a ſufficient degree of fineneſs, which indeed requires no ſmall trouble.

23 White-colours.

2. *White.* The white colours commonly to be met with are, white-flake, white-lead, calcined hartſhorn, pearl-white, Spaniſh-white, egg-ſhell-white, and nitrate of biſmuth. The flake-white and white-lead are properly the ſame. The preparation of the former is kept a ſecret; the method of preparing the latter is deſcribed under CHEMISTRY, N° 1856. Theſe are the only whites that can be uſed in oil, all the reſt being tranſparent unleſs they are laid on with water. Calcined hartſhorn is the moſt uſeful of the earthy whites, as being the leaſt alkaline. Spaniſh white is only finely

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finely prepared chalk. Pearl-white is made from oyſter-ſhells; and egg-ſhell white from the ſhells of eggs. All theſe, by their attraction for acids, muſt neceſſarily deſtroy ſuch colours as have any acid or metallic ſalt in their compoſition. The nitrate of biſmuth is apt to turn black, as are alſo flake-white and white-lead, when uſed in water. The white precipitate of lead recommended under CHEMISTRY, N° 1856. is greatly ſuperior as a water-colour to all theſe, being perfectly free of any alkaline quality, and not at all apt to loſe its own colour, or to injure that of other ſubſtances. It is a carbonate of lead.

24 Red colours.

3. *Red.* The red colours uſed in painting are of two ſorts, viz. thoſe which incline to the purple, and ſuch as are of a full ſcarlet, and tend rather to the orange. The firſt are carmine, lake, roſe-pink, red-ochre, and Venetian-red. The ſecond are vermilion, red-lead, ſcarlet-ochre, common Indian red, Spaniſh-brown, and terra di Sienna, burnt.

We have already laid down ſome general rules for the preparation of carmine and lake. Particular receipts have been delivered with the greateſt confidence for making theſe fine colours; but all of them muſt neceſſarily prove ineffectual, becauſe an earthy baſis is recommended for ſtriking the colour upon. From the principles of chemiſtry, however, we are certain, that if nitric acid, or ſolution of tin, is made uſe of for brightening a colour made with any earthy baſis, it muſt infallibly be deſtroyed by that baſis, by reaſon of its alkaline quality. Carmine is the brighteſt and moſt beautiful red colour known at preſent; the beſt comes from France. Lake differs from it in being capable of mixture with oil, which carmine is not, unleſs with great difficulty. The former is alſo much more inclined to purple than carmine. This laſt quality, however, is reckoned a defect; and accordingly, the more that lake approaches to the ſcarlet or true crimſon, the more it is valued. On dropping ſolution of tin into an aqueous tincture of brazil wood, a beautiful precipitate falls, of a purpliſh crimſon colour. This may be very well ſubſtituted in place of the dearer lakes on many occaſions.

Roſe-pink is a very beautiful colour, inclining more to the purple than ſcarlet. It ſeems to be made of chalk, coloured with a decoction of brazil-wood, heightened by an alkaline ſalt; for which reaſon it is exceedingly periſhable, and but little eſteemed. The colour might be made much more durable, as well as better, by employing for a baſis the white precipitate of lead abovementioned, and brightening it with ſolution of tin.

Red ochre and Venetian red differ in nothing from the colcothar of vitriol well calcined. The oxides of iron may be made to appear either purpliſh, or inclining to the ſcarlet, according to the manner in which the calcination is performed. If the matter is perfectly deprived of its phlogiſton, and ſubjected to an intenſe fire, it always turns out red; but the mixture of a ſmall quantity of inflammable matter gives it a purpliſh caſt. Hence various paints are kept in the ſhops under different names, which yet differ from each other only in the ſlight circumſtances above mentioned; and ſuch are the ſcarlet-ochre, Spaniſh brown, and terra di Sienna burnt. It is remarkable, that the oxides of iron never ſhow their colour till they become cold. Colcothar of vitriol, while hot, always appears of a very dark duſky purple.

Of the preparation of vermilion and red-lead, an account is given under the article CHEMISTRY, N° 1701. 1832. Theſe are very durable colours: the firſt is the beſt red uſed in oil painting, but does not anſwer well in water; the other is rather an orange; and, like other preparations of lead, is in ſome caſes apt to turn black.

25 Orange colours.

4. *Orange.* The only true orange-coloured paints are red orpiment and orange lake. The firſt is a ſublimate formed of arſenic and ſulphur; the other may be prepared from turmeric infuſed in alcohol having its colour ſtruck upon oxide of tin, and brightened by a ſolution of that metal. All the ſhades of orange, however, may be extemporaneouſly prepared by mixing red and yellow colours together, in due proportions.

26 Yellow colours.

5. *Yellow.* The yellow paints moſt commonly in uſe are, king's-yellow, Naples-yellow, Dutch-pink, Engliſh-pink, maſticot, common orpiment, yellow-ochre, terra di Sienna unburnt, and turpith mineral.

King's-yellow is evidently an arſenical preparation. Its colour is exceedingly beautiful, but apt to fade; on which account, and its great price, it is ſeldom uſed.

Naples-yellow was for a long time thought to be a preparation of arſenic, but is now diſcovered to have lead for its baſis. It is therefore apt to turn black and loſe its colour, which makes it the leſs valuable. It is nevertheleſs uſed in preference to king's-yellow, on account of its inferiority in price. This colour is particularly liable to be ſpoiled by iron when moiſt, and therefore ſhould never be touched by that metal unleſs previouſly ground in oil.

Dutch-pink is ſaid to be prepared by ſtriking the colour of yellow berries upon finely levigated chalk. But of this there is great reaſon to doubt; the baſis of Dutch-pink ſeems much more hard and gritty than chalk, and its colour more durable than thoſe ſtruck upon that earth uſually are. Very good yellows may be prepared with the white precipitate of lead, formerly mentioned, by uſing either yellow berries, fuſtic, or any other ſubſtance capable of yielding that colour. Engliſh pink is paler than the Dutch, and keeps its colour greatly worſe.

Maſticot is prepared by calcining white-lead till it aſſumes a yellowiſh colour. It is not apt to change, but the colour is ſo dull that it is ſeldom uſed either in oil or water.

Common orpiment is a pretty bright greeniſh yellow, prepared by ſubliming arſenic with ſulphur. Its nauſeous ſmell, which is greatly increaſed by grinding in oil, makes it very diſagreeable; nor does it keep its colour for any length of time. That kind of orpiment leaſt inclined to green is to be preferred for the purpoſes of painting.

Yellow-ochre and terra di Sienna are ferruginous earths, capable of becoming red by calcination. Green vitriol precipitated by lime may be advantageouſly ſubſtituted for either of them. See CHEMISTRY.

Turpith mineral is but little uſed in painting, though its fine yellow colour ſeems greatly to recommend it. This preparation is in all probability very durable; and

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and ſhould ſeem therefore worthy of a preference either to king's or Naples yellow. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

Gamboge is a paint that can only be uſed in water, and is the moſt common yellow made uſe of for colouring maps, &c.; but for this it is not very proper, being neither quite tranſparent, nor very durable.

27 Green colours.

6. *Green*. The only ſimple green colour that hath a tolerable degree of brightneſs is verdigris, or preparations of it. This, however, though a very beautiful colour, is far from being durable. It is improved in colour, though not in durability, by diſſolution and cryſtallization in diſtilled vinegar, in which ſtate it is called *diſtilled verdigris*. A more durable water colour is made by diſſolving the verdigris in cream of tartar, or rather the pure tartaric acid; but in oil this is found to be equally fugitive with the verdigris itſelf. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

Compound greens are either made of Pruſſian or ſome other blue, mixed with yellow; but in whatever way theſe colours can be compounded, the beauty of the green produced is greatly inferior to diſtilled, or even common verdigris. The tartaric ſolution of verdigris, mixed with a little gamboge, is the beſt tranſparent green water-colour we have had an opportunity of trying; and a mixture of Pruſſian blue and turpith-mineral is probably the beſt opaque one.

Sap-green is a ſimple colour, but exceedingly inferior to diſtilled verdigris, or even to the tartaric ſolution of verdigris with gamboge. It is prepared from the juice of unripe buckthorn berries evaporated to the conſiſtence of a gum. Its green colour is greatly inclined to yellow. A kind of compound green has been ſometimes uſed, called *Pruſſian green*, which conſiſts only of Pruſſian blue and yellow ochre. It has no beauty, nor is it durable. It is prepared as Pruſſian blue, only not pouring on any muriatic acid to diſſolve the ochreous ſediment which falls at the ſame time.

Another green ſometimes uſed is called *terre verte*. This is a native earth, probably impregnated with copper. It is of a bluiſh-green colour, much of that tint called *ſea-green*. It is gritty, and therefore muſt be well levigated before it is uſed. Its colour is durable, but not very bright.

28 Blue colours.

7. *Blue*. The blue colours are ultramarine, Pruſſian blue, verditer, ſmalt, bice, and indigo. Of theſe the ultramarine is the fineſt, but its great price hinders it being much uſed. It is a preparation from lapis lazuli; is an exceeding bright colour, and never fades with whatever ſubſtance it is mixed. It is now, however, in a great meaſure ſuperſeded by Pruſſian blue, to the diſadvantage of painting in general; as Pruſſian blue, though very beautiful, is far from being durable. For an account of its preparations ſee the article ULTRAMARINE.

The proceſs for making Pruſſian blue is deſcribed, and its nature fully conſidered, under CHEMISTRY, N° 774; ſo that it is ſufficient here to obſerve, that Pruſſian blue is to be accounted of the beſt quality when it is deep, bright, and not inclined to purple. It ought to be tried by mixture with white lead, as the brightneſs of the colour will appear much more when diluted than when concentrated in the lumps of the blue itſelf.

The preparation of blue verditer is kept a ſecret, and the beſt chemiſts have been puzzled to find out the method. The colour is exceedingly bright, and has a conſiderable tinge of green. A method of preparing a colour equally beautiful, and agreeing in all reſpects with what is ſold in the ſhops, except that of effervescing with acids, we have found to be as follows: Diſſolve copper in ſtrong cauſtic alkali, until the liquid has aſſumed a very deep blue colour; and the deeper this colour is, the finer will your verditer be. When the menſtruum has diſſolved as much of the metal as it can take up, it is to be poured out into a broad and well glazed earthen pan, held over a very gentle fire; and from the moment it is put on, the liquor is to be continually agitated with a wooden ſpatula, ſo that the liquor may be heated as equally as poſſible. The whole ſecret conſiſts in properly regulating the degree of heat; for if it exceeds the due proportion ever ſo little, the verditer will turn out of a dirty green. The proper degree is about 90° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. In this gentle heat the alkali ſlowly evaporates; and in proportion to its doing ſo the verditer falls to the bottom. After it is once formed, freed from the alkaline liquor, and dried, it can bear the effuſion of boiling water without the leaſt injury. Dr Prieſtley, in his ſixth volume, takes notice, that a ſolution of copper in volatile alkali affords a blue precipitate by heat, but without taking notice of the requiſites for its ſucceſs. In making this preparation it is neceſſary to diſſolve copper in its metallic ſtate; for the ſolution of any oxide will not yield a blue but a green colour. This colour is durable in water, but diſſolves in oil, and has then all the inconveniences of verdigris above mentioned.

Smalt is glaſs coloured with zaffre, a preparation from cobalt *. It is commonly ſo groſsly powdered that it cannot be uſed in painting, and its texture is ſo hard that it cannot eaſily be levigated. Its colour is exceedingly bright and durable; ſo that when finely levigated it is uſed inſtead of ultramarine. The moſt proper materials for levigating this ſubſtance ſeem to be the plates of M. Reaumur's porcelain recommended by Dr Lewis. See CHEMISTRY *Index*. For the preparation and qualities of bice, ſee the articles *ARMENUS Lapis* and BICE.

* See *Zaffre* and *Smalt*.

Indigo is but little uſed in painting either in oil or water, on account of the dulneſs of the colour. It requires no other preparation than being waſhed over. Its goodneſs is known by the darkneſs and brightneſs of the colour. See INDIGO.

29 Purple colours.

8. *Purple*. The only ſimple colour of this kind uſed at preſent is colcothar of vitriol. A beautiful purple lake may be prepared from logwood by means of ſolution of tin; but this method of preparing colours is very little known as yet.

30 Brown colours.

9. *Brown*. The brown colours are, biſtre, brown-ochre, Cologne-earth, umber, and brown-pink. Under the article BISTRE is given a proceſs for making that colour, by infuſing ſoot in water, pouring off the tincture, and then evaporating it to an extract; but Dr Lewis is of opinion, with M. Landois in the French *Encyclopédie*, that the ſoot is either boiled in water, or ground with a little liquid of ſome kind into a ſmooth paſte; it is then diluted with more water, and after ſtanding for about half an hour till the groſſer ſubſtance of the ſoot has ſettled, the liquor is poured off into

31 Dr Lewis's opinion concerning biſtre.

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into another veſſel, and ſet by for two or three days, that the finer parts may fall to the bottom, and this fine matter is the biſtre. This is a very uſeful colour in water, being exceedingly fine, durable, and not apt to ſpoil any other colours with which it is mixed. The brown pink is ſaid to conſiſt of chalk tinged with the colouring matter of fuſtic, heightened by fixed alkaline ſalts. It is therefore very periſhable, and is ſeldom uſed. The other browns are a kind of ochreous earths; for a deſcription of which ſee their proper articles.

32 Attempts to make lake of all colours.

Having now conſidered moſt of the colouring ſubſtances uſually to be met with in the ſhops, we ſhall next take notice of ſome attempts that have been made to produce all the different colours from vegetables, after the manner of lakes; which, though the methods hitherto tried have for the moſt part failed of ſucceſs, may perhaps ſome time or other be found applicable to valuable purpoſes.

33 Black from aſtringents. * See *Dyeing*.

From infuſions of aſtringent vegetables mixed with green vitriol, is produced a deep black liquor of very extenſive uſe in dyeing*. The ſubſtances which produce the deepeſt blacks are galls and logwood. When a decoction or infuſion of the galls is dropped into a ſolution of the vitriol largely diluted with water, the firſt drops produce bluiſh or purpliſh red clouds, which ſoon mingling with the liquor, turn it uniformly of their own colour. It ſeems to be on the quality of the water that this difference in the colour depends. With diſtilled water, or the common ſpring waters, the mixture is always blue. If we previouſly diſſolve in the water the moſt minute quantity of any alkaline ſalt, too ſmall to be diſcovered by any of the common means by which waters are uſually tried, or if the water is in the leaſt putrid, the colour of the mixture proves purple or reddiſh. Rain-water, caught as it falls from the clouds in an open field in clean glaſs-veſſels, gives a blue; but ſuch as is collected from the tops of the houſes, grows purple with the mixture of vitriol and galls: from whence it may be preſumed, that this laſt has contracted a putrid tendency, or received an alkaline impregnation, though ſo ſlight as not to be ſenſible on other ways of trial.

Both the purple and blue liquors, on adding more of the aſtringent infuſion, deepen to a black, more or leſs intenſe according to the nature of dilution: if the mixture proves of a deep opaque blackneſs, it again becomes bluiſh or purpliſh when further diluted. If ſuffered to ſtand in this diluted ſtate for two or three days, the colouring matter ſettles to the bottom in form of a fine black mud, which by ſlightly ſhaking the veſſel is diffuſed again through the liquor, and tinges it of its former colour. When the mixture is of a full blackneſs, this ſeparation does not happen, or in a far leſs degree; for though a part of the black matter precipitates in ſtanding, yet ſo much remains diſſolved, that the liquor continues black. This ſuſpenſion of the colouring ſubſtance, in the black liquid, may be attributed in part to the gummy matter of the aſtringent infuſion increaſing the conſiſtence of the watery fluid; for the ſeparation is retarded in the diluted mixture by a ſmall addition of gum arabic. If the mixture either in its black or diluted ſtate is poured into a filter, the liquor paſſes through coloured; only a part of the black matter remaining on the filter. The filtered liquor on ſtanding for ſome time becomes turbid and full of fine black flakes: being freed from theſe by a ſecond filtration, it again puts on the ſame appearance: and thus repeatedly till all the colouring parts are ſeparated, and the liquor has become colourleſs.

Dr Lewis, from whoſe Philoſophical Commerce of Arts this account is taken, further informs us, that this colouring matter, when ſeparated from the liquor and dried, appeared of a deep black, which did not ſeem to have ſuffered any change from the air by expoſure for upwards of four months. Made red hot, it glowed and burnt, but did not flame, and became a ruſty brown powder, which was readily attracted by a magnetic bar; though in its black ſtate the magnet had no action upon it. Sulphuric acid, diluted with water and digeſted on the black powder, diſſolved the greateſt part of it, leaving only a very ſmall quantity of whitiſh matter. Solution of pure fixed alkaline ſalt diſſolved very little of it: the liquor received a reddiſh brown colour, and the powder became blackiſh brown. This reſiduum was attracted by the magnet after being red hot, though not before: the alkaline tincture, paſſed through a filter, and mixed with a ſolution of green vitriol, ſtruck a deep browniſh black colour, nearly the ſame with that which reſults from mixing with the vitriolic ſolution an alkaline tincture of galls.

34 Black from a combination of other colours.

It hath alſo been attempted to produce black from a combination of other colours; as green may be produced from a mixture of blue and yellow. M. le Blon, in his Harmony of Colours, gives a method of forming black, by mixing together the three colours called *primitive*, viz. blue, red, and yellow; and M. Caſtel, in his *Optique des Couleurs*, publiſhed in 1740, ſays that this compound black has an advantage in painting, above the ſimple ones, of anſwering better for the darkening of other colours. Thus, if blue, by the addition of black, is to be darkened into the colour called *blue-black*, the ſimple blacks, according to him, if uſed in ſufficient quantity to produce the requiſite deepneſs, conceal the blue, while the compound blacks leave it diſtinguiſhable. Le Blon does not mention the proportion of the three colours neceſſary for producing black. Caſtel directs 15 parts of blue, five of red, and three of yellow; but takes notice that theſe proportions are rather ſpeculatively than practically juſt, and that the eye only can be the true judge; our colours all being very imperfect, and our pigments or other bodies of one denomination of colour being very unequal in their degree of intenſity. He obſerves, that the pigments ſhould all be of the deepeſt and darkeſt kind; and that inſtead of taking one pigment for each colour, it is better to take as many as can be got; for the greater diſcord there is of heterogeneous and diſcordant drugs, the more true and beautiful, he ſays, will the black be, and the more capable of uniting with all other colours, without ſuppreſſing them, and even without making them tawny.

Dr Lewis acquaints us, that by mixing different blue, red, and yellow colours, he has not been able to produce a perfect black; but has often obtained from them very dark colours, ſuch as may be called *brown-blacks*, or *gray-blacks*; ſuch as we commonly ſee in the dark

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dark parts of paintings, and ſuch as the charcoal and ſoot blacks appear when diluted a little. The ingredients being each of a dark deep colour is a very neceſſary condition; for bright blues, bright reds, and bright yellows, mixed in ſuch proportions that neither colour prevailed, produced only a gray. In effect, all compoſitions of this kind, phyſically conſidered, can be no other than grays, or ſome of the intermediate tints between whiteneſs and darkneſs; and theſe grays will be ſo much the lighter or darker as the component colours of themſelves are bright or dark.

With regard to the extraction of the colouring matter from the different kinds of vegetables commonly to be met with of all colours, this would certainly be a very valuable acquiſition, could the colours ſo procured be made durable. On this ſubject nothing hath yet appeared more ſatisfactory than what is delivered by Dr Lewis in his notes on Neumann's chemiſtry. His obſervations are curious, but promiſe very little ſucceſs to any who ſhall attempt to fix theſe vegetable colours.

35 Dr Lewis's experiments on vegetable colours.

"Among the infinite variety of colours (ſays he), which glow in the flowers of plants, there are very few which have any durability, or whoſe fugitive beauty can be arreſted by art, ſo as to be applied to any valuable purpoſes. The only permanent ones are the yellow, the red, the blue; and all the intermediate ſhades of purple, crimſon, violet, &c. are extremely periſhable. Many of theſe flowers loſe their colours on being barely dried; eſpecially if they are dried ſlowly, as has been uſually directed, in a ſhady, and not warm place. The colours of all of them periſh on keeping even in the cloſeſt veſſels. The more haſtily they are dried, and the more perfectly they are ſecured from the air, the longer they retain their beauty. The colouring matter extracted and applied on other bodies is ſtill more periſhable: oftentimes it is changed or deſtroyed in the hands of the operator.

"The colour of many blue flowers is extracted by infuſion in water; but there are ſome from which water gains only reddiſh or purpliſh blue. Of thoſe that have been tried there is not one which gives any blue tincture to ſpirituous liquors: ſome give no colour at all, and ſome a reddiſh one. The juice preſſed out from the freſh flowers is for the moſt part blue. The blue juices and infuſions are changed red by all acids. The muriatic acid ſeems to ſtrike the moſt florid red. The flowers themſelves, macerated in acid liquors, impart alſo a deep red tincture. Alkalies, both fixed and volatile, and lime-water, change them to a green. Thoſe infuſions of the juices which have nothing of the native colour of the flowers, ſuffer the ſame changes from the addition of acid and alkaline liquors: even when the flowers have been kept till their colour is loſt, infuſions made from them acquire ſtill a red colour from the one, and a green from the other, though in a leſs degree than when the flowers were freſh. The red colour produced by acids is ſcarcely more durable than the original blue: applied upon other bodies and expoſed to the air, it gradually degenerates into a faintiſh purple, and at length diſappears, leaving hardly any ſtain behind. The green produced by alkalies changes to a yellow, which does not fade ſo ſoon. The green, by lime-water, is more permanent and more beautiful; green lakes, prepared from theſe flowers by lime-water, have been uſed as pigments by the painter. The flowers of cyanus have been greatly recommended, as affording elegant and durable blue pigments; but I have never been able to extract from them any blue colour at all. They retain their colour indeed, when haſtily dried, longer than ſome other blue flowers; but they communicate nothing of it to any kind of menſtruum. Infuſions of them in watery, ſpirituous, and oily liquors, are all of them more or leſs of a reddiſh caſt, without any tendency to blue. Alum, which is ſaid to heighten and preſerve their blue colour, changes it, like that of other blue flowers, to a purpliſh red; acids to a deep red; alkalies and lime-water to a green: ſolution of tin added to the watery infuſion, turns it to a fine crimſon; on ſtanding, a beautiful red fæcula ſubſides, but it loſes all its colour as ſoon as it is dry. The watery infuſion, inſpiſſated to the conſiſtence of an extract, appears of a dark reddiſh brown: an extract made with rectified ſpirit is of a purpliſh colour. The colour of both extracts ſpread thin, and expoſed to the air, quickly fades. The flowers employed in theſe experiments were thoſe of the common blue-bottle of the cornfields.

"Red flowers readily communicate their own red colour to watery menſtrua; among thoſe that have been tried, there is not one exception. Thoſe of a full red colour give to rectified ſpirit alſo a deep red tincture, brighter, though ſomewhat paler, than the watery infuſion: but the lighter red flowers, and thoſe which have a tendency to purpliſh, impart very little colour to ſpirit, and ſeem to partake more of the nature of the blue flowers than of the pure red. Infuſions of red flowers are ſuppoſed to be heightened by acids, and turn green by alkalies, like thoſe of the blue; but this is far from being univerſal. Among theſe I have examined, the roſe-colours and purpliſh reds were changed nearly in the ſame manner as the blues; but the full deep reds were not. The deep infuſion of red poppies is changed by alkalies, not to a green, but to duſky purple.

"The colours of yellow flowers, whether pale or deep, are in general durable. Many of them are as much ſo, perhaps, as any of the native colours of vegetables. The colour is extracted both by water and by ſpirit. The watery infuſions are the deepeſt. Neither alkalies nor acids alter the ſpecies of the colour; though both of them vary its ſhade; acids rendering it paler, and alkalies deeper; alum likewiſe conſiderably heightens it, though not ſo much as alkalies. An infuſion of the flowers, made in alkaline ley, precipitated by alum, gives a durable yellow lake. In ſome of the deep reddiſh yellow, or orange-coloured flowers, the yellow matter ſeems to be of the ſame kind with that of the pure yellow flowered, but the red to be of a different kind from the pure red ones; watery menſtrua take up only the yellow, and leave the red, which may afterwards be extracted by alcohol, or by water acuated by fixed alkaline ſalt. Such particularly are the ſaffron-coloured flowers of carthamus. Theſe, after the yellow matter has been extracted by water, are ſaid to give a red tincture to ley; from which, on ſtanding at reſt for ſome time, a deep bright red fæcula ſubſides; called from one of the

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names of the plant which produces it, *safflower*; and from the countries whence it is commonly brought to us, *Spanish-red*, and *China-lake*. This pigment impregnates alcohol with a beautiful red tincture, but communicates no colour to water. I have endeavoured to separate, by the same treatment, the red matter of some of the other reddish yellow flowers, as those of garden marigold, but without success. Plain water extracted a yellow colour, and alkaline ley extracted afterwards only a paler yellow: though the digestions were continued till the flowers had lost their colour, the tinctures were no other than yellow, and not so deep as those obtained from the pure yellow flowers. The little yellow flocculi, which in some kinds of flowers are collected into a compact round disc, as in the daisy and corn marigold, agree, so far as they have been examined, with the expanded yellow petala. Their colour is affected in the same manner by acids, by alkalies, and by alum; and equally extracted by water and by spirit, But the yellow farina, or fine dust, lodged on the tips of the stamina of flowers, appears to be of a different kind. It gives a fine bright yellow to spirit, and a duller yellow to water; the undissolved part proving in both cases of a pale yellowish white. Both the watery and spirituous tinctures were heightened by alkaline liquors, turned red by acids, and again to a deep yellow on adding more of the alkali: I know no other vegetable yellow that is turned red by acids.

"White flowers are by no means destitute of colouring matter. Alkaline lixivia extract from some of them a green tincture, and change their colourless expressed juices to the same colour; but I have not observed that they are turned red by acids. The flowers of the common wild convolvulus or bind-weed, which in all their parts are white, give a deep yellow or orange tincture to plain water; which, like the tinctures of flowers that are naturally of that colour, is rendered paler by acids, heightened a little by alum, and more considerably by alkaline salts. The vapours of the volatile sulphuric acid, or of burning sulphur, which whiten or destroy the colour of the coloured flowers, make no change in the white.

36 Colours from fruits.

"The red juices of fruits, as currants, mulberries, elder-berries, morello, black cherries, &c. gently inspissated to dryness, dissolve again almost totally in water, and appear nearly of the same red colour as at first. Rectified spirit extracts the tinging particles, leaving a considerable portion of mucilaginous matter undissolved; and hence the spirituous tincture proves of a brighter colour than the watery. The red solutions, and the juices themselves, are sometimes made dull, and sometimes more florid by acids, and generally turned purplish by alkalies. The colours of these juices are for the most part perishable. They resist, indeed, the power of fermentation, and continue almost unchanged, after the liquor has been converted into wine; but when the juice is spread thin upon other bodies, exsiccated, and exposed to the air, the colour quickly alters and decays; the bright lively red changes the soonest: the dark dull red stain from the juice of the black cherry, is of considerable durability. The fruit of the American opuntia or prickly pear, the plant upon which the cochineal insect is produced, is perhaps an exception: This bright red fruit, according to Labat, gives a beautiful red dye. Some experiments, however, made upon the juice of that fruit, as brought into England, did not promise to be of any great advantage; but the particulars I cannot now recollect.

"The ripe berries of buckthorn stain paper of a green colour. From these is prepared the substance called *sap-green*, a pigment sufficiently durable, readily soluble in water, but not miscible with oil. The berries dried while green, and macerated in alum-water, are said to yield a yellow pigment; and when they have grown over ripe so as to fall off spontaneously, a purple one. It is said that the berry of the heliotropum tricoccum, which grows wild about Montpelier, stains paper of a green colour, and that this green turns presently to a blue: that the common blue paper receives its colour from this juice: and that the red rags called *turnsol*, employed for colouring wines and other liquors, are tinctured by the same juice turned red by acids. According to M. Nissole of the French academy of sciences (as quoted by Savary in his Dictionnaire de Commerce), the following juice is obtained, not from the berries, but from tops of the plant gathered in August, ground in mills, and then committed to the press. The juice is exposed to the sun about an hour, the rags dipt in it, dried in the sun, moistened by the vapour which arises during the slacking of quicklime with urine, then dried again in the sun, and dipped again in the juice. The Dutch and others are said to prepare turnsol rags, and turnsol in the mass, from different ingredients, among which archil is a principal one.

"In some plants, peony for instance, the seeds at a certain point of maturity are covered with a fine shining red membrane. The pellicles of the seeds of a certain American tree afford the red masses brought into Europe under the names of *annotto*, *orlean*, and *raucou**. Mr Pott, in the Berlin Memoirs for the year 1752, mentions a very extraordinary property of this concrete. 'With sulphuric acid it produces a blue colour, of extreme beauty; but with this capital defect, that all salts and liquors, and even common water, destroy it.' The specimen of annotto, which I examined, was not sensibly acted upon by sulphuric acid; it received no change in its own colour, and communicated none to the liquor. Nor did any visible changes ensue upon dropping the acid into tincture of annotto made in water, or in spirit.

* See *Annotto*.

37 Colours from leaves.

"The green colour of the leaves of plants is extracted by rectified spirit of wine and by oils. The spirituous tinctures are generally of a fine deep green, even when the leaves themselves are dull-coloured, or yellowish, or hoary. The colour, however, seldom continues long even in the liquor; much less when the tinging matter is separated in a solid form, and exposed with a large surface to the air. The editor of the Wirtemberg Pharmacopœia observes, that the leaves of acanthus, brankursine, or bear's-breach, give a more durable green tincture to spirit than those of any other herb. Alkalies heighten the colour both of the tinctures and green juices; acids weaken, destroy, or change it to a brownish: lime water improves both the colour and durability: by means of lime, not inelegant green lakes are procurable from the leaves of acanthus, lily of the valley, and several other plants. There

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There are very few herbs which communicate any ſhare of their green colour to water; perhaps none that give a green of any conſiderable deepneſs. It is ſaid, however, that the leaves of ſome plants give a green dye to woollen, without the addition of any other colouring matter; particularly thoſe of the wild cervil, or cow-weed, the common ragwort, and devil's-bit. The leaves of many kinds of herbs and trees give a yellow dye to wool or woollen cloth that has been previouſly boiled with a ſolution of alum and tartar. Weld, in particular, affords a fine yellow, and is commonly made uſe of for this purpoſe by the dyers, and cultivated in large quantity in ſome parts of England. There is no colour for which we have ſuch plenty of materials as for yellow. M. Hellot obſerves that all leaves, barks, and roots, which on being chewed diſcover a ſlight aſtringency, as the leaves of the almond, peach, and pear trees, aſh bark, (eſpecially that taken off after the firſt riſing of the ſap in the ſpring), the roots of wild patience, &c. yield durable yellows, more or leſs beautiful according to the length of time that the boiling is continued, and the proportions of alum and tartar in the preparatory liquor: that a large quantity of alum makes theſe yellows approach to the elegant yellow of weld: that if the tartar is made to prevail, it inclines them to an orange; that if the roots, barks, or leaves be too long boiled, the yellow proves tarniſhed, and acquires ſhades of brown." See the article DYEING.

The moſt capital preparations from the leaves of plants are thoſe of indigo, and weld; which are both very much uſed in dyeing, though the firſt only in painting *. Both the indigo and woad plants, give out their colour, by proper management, to water, in form of a blue fæcula or lake. M. Hellot ſuſpects that a like blue fæcula is procurable from many other vegetables. Blue and yellow blended together, compoſe a green. He ſuppoſes the natural greens in vegetables to be compounded in like manner of theſe two colours; and that the blue is oftentimes the moſt permanent, ſo as to remain entire after the putrefaction or deſtruction of the yellow. The theory is ſpecious, and perhaps juſt: we know of no other that accounts in any degree for the production of the indigo and woad blue. Dr Lewis, however, informs us, that he never was able to produce the leaſt appearance of either blue or yellow from any of the plants he tried by treating them in the manner uſed for the preparation of indigo.

*See *Indigo* and *Woad*.

38 Production of indigo accounted for.

39 Colours from moſſes.

There are ſundry moſſes, which in their natural ſtate, like the indigo and woad plants, promiſe nothing of the elegant colours that can be extracted from them by art. The moſt remarkable of theſe is archil; for the preparation of which, and the colours that may be produced from it, ſee the article. Linnæus ſuſpects that there are ſeveral other more common moſſes from which valuable colours might be extracted: a quantity of ſea-moſs, having rotted in heaps on the ſhore, he obſerved the liquor in the heaps to be as red as blood; the ſea water, the ſun, and the putrefaction, having brought out the colour. Mr Kalm, in an appendix to Linnæus's paper, in 1745, mentions two ſorts of moſſes actually employed in Sweden for dyeing woollen red: one is the lichenoides coralliforme apicibus coccineis of Ray's Synopſis; the other the lichenoides tartareum, farinaceum, ſcutellarum umbone fuſco, of Dillenius. This laſt is a white ſubſtance like meal clotted together, found on the ſides and tops of hills. It is ſhaved off from the rocks after rain, purified from the ſtony matters intermixed with it by waſhing with water, then dried in the ſun, ground in mills, and again waſhed and dried: it is then put into a veſſel with urine, and ſet by for a month: a little of this tincture added to boiling water makes the dyeing colour. In the ſame Tranſactions for the year 1754, there is an account of another moſs which, prepared with urine, gives a beautiful and durable red or violet dye to wool and ſilk. This is the lichen foliaceus umbilicatus ſubtus lacunenſis, Linn. flor. Suec. It grows upon rocks, and is readily diſtinguiſhable from others of that claſs, by looking as if burnt or parched, conſiſting of leaves as thin as paper, convex all over on the upper ſide, with correſponding cavities underneath, adhering firmly to the ſtones by a little root under the leaves, and coming aſunder, when dry, as ſoon as touched. It is gathered after rain, as it then holds beſt together, and parts eaſieſt from the ſtone. In France, a cruſtaceous moſs, growing upon rocks in Auvergne, is prepared with lime and urine, and employed by the dyers as a ſuccedaneum for the Canary archil, to which it is ſaid to be very little inferior. M. Hellot relates, that he has met with ſeveral other moſſes, which on being prepared in the ſame manner, acquire the ſame colour. The moſt expeditious way, he ſays, of trying whether a moſs will yield an archil or not, is to moiſten a little of it with a mixture of equal parts of ſpirit of ſal ammoniac and ſtrong lime water, and add a ſmall proportion of crude ſal ammoniac. The glaſs is then to be tied over with a piece of bladder, and ſet by for three or four days. If the moſs is of the proper kind, the little liquor which runs from it upon inclining the veſſel, will appear of a deep crimſon colour; and this afterwards evaporating, the plant itſelf acquires the ſame colour. Dr Lewis informs us, that he has tried a good number of the common moſſes, many both of the cruſtaceous and foliaceous kind, and not a few of the fungi; as alſo the herbs chamomile and milfoil, which yield a blue eſſential oil; and thyme, whoſe oil becomes blue by digeſtion with volatile ſpirits; but never met with any that yielded a colour like archil. Moſt of them gave a yellow or reddiſh brown tincture. A few gave a deep red colour to the liquor: but when diluted, it ſhowed a yellowiſh caſt, and when applied on cloth it gave only a yellowiſh red.

40 Some blue flowers may probably yield permanent colours.

To theſe obſervations we ſhall only add, that though in general the blue colours of flowers are exceedingly periſhable, there ſeem to be at leaſt two exceptions to this rule; for the blue flowers of iris, or flower-de-luce, and thoſe of columbine, when treated with ſolution of tin, yielded a colour tolerably permanent. Indeed when experiments are made with a view to extract the colour from any part of a vegetable, it will always be proper to try whether it can bear a mixture with this ſolution. If the colour is not deſtroyed by it, there is a very great probability that the ſolution will, by proper management, preſerve, and give a durability to it, which could ſcarce be obtained by

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by any other method. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that there are ſeveral ſubſtances uſed in colour-making, which ſolution of tin cannot bear to be mixed with. Theſe are principally ſugar of lead and cream of tartar, as well as all the calcareous earths and alkaline ſalts. With alum it may be mixed very ſafely, and is in many caſes the better for it. The roots of plants, however, ſeem to promiſe more durability of colour than the upper parts. We have ſeen a blue colour of conſiderable durability and brightneſs prepared from the roots of common radiſhes by expreſſing the juice, combining it with tobacco-pipe clay, and brightening it with a little alum. The root of the red beet is alſo ſaid to yield a durable colour of a beautiful red, inclining to ſcarlet; but this we cannot affirm from our own experience.

41 Colours from roots.

42 Colours for maps.

With regard to liquid colours for maps, &c. we apprehend there can be very little difficulty in preparing all the poſſible varieties of them, if what we have above laid down is attended to. The only colour with which there can be any difficulty is *blue;* but the common ſolution of indigo in alkalies or acids may be made to anſwer this purpoſe, though, on account of their ſtrongly ſaline quality, they are not very proper. A very curious method of procuring a beautiful tranſparent blue colour is by extracting the colouring matter from Pruſſian blue, by means of a cauſtic alkali. This, when laid upon paper, appears of a dirty brown colour; but if waſhed over with a weak ſolution of green vitriol, is inſtantly changed to a moſt beautiful blue. This ſeems to afford a method of procuring blue tranſparent colours of greater beauty than they are uſually met with.—See ſpecimens of tranſparent colours prepared according to the above rules, on the *Chart* ſubjoined to HISTORY.

COLOURING, among painters, the manner of applying and conducting the colour of a picture; or the mixtures of light and ſhade, formed by the various colours employed in painting. See PAINTING.

COLOURING of Glaſs. See GLASS.

COLOURING of Porcelain. See PORCELAIN.

COLT, in *Zoology*, a general name for the young of the horſe kind: the male being likewiſe, for diſtinction's ſake, called a *horſe-colt;* the female, a *filly.*

Sportſman's Dictionary.

After the colts have been foaled, you may ſuffer them to run with the mare till about Michaelmas, ſooner or later, according as the cold weather comes in; then they muſt be weaned; though ſome perſons are for having them weaned after Martinmas, or the middle of November. The author of the *Complete Horſeman* is of opinion, that the reaſon why moſt foals advance ſo ſlowly, and are not capable of ſervice till they are ſix or ſeven years old, is becauſe they have not ſuckled long enough; whereas, if they had ſucked the whole winter over, they would be as good at four or five years old as they are now at eight.

They ought now to be kept in a convenient houſe, with a low rack and manger for their hay and oats, which muſt be ſweet and good; with a little wheaten bran mixed with the oats to cauſe them to drink, and to keep their bodies open. But, ſince there are ſome who allege, that oats make foals become blind, or their teeth crooked; the ſame author is of opinion, that oats will wear their teeth, and make them the ſooner to change, and alſo to raze; therefore he judges it to be the beſt way to break them in a mill, becauſe, that by endeavouring with their jaws to bruiſe and chew them, they ſtretch and ſwell their eye and nether-jaw veins, which ſo attract the blood and humours that they fall down upon the eyes, and frequently occaſion the loſs of them; ſo that it is not the heating quality of the oats, but the difficulty in chewing, that is the cauſe of their blindneſs.

Further, colts thus fed with grain do not grow thickiſh upon their legs, but grow broader and better knit than if they had eaten nothing but hay and bran, and will endure fatigue the better. But above all they muſt be kept from wet and cold, which are hurtful to them, nothing being more tender than they are. For proof of this, take a Spaniſh ſtallion, and let him cover two mares, which for age, beauty, and comelineſs may admit of no difference between them; and if they produce both horſe-colts, or both fillies, which is one and the ſame thing, let one run abroad, and the other be houſed every winter, kept warm, and ordinarily attended; and that colt which has been kept abroad ſhall have large fleſhy ſhoulders, flabby and gouty legs, weak paſterns, and ill hoofs; and ſhall be a dull heavy jade, in compariſon to the other which is houſed, and orderly kept; and which will have a fine forehead, be fine ſhaped, and have good legs and hoofs, and be of good ſtrength and ſpirit; by which you may know, that to have the fineſt ſtallion, and the moſt beautiful mare, is nothing, if they are ſpoiled in the breeding up. It is worth obſervation, that ſome foals, under ſix months old, though their dams yield plenty of milk, yet decay daily, and have a cough, proceeding from certain pellicles or ſkins that breed in their ſtomachs, which obſtruct their breathing, and at laſt deſtroy them entirely. To remedy this malady, take the bag wherein the colt was foaled, dry it, and give him as much of it in milk as you can take up with three fingers; but if you have not preſerved the bag, procure the lungs of a young fox, and uſe it inſtead of the aforeſaid powder.

It will be proper to let the colts play an hour or two in ſome court-yard, &c. when it is fair weather, provided you put them up again carefully, and ſee that they take no harm. When the winter is ſpent, turn them into ſome dry ground, where the graſs is ſhort and ſweet, and where there is good water, that they may drink at pleaſure; for it is not neceſſary that a colt ſhould fill his belly immediately, like a horſe that labours hard. The next winter you may take them into the houſe, and uſe them juſt as you do your other horſes; but let not your horſe-colts and fillies be kept together after the firſt year. This method may be obſerved every ſummer and winter till you break them, which you may do after they have been three years old; and it will be a very eaſy thing, if you obſerve the aforeſaid method of houſing them; for ordering them the ſecond year as you do your other horſes, they will be ſo tame and gentle, that you need not fear their leaping, plunging, kicking, or the like; for they will take the ſaddle quietly. As for all thoſe ridiculous methods of beating and curbing them, they are in effect ſpoiling them, whatever they call it, in ploughed fields, deep ways, or the like; inſtead of which, let the rider ſtrive to win them by gentle uſage, never correcting them but when it is neceſſary,

Colt. neceſſary, and then with judgment and moderation. You will not need a caveſſon of cord, which is a head ſtrain, nor a pad of ſtraw; but only a common ſaddle, and a common caveſſon on his noſe, ſuch as other horſes are ridden with; but it ought to be well lined with double leather; and, if you pleaſe, you may put on his mouth a watering bit, but without reins, only the head-ſtall, and this but for a few days; and then put on ſuch a bit as he ſhould be always ridden with; and be ſure not to uſe ſpurs for ſome time after backing. Take notice, that as yearlings muſt be kept abroad together, ſo thoſe of two years old together; and the like for thoſe of three yearlings; which ordering is moſt agreeable to them.

In order to make him endure the ſaddle the better, the way to make it familiar to him will be by clapping the ſaddle with your hand as it ſtands upon his back, by ſtriking it, and ſwaying upon it, dangling the ſtirrups by his ſides, rubbing them againſt his ſides, and making much of them, and bringing him to be familiar with all things about him; as ſtraining the crupper, faſtening and looſening the girths, and taking up and letting out the ſtirrups. Then, as to his motion, when he will trot with the ſaddle obediently, you may waſh a trench of a full mouth, and put the ſame into his mouth, throwing the reins over the forepart of the ſaddle, ſo that he may have a full feeling of it; then put on a martingale, buckled at ſuch a length that he may but juſt feel it when he jerks up his head; then take a broad piece of leather, and put it about his neck, and make the ends of it faſt by plaiting it, or ſome other way, at the withers, and the middle part before his weaſands, about two handfuls below the thropple, betwixt the leather and his neck; let the martingale paſs ſo, that when at any time he offers to duck, or throw down his head, the caveſſon being placed upon the tender griſtle of his noſe, may correct and puniſh him; which will make him bring his head to, and form him to an abſolute rein; trot him abroad, and if you find the reins or martingale grow ſlack, ſtraiten them, for when there is no feeling, there is no virtue.

COLT Evil, among farriers. See FARRIERY.

COLT-Taming, is the breaking of a colt ſo as to endure a rider. Colts are moſt eaſily broken at three or four years of age; but he who will have patience to ſee his horſe at full five, will have him much more free of diſeaſes and infirmities than if he was broken ſooner.

Preparatory to their breaking for the ſaddle, they ſhould be uſed to familiar actions, as rubbing, clawing, h ltering, leading to water, taking up their feet, knocking their hoofs, &c. In order to bridle and ſaddle a colt, when he is made a little gentle, take a ſweet watering trench, waſhed and anointed with honey and ſalt, which put into his maſh, and ſo place it that it may hang about his tuſh; then offer him the ſaddle, but take care not to frighten him with it. Suffer him to ſmell at it, to be rubbed with it, and then to feel it; after that fix it, and gird it faſt, and make that motion the moſt familiar to him to which he ſeems moſt averſe. Being thus ſaddled and bridled, lead him out to water, and bring him in again; when he has ſtood reined upon the trench an hour or more, take off the bridle and ſaddle, and let him go to his meat till the evening, and then lead him out as before; and when you carry him in again to ſet him up, take off his ſaddle gently, clothing him for the night.

Colt || Columba.

COLTIE, a term uſed by timber-merchants, for a defect or blemiſh in ſome of the annular circles of a tree, whereby its value is much diminiſhed.

COLUBER, in *Zoology*, a genus of ſerpents belonging to the order of amphibia. See OPHIOLOGY *Index*.

COLUMB-KILL. See JONA.

COLUMBA, the PIGEON, in *Ornithology*, a genus of birds belonging to the order of paſſeres. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COLUMBA, ST, in alluſion to whoſe name the iſland of Jona (one of the Hebrides), received its name; *Jona* being derived from a Hebrew word ſignifying a dove. This holy man, inſtigated by his zeal, left his native country, Ireland, in the year 565, with the pious deſign of preaching the goſpel to the Picts. It appears that he left his native ſoil with warm reſentment, vowing never to make a ſettlement within ſight of that hated iſland. He made his firſt trial at Oranſay; and finding that place too near to Ireland, ſucceeded to his wiſh at *Hy*, for that was the name of Jona at the time of his arrival. He repeated here the experiment on ſeveral hills, erecting on each a heap of ſtones; and that which he laſt aſcended is to this day called *Carnan-chul-reh-Eirium*, or "The eminence of the back turned to Ireland.

Columba was ſoon diſtinguiſhed by the ſanctity of his manners: a miracle that he wrought ſo operated on the Pictiſh king Bradeus, that he immediately made a preſent of the little iſle to the ſaint. It ſeems that his majeſty had refuſed Columba an audience; and even proceeded ſo far as to order the palace-gates to be ſhut againſt him: but the ſaint, by the power of his word, inſtantly cauſed them to fly open. As ſoon as he was in poſſeſſion of Jona, he founded a cell of monks, borrowing his inſtitutions from a certain oriental monaſtic order. It is ſaid that the firſt religious were canons regular, of whom the founder was the firſt abbot; and that his monks, till the year 716, differed from thoſe of the church of Rome, both in the obſervation of Eaſter, and in the clerical tonſure. Columba led here an exemplary life, and was highly reſpected for the ſanctity of his manners for a conſiderable number of years. He is the firſt on record who had the faculty of *ſecond ſight*, for he told the victory of Aidan over the Picts and Saxons on the very inſtant it happened. He had the honour of burying in his iſland, Convallius and Kinnatil, two kings of Scotland, and of crowning a third. At length, worn out with age, he died in Jona in the arms of his diſciples; was interred there, but (as the Iriſh pretend) in after times tranſlated to Down; where, according to the epitaph, his remains were depoſited with thoſe of St Bridget and St Patrick.

Hi tres in *Duno* tumulo tumulantur in uno;
Brigida, *Patricius*, atque *Columba* pius.

But this is totally denied by the Scots; who affirm, that the contrary is ſhown in the life of the ſaint, extracted out of the Pope's library, and tranſlated out of the Latin into Erſe, by Father *Cail o haran*; which

which decides in favour of Jona the momentous dispute.

COLUMBANUS, a saint and a poet, was born in Ireland, and brought up to a religious life among the disciples of St Columba. He made uncommon progress in learning; and very early in life distinguished himself for poetical abilities, by the composition of a book of psalms, and a number of moral poems, intended also to be set to music. Jonas, a writer of ecclesiastical history, mentions, that Columbanus belonged originally to a monastery of the name of *Benchor*. The same monastery is mentioned by St Bernard in his life of his friend St Malachi; and he relates that it sent out a great number of monks, who spread over Europe. Columbanus passed from Britain into France, and founded the monastery of Luxeville near Besançon. He had been kindly received and patronized by King Childebert; but he was afterwards expelled out of France by the wicked queen Brunichild. He retired to Lombardy in Italy, and was well received by King Argulphus. In Lombardy he again founded the monastery of Bobio. The *Regula Cænobialis* and *Penitentialis*, which he established in that monastery, have been published in the *Codex Regularum* compiled by the learned Holstenius. He was contemporary with St Benedict. It was in the year 589 he went into France.

COLUMBARIA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island like a rock on the west of Sicily, opposite to Drepanum; said by Zonares to have been taken from the Carthaginians by Numerius Fabius the consul. Now *Columbara*, with a very strong and almost impregnable citadel (Cluverius).

COLUMBIC ACID. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

COLUMBINE. See AQUILEGIA, BOTANY *Index*.

COLUMBIUM, a new metal which was discovered in a mineral from North America. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

COLUMBO ROOT, an article lately introduced into the materia medica, the natural history of which is not yet well known. According to Dr Percival's account, it grew originally on the continent of America, from whence it was transplanted to Columbo, a town in Ceylon, which gives name to, and supplies all India with it. The inhabitants of these countries have for a long time used it in disorders of the stomach and bowels. They carry it about with them, and take it sliced or scraped in Madeira wine. This root comes to us in circular pieces, which are from half an inch or an inch to three inches in diameter; and divided into *frusta*, which measure from two inches to one quarter of an inch. The sides are covered with a thick corrugated bark, of a dark brown hue on its external surface, but internally of a light yellow colour. The surfaces of the transverse sections appear very unequal, highest at the edges, and forming a concavity towards the centre. On separating this surface, the root is observed to consist of three lamina, viz. the cortical, which in the larger roots, is a quarter of an inch thick; the ligneous, about half an inch; and the medullary, which forms the centre, and is near an inch in diameter. This last is much softer than the other parts, and, when chewed, seems mucilaginous; a number of small fibres run longitudinally through it, and appear on the surface. The cortical and ligneous parts are divided by a black circular line. All the thicker pieces have small holes drilled through them, for the convenience of drying. Columbo-root has an aromatic smell, but is disagreeably bitter, and slightly pungent to the taste, somewhat resembling mustard seed, when it has lost, by long keeping, part of its essential oil. Yet, though ungrateful to the taste, when received into the stomach, it appears to be corroborant, antiseptic, sedative, and powerfully antiemetic. In the cholera morbus it alleviates the violent *tormina*, checks the purging and vomiting, corrects the putrid tendency of the bile, quiets the inordinate motions of the bowels, and speedily recruits the exhausted strength of the patient. It was administered to a great number of patients, sometimes upwards of 20 in a day, afflicted with the cholera morbus, by Mr Johnson of Chester, in 1756. He generally found that it soon stopped the vomiting, which was the most fatal symptom, and that the purging and remaining complaints quickly yielded to the same remedy. The dose he gave was from half a drachm to two drachms of the powder, every three or four hours, more or less according to the urgency of the symptoms. Though this medicine possesses little or no astringency, it has been observed to be of great service in diarrhœas, and even in the dysentery. In the first stage of these disorders, where astringents would be hurtful, Columbo-root may be prescribed with safety; as, by its antispasmodic powers, the irregular actions of the primæ viæ are corrected. But as a cordial, tonic, and antiseptic remedy, it answers better when given towards their decline. Its efficacy has also been observed in the vomitings which attend the bilious cholic; and in such cases, where an emetic is thought necessary, after administering a small dose of ipecacuan, the stomach may be washed with an infusion of Columbo-root. This will tend to prevent those violent and convulsive retchings which in irritable habits abounding with bile are sometimes excited by the mildest emetic. In bilious fevers, 15 or 20 grains of this root, with an equal or double quantity of vitriolated tartar, given every four, five, or six hours, produce very beneficial effects. From its efficacy in these bilious diseases of this country, it is probable that it may be useful in the yellow fever of the West Indies, which is always attended with great sickness, violent retchings, and a copious discharge of bile. The vomiting recurs at short intervals, often becomes almost incessant, and an incredible quantity of bile is sometimes evacuated in a few hours. Children during dentition are often subject to severe vomitings and diarrhœas. In these cases the Columbo-root is an useful remedy, and hath often procured almost instant relief, when other remedies often efficacious have been tried in vain. This root is also extremely beneficial in a languid state of the stomach, attended with want of appetite, indigestion, nausea, and flatulence. It may be given either in substance, with some grateful aromatic, or infused in Madeira wine. Habitual vomiting, when it proceeds from a weakness or irritability of the stomach, from an irregular gout, acidities, acrimonious bile, or an increased and depraved secretion of the pancreatic juice, is greatly relieved by the use of Columbo-root, in conjunction with aromatics, chalybeates, or the testaceous powders. In the nausea and vomiting

Columbo-root li Columbus.

vomiting occasioned by pregnancy, an infusion of Columbo-root succeeds better than any other medicine that hath been tried.

From Dr Percival's experiments on this root, it appears, that rectified spirit of wine extracts its virtues in the greatest perfection. The watery infusion is more perishable than that of other bitters. In 24 hours a copious precipitation takes place; and in two days it becomes ropy, and even musty. The addition of orange peel renders the infusion of Columbo-root less ungrateful to the palate. An ounce of the powdered root, half an ounce of orange peel, two ounces of French brandy, and 14 ounces of water, macerated 12 hours without heat, and then filtrated through paper, afford a sufficiently strong and tolerably pleasant infusion. The extract made first by spirit and then with water, and reduced by evaporation to a pilular consistence, is found to be equal, if not superior, in efficacy to the powder. As an antiseptic, Columbo-root is inferior to the bark; but, as a corrector of putrid gall, it is much superior; whence also it is probable that it would be of service in the West India yellow fever. It also restrains alimentary fermentation, without impairing digestion, in which property it resembles mustard. Hence its great service in preventing acidities. It hath also a remarkable power of neutralizing acids already formed. It doth not appear to have the least heating quality; and therefore may be used with propriety and advantage in the phthisis pulmonalis and in hectical cases, to correct acrimony and strengthen digestion. It occasions no disturbance, and agrees very well with a milk diet, as it abates flatulence, and is indisposed to acidity.

Columbo, a maritime town of the island of Ceylon in the East Indies, seated on the south-west part of its coast, and subject to the Dutch. E. Long. 68. 10. N. Lat. 7. 5.

COLUMBUS, or *Congregation of St* COLUMBUS, a society of regular canons, who formerly had 100 abbeys or monasteries in the British isles.

Columbus, *Christopher*, a Genoese, the celebrated navigator, and first discoverer of the islands of America, was a subject of the republic of Genoa. Neither the time nor the place of his birth, however, are known with certainty; only he was descended of an honourable family, who, by various misfortunes, had been reduced to indigence. His parents were seafaring people; and Columbus having discovered, in his early youth, a capacity and inclination for that way of life, was encouraged by them to follow the same profession. He went to sea at the age of 14: his first voyages were to those ports in the Mediterranean frequented by the Genoese, after which he took a voyage to Iceland; and proceeding still further north, advanced several degrees within the polar circle. After this, Columbus entered into the service of a famous sea captain of his own name and family. This man commanded a small squadron, fitted out at his own expence; and by cruising, sometimes against the Mahometans, and sometimes against the Venetians, the rivals of his country in trade, had acquired both wealth and reputation. With him Columbus continued for several years, no less distinguished for his courage than his experience as a sailor. At length, in an obstinate engagement off the coast of Portugal, with some Venetian caravals returning richly laden from the Low Countries, the vessel on board which he served took fire, together with one of the enemies ships to which it was fast grappled. Columbus threw himself into the sea, laid hold of a floating oar, and by the support of it, and his dexterity in swimming, he reached the shore, though above two leagues distant.

Columbus.

After this disaster, Columbus repaired to Lisoon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Perestrello, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early navigations, and who had discovered and planted the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira. Having got possession of the journals and charts of this experienced navigator, Columbus was seized with an irresistible desire of visiting unknown countries. In order to indulge it, he made a voyage to Madeira, and continued during several years to trade with that island, the Canaries, Azores, the settlements in Guinea, and all the other places which the Portuguese had discovered on the continent of Africa.

By the experience acquired in such a number of voyages, Columbus now became one of the most skilful navigators in Europe. At this time the great object of discovery was a passage by sea to the East Indies. This was attempted, and at last accomplished, by the Portuguese, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope. The danger and tediousness of the passage, however, supposing it to be really accomplished, which as yet it was not, set Columbus on considering whether a shorter and more direct passage to these regions might not be found out; and, after long consideration, he became thoroughly convinced, that, by sailing across the Atlantic ocean, directly towards the west, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vast continent of India, must infallibly be discovered. His reasons for this were, in the first place, a knowledge he had acquired of the true figure of the earth. The continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, as far as then known, form but a small part of the globe. It was suitable to our ideas, concerning the wisdom and beneficence of the Author of Nature, to believe, that the vast space, still unexplored, was not entirely covered by a waste and barren ocean, but occupied by countries fit for the habitation of man. It appeared likewise extremely probable, that the continent on this side the globe was balanced by a proportional quantity of land in the other hemisphere. These conjectures were confirmed by the observations of modern navigators. A Portuguese pilot having stretched farther to the west than was usual at that time, took up a piece of timber, artificially carved, floating upon the sea; and as it was driven towards him by a westerly wind, he concluded that it came from some unknown land situated in that quarter. Columbus's brother-in-law had found to the west of the Madeira isles a piece of timber fashioned in the same manner, and brought by the same wind; and had seen also canes of an enormous size floating upon the waves, which resembled those described by Ptolemy as productions peculiar to the East Indies. After a course of westerly winds, trees torn up by the roots were often driven upon the coast of the Azores; and at one time the dead bodies of two men, with singular features, which resembled neither the inhabitants of Europe nor Africa, were cast ashore there. The most

Columbus. cogent reason, however, was a mistaken notion of the ancient geographers concerning the immense extent of the continent of India. Though hardly any of them had penetrated beyond the river Ganges, some Greek writers had ventured to describe the provinces beyond that river, which they represented as regions of an immense extent. Ctesias affirmed that India was as large as all the rest of Asia. Onesicritus, whom Pliny the naturalist follows, contended that it was equal to a third part of the habitable earth. Nearchus asserted that it would take four months to march from one extremity of it to the other in a straight line. The journal of Marco Polo, who travelled into Asia in the 13th century, and who had proceeded towards the east far beyond the limits to which any European had ever advanced, seemed also so much to confirm these accounts, that Columbus was persuaded that the distance from the most westerly part of Europe to the most easterly part of Asia was not very considerable; and that the shortest, as well as most direct course to the remote regions of the east, was to be found by sailing due west.

In 1474, Columbus communicated his ideas on this subject to one Paul a physician in Florence, a man eminent for his knowledge in cosmography. He approved of the plan, suggested several facts in confirmation of it, and warmly encouraged Columbus to persevere in an undertaking so laudable, and which must redound so much to the honour of this country and the benefit of Europe. Columbus, fully satisfied of the truth of his system, was impatient to set out on a voyage of discovery. The first step towards this was to secure the patronage of some of the considerable powers of Europe capable of undertaking such an enterprise. He applied first to the republic of Genoa; but his countrymen, strangers to his abilities, inconsiderately rejected his proposal as the dream of a chimerical projector, and thus lost for ever the opportunity of restoring their commonwealth to its ancient lustre. His next application was to the court of Portugal, where King John II. listened to him in the most gracious manner, and referred the consideration of his plan to Diego Ortiz, bishop of Ceuta, and two Jewish physicians, eminent cosmographers, whom he was accustomed to consult in matters of this kind. Unhappily these were the persons who had been the chief directors of the Portuguese navigations, and had advised to search for a passage to India by steering a course directly opposite to that which Columbus had recommended as shorter and more certain. They could not therefore approve of his proposal, without submitting to the double mortification of condemning their own theory, and of acknowledging his superiority. The result of their conferences was, that they advised the king to fit out a vessel privately, in order to attempt the proposed discovery, by following exactly the course which Columbus seemed to point out. John, forgetting on this occasion the sentiments of a monarch, meanly adopted this perfidious counsel. But the pilot chosen to execute Columbus's plan had neither the genius nor fortitude of its author. Contrary winds arose; no sign of approaching land appeared; his courage failed; and he returned to Lisbon, execrating the project as equally extravagant and dangerous.

On discovering this dishonourable transaction, Columbus immediately quitted Portugal, and applied to the king of Spain; but lest he should be here again disappointed, he sent his brother Bartholomew into England, to whom he had fully communicated his ideas, in order that he might negociate at the same time with Henry VII. who was reckoned one of the most sagacious as well as opulent princes of Europe. Bartholomew was very unfortunate in his voyage: he fell into the hands of pirates, who stripped him of every thing, and detained him a prisoner for several years. At last he made his escape, and arrived in London, but in such extreme indigence that he was obliged to employ himself, during a considerable time, in drawing and selling maps, in order to pick up as much money as would purchase a decent dress in which he might venture to appear at court. The proposals were received by Henry with more approbation than by any monarch to whom they had hitherto been presented.

Columbus himself made his proposals to the king of Spain, not without many doubts of success, which soon appeared to be well founded. True science had as yet made so little progress in the kingdom of Spain, that most of those to whom the consideration of his plan was referred were utterly ignorant of the first principles on which he founded his hopes. Some, from mistaken notions concerning the dimensions of the globe, contended that a voyage to those remote regions of the east which Columbus expected to discover, could not be performed in less than three years. Others concluded, that either he would find the ocean of infinite extent, according to the opinion of some ancient philosophers; or that if he should persist in steering westwards beyond a certain point, the convex figure of the globe must infallibly prevent his return; and he must perish in the vain attempt to unite the two opposite hemispheres, which nature had for ever disjoined. Even without deigning to enter into any particular discussion, some rejected the scheme in general, upon the credit of a maxim made use of by the ignorant in all ages, "That it is presumptuous in any person to suppose that he alone possesses knowledge superior to all the rest of mankind united." By continual disappointments and delays, he was at last wearied out, and resolved to repair to the court of England in person, in hopes of meeting with a favourable reception there. He had already made preparations for this purpose, and taken measures for the disposal of his children during his absence, when Juan Perez, the prior of the monastery of Rabida near Palos, in which they had been educated, earnestly solicited him to defer his journey for a short time. Perez was a man of considerable learning, and some credit with Queen Isabella. To her therefore he applied; and the consequence of his application was a gracious invitation to Columbus back to court, accompanied with the present of a small sum to equip him for the journey. Ferdinand, however, still regarded the project as chimerical; and had the address to employ, in this new negociation with him, some of the persons who had formerly pronounced his scheme to be impracticable. To their astonishment, Columbus appeared before them with the same confident hopes of success as formerly, and insisted

Columbus. insisted on the same high recompense. He proposed that a small fleet should be fitted out, under his command, to attempt the discovery; and demanded to be appointed perpetual and hereditary admiral and viceroy of all the seas and lands which he should discover; and to have the tenth of the profits arising from them settled irrevocably upon him and his descendants for ever. At the same time he offered to advance the eighth part of the sum necessary for accomplishing his design, on condition that he should be entitled to a proportional share in the adventure. If the enterprise should totally miscarry, he made no stipulation for any reward or emolument whatever. These demands were thought unreasonable; Isabella broke off the treaty she had begun, and Columbus was once more disappointed. He now resolved finally to leave Spain; and had actually proceeded some leagues on his journey, when he was overtaken by a messenger from Isabella, who had been prevailed upon by the arguments of Quintanilla and Santangel, two of Columbus's patrons, again to favour his undertakings. The negociation now went forward with all manner of facility and dispatch; and a treaty with Columbus was signed on the 17th of April 1492. The chief articles of it were, that Columbus should be constituted high admiral in all the seas, islands, and continents he should discover, with the same powers and prerogatives that belonged to the high admiral of Castile within the limits of his jurisdiction. He was also appointed viceroy in all those countries to be discovered; and a tenth of the products accruing from their productions and commerce was granted to him for ever. All controversies or law-suits with respect to mercantile transactions were to be determined by the sole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. He was also permitted to advance one eighth part of the expence of the expedition, and of carrying on commerce with the new countries; and was entitled, in return, to an eighth part of the profit. But though the name of Ferdinand was joined with Isabella in this transaction, his distrust of Columbus was still so violent, that he refused to take any part in the enterprise as king of Arragon; and as the whole expence of the expedition was to be defrayed by the crown of Castile, Isabella reserved for her subjects of that kingdom an exclusive right to all the benefits which might accrue from its success.

At last our adventurer set sail with three small ships, the whole expence of which did not exceed 4000l. During his voyage he met with many difficulties from the mutinous and timid disposition of his men. He was the first who observed the variation of the compass, which threw the sailors into the utmost terror. For this phenomenon Columbus was obliged to invent a reason, which, though it did not satisfy himself, yet served to dispel their fears, or silence their murmurs. At last, however, the sailors lost all patience; and the admiral was obliged to promise solemnly, that in case land was not discovered in three days he should return to Europe. That very night, however, the island of San Salvador was discovered, which quickly put an end to all their fears. The sailors were then as extravagant in the praise of Columbus as they had before been insolent in reviling and threatening him. They threw themselves at his feet, implored his pardon, and pronounced him to be a person inspired by heaven with more than human sagacity and fortitude, in order to accomplish a design so far beyond the ideas and conception of all former ages. Having visited several of the West India islands, and settled a colony in Hispaniola *, he again set sail for Spain; and after escaping great dangers from violent tempests, arrived at the port of Palos on the 15th of March 1493.

* See *Hispaniola.*

As soon as Columbus's ship was discovered approaching, all the inhabitants of Palos ran eagerly to the shore, where they received the admiral with royal honours. The court was then at Barcelona, and Columbus took care immediately to acquaint the king and queen of his arrival. They were no less delighted than astonished with this unexpected event. They gave orders for conducting him into the city with all imaginable pomp. They received him clad in their royal robes, and seated on a throne under a magnificent canopy. When he approached, they stood up; and, raising him as he kneeled to kiss their hands, commanded him to take his seat upon a chair prepared for him, and give a circumstantial account of his voyage. When he had finished his oration, which he delivered with much modesty and simplicity, the king and queen, kneeling down, offered up solemn thanks to God for the discovery. Every possible mark of honour that could be suggested by gratitude or admiration was conferred on Columbus; the former capitulation was confirmed, his family was ennobled, and a fleet was ordered to be equipped, to enable him to go in quest of those more opulent countries which he still confidently expected to find.

Notwithstanding all this respect, however, Columbus was no longer regarded than he was successful. The colonists he carried over with him were to the last degree unreasonable and unmanageable; so that he was obliged to use some severities with them; and complaints were made to the court of Spain against him for cruelty. On this, Francis de Bovadilla, a knight of Calatrava, was appointed to inquire into the conduct of Columbus; with orders, in case he found the charge of maladministration proved, to supersede him, and assume the office of governor of Hispaniola. The consequence of this was, that Columbus was sent to Spain in chains. From these, however, he was freed immediately on his arrival, and had an opportunity granted him of vindicating his innocence. He was, however, deprived of all power; and notwithstanding his great services, and the solemnity of the agreement between him and Ferdinand, Columbus never could obtain the fulfilment of any part of that treaty. At last, disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch whom he had served with such fidelity and success, and exhausted with fatigues, he ended his life on the 29th of May 1506.

Columbus, *Bartholomew*, brother to Christopher, famous for his marine charts and spheres, which he presented to Henry VII. of England. He died in 1514.

Columbus, *Don Ferdinand*, son of Christopher, and writer of his life. He entered into the ecclesiastical state; and founded a library, which he bequeathed to the church of Seville, to this day called the *Columbine library*. He died in 1560.

COLUMELLA, Lucius Junius Moderatus, a

Roman philosopher, was a native of Cadiz, and lived under the emperor Claudius, about the year 42. He wrote a book on agriculture, entitled *De Re Rustica*, and another *De Arboribus*.

COLUMEY, a town of Red Russia in Poland, seated on the river Pruth, towards the confines of Moldavia, about 38 miles from Halicz, and 63 south of Leopol. This town has been very ill treated by the Cossacks, insomuch that it is now inconsiderable, though there are several mines of salt in its district. E. Long. 16. 25. N. Lat. 48. 45.

COLUMN, in *Architecture*, a round pillar made to support and adorn a building, and composed of a base, a shaft, and capital. See ARCHITECTURE, N° 33.

COLUMNS, *denominated from their use.*—Astronomical column is a kind of observatory, in form of a very high tower built hollow, and with a spiral ascent to an armillary sphere placed a-top for observing the motions of the heavenly bodies. Such is that of the Doric order erected at the Hotel de Soissons at Paris, by Catharine de Medicis, for the observations of Orontius Finens, a celebrated astronomer of that time.

Chronological COLUMN, that which bears some historical inscription digested according to the order of time; as by lustres, olympiads, fasti, epochas, annals, &c. At Athens, there were columns of this kind, whereon was inscribed the whole history of Greece digested into olympiads.

Funeral COLUMN, that which bears an urn, wherein are supposed to be inclosed the ashes of some deceased hero; and whose shaft is sometimes overspread with tears and flames, which are symbols of grief and of immortality.

Gnomonic COLUMN, a cylinder whereon the hour of the day is represented by the shadow of a stile. See DIAL.

Historical COLUMN, is that whose shaft is adorned with a basso-relievo, running in a spiral line its whole length, and containing the history of some great personage: such are the Trajan and Antonine columns at Rome.

Hollow COLUMN, that which has a spiral staircase withinside for the convenience of ascending to the top; as the Trajan column, the staircase whereof consists of 185 steps, and is illuminated by 43 little windows, each of which is divided by tambours of white marble. The monument, or fire-column at London, has also a staircase; but it does not reach to the top. These kinds of columns are also called *columnæ*, *coclideæ*, or *cochlideæ*.

Indicative COLUMN, that which serves to show the tides, &c. along the sea-coasts. Of this kind there is one at Grand Cairo of marble, on which the overflowings of the Nile are expressed; by this they form a judgment of the succeeding seasons; when the water, for instance, ascends to 23 feet, it is a sign of great fertility in Egypt. See NILOMETER.

Instructive COLUMN, that raised, according to Josephus, lib. i. cap. 3. by the sons of Adam, whereon were engraven the principles of arts and sciences. Baudelot tells us, that the son of Pisistratus raised another of this kind, of stone, containing the rules and precepts of agriculture.

Itinerary COLUMN, a column with several faces, placed in the cross ways in large roads; serving to show the different routes by inscriptions thereon.

Lactary COLUMN, at Rome, according to Festus, was a column erected in the herb market, now the place *Montanara*, which had a cavity in its pedestal, wherein young children abandoned by their parents, out of poverty or inhumanity, were exposed, to be brought up at the public expence.

Legal COLUMN. Among the Lacedæmonians there were columns raised in public places, whereon were engraven the fundamental laws of the state.

Limitrophous or *Boundary* COLUMN, that which shows the limits of a kingdom or country conquered. Such was that which Pliny says Alexander the Great erected at the extremity of the Indies.

Manubiary COLUMN, from the Latin *manubiæ*, "spoils of the enemy;" a column adorned with trophies built in imitation of trees, whereon the spoils of enemies were anciently hung. See TROPHY.

Memorial COLUMN, that raised on occasion of any remarkable event, as the monument of London, built to perpetuate the memory of the burning of that city in 1666. It is of the Doric order, fluted, hollow, with a winding staircase; and terminated a-top with waving flames. There is also another of the kind, in form of an obelisk, on the banks of the Rhine in the Palatinate, in memory of the famous passage of that river by the great Gustavus Adolphus and his army.

Menian COLUMN, any column which supports a balcony or meniana. The origin of this kind of column, Suetonius and Ascanius refer to one Menias; who having sold his house to Cato and Flaccus, consuls, to be converted into a public edifice, reserved to himself the right of raising a column withoutside, to bear a balcony, whence he might see the shows.

Military COLUMN, among the Romans, a column whereon was engraven a list of the forces in the Roman army, ranged by legions, in their proper order; with design to preserve the memory of the number of soldiers, and of the order preserved in any military expedition. They had another kind of military column, which they called *columna bellica*, standing before the temple of Janus; at the foot whereof the consul declared war by throwing a javelin towards the enemies countries.

Milliary COLUMN, was a column of marble raised by order of Augustus in the middle of the Roman forum; from whence, in the centre, the distances of the several cities, &c. of the empire were reckoned, by other milliary columns disposed at equal distances on all the grand roads. This column was of white marble, the same with that which is now seen on the balustrade of the perron of the capitol at Rome. Its proportion is massive, being a short cylinder, the symbol of the globe of the earth. It was called *milliarium aureum*, as having been gilt, at least the ball, by order of Augustus. It was restored by the emperors Vespasian and Adrian, as appears by the inscriptions.

Sepulchral COLUMN, anciently was a column erected on a tomb or sepulchre, with an inscription on its base. Those over the tombs of persons of distinction were very large; those for the common people small; these last are called *stelæ* and *cippi*.

Statuary COLUMN, that which supports a statue. Such was that erected by Pope Paul V. on a pedestal before the

the church of St Maria at Rome; to support a statue of the Virgin, which is of gilt brass. This column was dug up in the temple of Peace; its shaft is a single block of white marble 49¼ feet high, and five feet eight inches diameter, of the Corinthian order.

The term *statuary column* may likewise be applied to Caryatides, Persians, termini, and other human figures, which do the office of columns; and which Vitruvius calls *telamones* and *atlantes*. See ARCHITECTURE, N° 54.

Triumphal COLUMN, a column erected among the ancients in honour of a hero; the joints of the stones, or courses whereof, were covered with as many crowns as he had made different military expeditions. Each crown had its particular name, as *vallaris*, which was beset with spikes, in memory of having forced a palisade. *Muralis*, adorned with little turrets, or battlements, for having mounted an assault. *Navalis*, of prows and beaks of vessels; for having overcome at sea. *Obsidionalis*, or *graminalis*, of grass; for having raised a siege. *Ovans*, of myrtle; which expressed an ovation, or little triumph; and *triumphalis*, of laurel, for a grand triumph. See CROWN.

COLUMNARIUM, in Roman antiquity, a heavy tribute demanded for every pillar of a house. It was first laid on by Julius Cæsar, in order to put a stop to the extravagant expences laid out on sumptuous buildings.

COLUMNEA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLUMNIFERI, in *Botany*, an order of plants in the *fragmenta methodi naturalis* of Linnæus. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLURES, in *Astronomy* and *Geography*, two great circles supposed to intersect each other at right angles in the poles of the world, and to pass through the solstitial and equinoctial points of the ecliptic. See GEOGRAPHY.

COLURI, a little island in the gulf of Engia, in the Archipelago, formerly called *Salamis*. The principal town is of the same name, and seated to the south side, at the bottom of the harbour, which is one of the finest in the world. The famous Grecian hero, Ajax, who makes such a figure in Homer's Iliad, was king of this island. It is now, however, but a poor place; its commodities consist of wheat, barley, tar, rosin, pit-coal, sponges, and pot-ashes, which they carry to Athens. It is seven miles south from Athens, and is separated from the continent by a strait about a mile over.

COLUTEA, BASTARD-SENA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COLYBA, or COLYBUS; a term in the Greek liturgy, signifying an offering of corn and boiled pulse, made in honour of the saints, and for the sake of the dead.

Balsamon, P. Goar, Leo Allatius, and others, have written on the subject of *colybæ*; the substance of what they have said is as follows: The Greeks boil a quantity of wheat, and lay it in little heaps on a plate; adding beaten peas, nuts cut small, and grape-stones, which they divide into several compartments, separated from each other by leaves of parsley. A little heap of wheat, thus seasoned, they call κολυβα. They have a particular formula for the benediction of the *colybæ*, wherein, praying that the children of Babylon may be fed with pulse, and that they may be in better condition than other people, they desire God to bless those fruits, and those who eat them, because offered to his glory, to the honour of such a saint, and in memory of the faithful deceased. Balsamon refers the institution of this ceremony to St Athanasius; but the Greek Synaxary to the time of Julian the apostate.

COLYMBUS, a genus of birds belonging to the order of anseres. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COM, a town of Asia in the empire of Persia, and province of Irac-agemi. It is a large populous place, but has suffered greatly by the civil wars. E. Long. 51. 56. N. Lat. 34. 5.

COMA, or COMA-VIGIL, a preternatural propensity to sleep, when, nevertheless, the patient does not sleep, or if he does, awakes immediately without any relief. See MEDICINE *Index*.

COMA Berenices, Berenice's hair, in *Astronomy*, a modern constellation of the northern hemisphere, composed of unformed stars between the Lion's tail and Bootes. This constellation is said to have been formed by Conon, an astronomer, in order to console the queen of Ptolemy Euergetes for the loss of a lock of her hair, which was stolen out of the temple of Venus, where she had dedicated it on account of a victory obtained by her husband. The stars of this constellation, in Tycho's Catalogue, are fourteen; in Hevelius's, twenty-one; and in the Britannic Catalogue, forty-three.

COMA Somnolentum, is when the patient continues in a profound sleep; and, when awakened, immediately relapses, without being able to keep open his eyes.

COMARUM, MARSH-CINQUEFOIL. See BOTANY *Index*.

COMB, an instrument to clean, untangle, and dress flax, wool, hair, &c.

Combs for wool are prohibited to be imported into England.

COMB is also the crest, or red fleshy tuft, growing upon a cock's head.

COMBAT, in a general sense, denotes an engagement, or a difference decided by arms. See BATTLE.

COMBAT, in our ancient law, was a formal trial of some doubtful cause or quarrel, by the swords or bastons of two champions. This form of proceeding was very frequent, not only in criminal but in civil causes; being built on a supposition that God would never grant the victory but to him who had the best right. The last trial of this kind in England was between Donald Lord Reay appellant, and David Ramsay, Esq. defendant, when, after many formalities, the matter was referred to the king's pleasure. See the article BATTLE.

COMBINATION, properly denotes an assemblage of several things, two by two.

COMBINATION, in *Mathematics*, is the variation or alteration of any number of quantities, letters, or the like, in all the different manners possible. See CHANGES.

Aphorisms. I. In all combinations, if from an arithmetic decreasing series, whose first term is the number out of which the combinations are to be formed, and whose common difference is 1, there be taken as many terms as there are quantities to be combined, and these terms

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terms be multiplied into each other; and if from the series, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. there may be taken the same number of terms, and they be multiplied into each other; and the first product be divided by the second; the quotient will be the number of combinations required. Therefore, if you would know how many ways four quantities can be combined in seven, multiply the first four terms of the series, 7, 6, 5, 4, &c. together, and divide the product, which will be 840, by the product of the first four terms of the series, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. which is 24, and the quotient 35 will be the combination of 4 in 7. - II. In all permutations, if the series 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. be continued to as many terms as there are quantities to be changed, and those terms be multiplied into each other; the product will be the number of permutations sought. Thus, if you would know how many permutations can be formed with five quantities, multiply the terms 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, together, and the product 120 will be the number of all the permutations.

Problems. I. To find the number of changes that may be rung on 12 bells. It appears by the second aphorism, that nothing more is necessary here than to multiply the numbers from 1 to 12 continually into each other, in the following manner, and the last product will be the number sought.

```
          1
          2
          2
          3
          6
          4
         24
          5
        120
          6
        720
          7
       5040
          8
      40320
          9
     362880
         10
    3628800
         11
   39916800
         12
479,001,600
```

II. Suppose the letters of the alphabet to be wrote so small that no one of them shall take up more space than the hundredth part of a square inch: to find how many square yards it would require to write all the permutations of the 24 letters in that size. By following the same method as in the last problem, the number of permutations of the 24 letters will be found to be 62,044,840,173,323,943,936,000. Now the inches in a square yard being 1296, that number multiplied by 100 gives 129,600, which is the number of letters each square yard will contain; therefore if we divide 62,044,840,173,323,943,936,000 by 129600, the quotient, which is 478,741,050,720,092,160, will be the number of yards required, to contain the above-mentioned number of permutations. But as all the 24 letters are contained in every permutation, it will require a space 24 times as large; that is, 11,489,785,217,282,211,840. Now the number of square yards contained on the surface of the whole earth is but 617,197,435,008,000, therefore it would require a surface 18620 times as large as that of the earth to write all the permutations of the 24 letters in the size above mentioned.

III. To find how many different ways the eldest hand at picquet may take in his five cards. The eldest hand having 12 cards dealt him, there remain 20 cards, any five of which may be in those he takes in; consequently we are here to find how many ways five cards may be taken out of 20. Therefore, by aphorism I. if we multiply 20, 19, 18, 17, 16, into each other, which will make 1860480, and that number be divided by 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, multiplied into each other, will make 120, the quotient, which is 15504, will be the number of ways five cards may be taken out of 20. From hence it follows, that it is 15503 to 1, that the eldest hand does not take in any five certain cards.

IV. To find the number of deals a person may play at the game of whist, without ever holding the same cards twice. The number of cards played with at whist being 52, and the number dealt to each person being 13, it follows, that by taking the same method as in the last experiment, that is, by multiplying 52 by 51, 50, &c, so on to 41, which will make 3,954,242,643,911,239,680,000, and then dividing that sum by 1, 2, 3, &c. to 13, which will make 6,227,020,800, the quotient, which is 635,013,559,600 will be the number of different ways 13 cards may be taken out of 52, and consequently the number sought.

The ARITHMETIC TRIANGLE;

or TABLE *for* COMBINATIONS.

Rank	A	B										
1	1											
2	1	2.										
3	1	3.	3.									
4	1	4.	6.	4.								
5	1	5.	10.	10.	5.							
6	1	6.	15.	20.	15.	6						
7	1	7.	21.	35.	35.	21.	7.					
8	1	8.	28.	56.	70.	56.	28.	8.				
9	1	9.	36.	84.	126.	126.	84.	36.	9.			
10	1	10.	45.	120.	210.	252.	210.	120.	45.	10.		
11	1	11.	55.	165.	330.	462.	462.	330.	165.	55.	11.	
12 *a*	1	12.	66.	220.	495.	792.	792.	495.	220.	66.	12.	1 *b*

c

The

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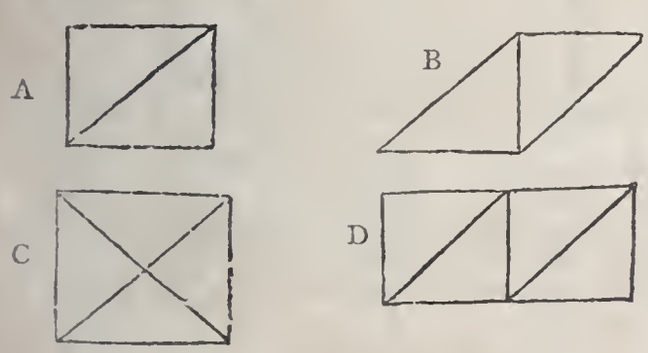
The construction of this table is very simple. The line A *a* consists of the first 12 numbers. The line A *b* consists everywhere of units; the second term 3, of the line B *c*, is composed of the two terms 1 and 2 in the preceding rank: the third term 7, in that line, is formed of the two terms 3 and 3 in the preceding rank: and so of the rest; every term, after the first, being composed of the two next terms in the preceding rank: and by the same method it may be continued to any number of ranks. To find by this table how often any number of things can be combined in another number, under 13, as suppose five cards out of 8: in the eighth rank look for the fifth term, which is 56, and that is the number required.

Though we have shown in the foregoing problems the manner of finding the combination of all numbers whatever, yet as this table answers the same purpose, for small numbers, by inspection only, it will be found useful on many occasions; as will appear by the following examples.

V. To find how many different sounds may be produced by striking on a harpsichord two or more of the seven natural notes at the same time. 1. The combinations of two in seven, by the foregoing triangle are, - - - - 21

2. The combinations of 3 in 7, are - -	35
3. The combinations of 4 in 7, are - -	35
4. The combinations of 5, are - - -	21
5. The combinations of 6, are - - -	7
6. The seven notes altogether once, - -	1
Therefore the number of all the sounds will be	120

VI. Take four square pieces of pasteboard, of the same dimensions, and divide them diagonally, that is, by drawing a line from two opposite angles, as in the figures, into 8 triangles; paint 7 of these triangles with the primitive colours, red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet, and let the eighth be white. To find how many chequers or regular four-sided figures, different either in form or colour, may be made out of those eight triangles. First, by combining two of these triangles, there may be formed either the triangular square A, or the inclined square B called a *rhomb*. Secondly, by combining four of the triangles, the large square C may be formed; or the long square D, called a *parallelogram*.



Now the first two squares, consisting of two parts out of 8, they may each of them, by the eighth rank of the triangle, be taken 28 different ways, which makes 56. And the last two squares, consisting of four parts, may each be taken by the same rank of the triangle 70 times, which makes - - 140

To which add the foregoing number - -	56
And the number of the different squares that may be formed of the 8 triangles will be	196

VII. A man has 12 different sorts of flowers, and a large number of each sort. He is desirous of setting them in beds or flourishes in his parterre: Six flowers in some, 7 in others, and 8 in others; so as to have the greatest variety possible; the flowers in no two beds to be the same. To find how many beds he must have. 1. The combinations of 6 in 12 by the last rank of the triangle, are - - - 924

2. The combinations of 7 in 12, are -	792
3. The combinations of 8 in 12, are -	495
Therefore the number of beds must be -	2211

VIII. To find the number of chances that may be thrown on two dice. As each die has six faces, and as each face of one die may be combined with all the faces of the others, it follows that 6 multiplied by 6, that is, 36, will be the number of all the chances; as is also evident from the following table:

Points.							Numb. of chances.	Numb. of points.
2	1.1						1	2
3	2.1	1.2					2	6
4	2.2	3.1	1.3				3	12
5	4.1	1.4	3.2	2.3			4	20
6	3.3	5.1	1.5	4.2	2.4		5	30
7	6.1	1.6	5.2	2.5	4.3	3.4	6	42
8	4.4	6.2	2.6	5.3	3.5		5	40
9	6.3	3.6	5.4	4.5			4	36
10	5.5	6.4	4.6				3	30
11	6.5	5.6					2	22
12	6.6						1	12
							36	252

It appears by this table, 1. That the number of chances for each point continually increases to the point of seven, and then continually decreases till 12: therefore if two points are proposed to be thrown, the equality, or the advantage of one over the other, is clearly visible (A). 2. The whole number of chances on the dice being 252, if that number be divided by 36, the number of different throws on the dice, the quotient is 7: it follows therefore, that at every throw there is an equal chance of bringing seven points. 3. As there are 36 chances on the dice, and only 6 of them doublets, it is 5 to 1, at any one throw, against throwing a doublet.

By

(A) It is easy from hence to determine whether a bet proposed at hazard, or any other game with the dice, be advantageous or not; if the dice be true (which, by the way, is rarely the case for any long time together, as it is so easy for those that are possessed of a dexterity of hand to change the true dice for false).

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By the ſame method the number of chances upon any number of dice may be found: for if 36 be multiplied by 6, that product, which is 216, will be the chances on 3 dice; and if that number be multiplied by 6, the product will be the chances of 4 dice, &c.

COMBINATIONS of the Cards. The following experiments, founded on the doctrine of combinations, may poſſibly amuſe a number of our readers. The tables given are the baſis of many experiments, as well on numbers, letters, and other ſubjects, as on the cards; but the effect produced by them with the laſt is the moſt ſurpriſing, as that which ſhould ſeem to prevent any colluſion, that is, the ſhuffling of the cards, is on the contrary the cauſe from whence it proceeds.

It is a matter of indifference what numbers are made uſe of in forming theſe tables. We ſhall here confine ourſelves to ſuch as are applicable to the ſubſequent experiments. Any one may conſtruct them in ſuch manner as is agreeable to the purpoſes he intends they ſhall anſwer.

To make them, for example, correſpond to the nine digits and a cipher, there muſt be ten cards, and at the top of nine of them muſt be written one of the digits, and on the tenth a cipher. Theſe cards muſt be placed upon each other in the regular order, the number 1 being on the firſt, and the cipher at bottom. You then take the cards in your left hand, as is commonly done in ſhuffling, and taking off the two top cards 1 and 2, you place the two following, 3 and 4, upon them; and under thoſe four cards the three following 5, 6, and 7; at the top you put the cards 8 and 9, and at the bottom the card marked 0; conſtantly placing in ſucceſſion 2 at top and 3 at bottom: And they will then be in the following order:

8.9..3.4..1.2...5.6.7..0

If you ſhuffle them a ſecond time, in the ſame manner, they will then ſtand in this order:

6.7..3.4..8.9..1.2.5.7..0

Thus, at every new ſhuffle they will have a different order, as is expreſſed in the following lines:

1 ſhuffle	8.9.3.4.1.2.5.6.7.0
2	6.7.3.4.8.9.1.2.5.0
3	2.5.3.4.6.7.8.9.1.0
4	9.1.3.4.2.5.6.7.8.0
5	7.8.3.4.9.1.2.5.6.0
6	5.6.3.4.7.8.9.1.2.0
7	1.2.3.4.5.6.7.8.9.0

It is a remarkable property of this number, that the cards return to the order in which they were firſt placed, after a number of ſhuffles, which added to the number of columns that never change the order, is equal to the number of cards. Thus the number of ſhuffles is 7, and the number of columns in which the cards marked 3, 4, &c. never change their places is 3, which are equal to 10, the number of the cards. This property is not common to all numbers; the cards ſometimes returning to the firſt order in a leſs number, and ſometimes in a greater number of ſhuffles than that of the cards.

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TABLES of COMBINATIONS,

Conſtructed on the foregoing principles.

I. *For ten Numbers.*

Order before dealing.	After 1ſt deal.	After the 2d.	After the 3d.
1	8	6	2
2	9	7	5
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	1	8	6
6	2	9	7
7	5	1	8
8	6	2	9
9	7	5	1
0	0	0	0

Theſe tables, and the following examples at piquet, except the 36th, appear to have been compoſed by M. Guyot.

II. *For twenty-four Numbers.*

Order before dealing.	After 1ſt deal.	After the 2d.	After the 3d.
1	23	21	17
2	24	22	20
3	18	12	2
4	19	15	7
5	13	5	13
6	14	6	14
7	8	9	3
8	9	3	18
9	3	18	12
10	4	19	15
11	1	23	21
12	2	24	22
13	5	13	5
14	6	14	6
15	7	8	9
16	10	4	19
17	11	1	23
18	12	2	24
19	15	7	8
20	16	10	4
21	17	11	1
22	20	16	10
23	21	17	11
24	22	20	16

III. *For twenty-ſeven Numbers.*

Order before dealing.	After 1ſt deal.	After the 2d.	After the 3d.
1	23	21	17
2	24	22	20
3	18	12	2
4	19	15	7
5	13	5	13
6	14	6	14
7	8	9	3
8	9	3	18
9	3	18	12
10	4	19	16
11	1	13	21
12	2	24	22
13	5	13	5

Combination.

Order before dealing.	After 1ſt deal.	After the 2d.	After the 3d.
14	6	14	6
15	7	8	9
16	10	4	19
17	11	1	23
18	12	2	24
19	15	7	8
20	16	10	4
21	17	11	1
22	20	16	10
23	21	17	11
24	22	20	16
25	25	25	25
26	26	26	26
27	27	27	27

IV. *For Thirty-two Numbers.*

Order before dealing.	After 1ſt deal.	After the 2d.	After the 3d.
1	28	26	22
2	29	27	25
3	23	17	7
4	24	20	12
5	18	10	9
6	19	11	3
7	13	1	28
8	14	2	29
9	8	14	2
10	9	8	14
11	3	23	17
12	4	24	20
13	1	28	26
14	2	29	27
15	5	18	10
16	6	19	11
17	7	13	1
18	10	9	8
19	11	3	23
20	12	4	24
21	15	5	18
22	16	6	19
23	17	7	13
24	20	12	4
25	21	15	5
26	22	16	6
27	25	21	15
28	26	22	16
29	27	25	21
30	30	30	30
31	31	31	31
32	32	32	32

I. "Several letters that contain no meaning, being "written upon cards, to make them, after they have "been twice ſhuffled, to give an anſwer to a queſtion "that ſhall be propoſed; as, for example, *What "is love?*" Let 24 letters be written on as many cards which, after they have been twice ſhuffled, ſhall give the following anſwer:

A dream of joy that ſoon is oe'r.

Firſt write one of the letters in that line on each of the cards (B). Then write the anſwer on a paper, and aſſign one of the 24 firſt numbers to each card, in the following order:

A D R E A M O F J O Y T H A T S O O N
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19
I S O 'E R.
20 21 22 23 24

Next write on another paper a line of numbers from 1 to 24, and looking in the table for 24 combinations, you will ſee that the firſt number after the ſecond ſhuffle is 21; therefore the card that has the firſt letter of the anſwer, which is A, muſt be placed againſt that number, in the line of numbers you have juſt made (C). In like manner the number 22 being the ſecond of the ſame column, indicates that the card which anſwers to the ſecond letter D of the anſwer, muſt be placed againſt that number; and ſo of the reſt. The cards will then ſtand in the following order:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 18 19
O O F S A M N T O I S R H A E O 'E J
20 21 22 23 24
R A D Y T

From whence it follows, that after theſe cards have been twice ſhuffled, they muſt infallibly ſtand in the order of the letters in the anſwer.

Obſerve. 1. You ſhould have ſeveral queſtions, with their anſwers, conſiſting of 24 letters, written on cards; theſe cards ſhould be put in caſes and numbered, that you may know to which queſtion each anſwer belongs. You then preſent the queſtions; and when any one of them is choſen, you pull out the caſe that contains the anſwer, and ſhowing that the letters written on them make no ſenſe, you then ſhuffle them, and the anſwer becomes obvious.

2. To make this experiment the more extraordinary, you may have three cards, on each of which an anſwer is written; one of which cards muſt be a little wider, and another a little longer, than the others. You give theſe three cards to any one, and when he has privately choſen one of them, he gives you the other two, which you put in your pocket without looking at them, having diſcovered by feeling which he has choſen. You then pull out the caſe that contains the cards that anſwer to his queſtion, and perform as before.

3. You may alſo contrive to have a long card at the bottom after the ſecond ſhuffle. The cards may be then cut ſeveral times, till you perceive by the touch that the long card is at bottom, and then give the anſwer;

(B) Theſe letters ſhould be written in capitals on one of the corners of each card, that the words may be eaſily legible when the cards are ſpread open.

(C) For the ſame reaſon, if you would have the anſwer after one ſhuffle, the cards muſt be placed according to the firſt column of the table; or if after three ſhuffles, according to the third column.

Combination.

ſwer; for the repeated cuttings, however often, will make no alteration in the order of the cards.

The ſecond of theſe obſervations is applicable to ſome of the ſubſequent experiments, and the third may be practiſed in almoſt all experiments with the cards. You ſhould take care to put up the cards as ſoon as the anſwer has been ſhewn; ſo that if any one ſhould deſire the experiment to be repeated, you may offer another queſtion, and pull out thoſe cards that contain the anſwer.

Though this experiment cannot fail of exciting at all times pleaſure and ſurpriſe, yet it muſt be owned that a great part of the applauſe it receives ariſes from the addreſs with which it is performed.

II. "The 24 letters of the alphabet being written "upon ſo many cards, to ſhuffle them, and pronounce "the letters ſhall then be in their natural order; but "that not ſucceeding, to ſhuffle them a ſecond time, "and then ſhow them in proper order." Write the 24 letters on the cards in the following order:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
R S H Q E F T P G U X C

13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
N O D Y Z I K & A B L M

The cards being diſpoſed in this manner, ſhow them upon the table, that it may appear they are promiſcuouſly marked. Then ſhuffle and lay them again on the table, pronouncing that they will be then in alphabetical order. Appear to be ſurpriſed that you have failed; take them up again, and give them a ſecond ſhuffle, and then counting them down on the table they will all be in their natural order.

III. "Several letters being written promiſcuouſly "upon 32 cards, after they have been once ſhuffled, "to find in a part of them a queſtion; and then ſhuf- "fling the remainder a ſecond time, to ſhow the an- "ſwer. Suppoſe the queſtion to be, *What is each Bri- "ton's boaſt?* and the anſwer, *His liberty;* which "taken together contain 32 letters."

After you have written thoſe letters on 32 cards, write on a paper the words, *his liberty*, and annex to the letters the firſt ten numbers thus:

H I S L I B E R T Y.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Then have recourſe to the table of combinations for ten numbers, and apply the reſpective numbers to them in the ſame manner as in experiment I. taking the firſt column, as theſe are to be ſhuffled only once according to that order.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I B S L E R T H I Y

This is the order in which theſe cards muſt ſtand after the whole number 32 has been once ſhuffled, ſo that after a ſecond ſhuffle they may ſtand in their proper order. Next diſpoſe the whole number of letters according to the firſt column for 32 letters; the laſt ten are to be here placed in the order above; as follows:

W H A T I S E A C H B R I T O N'S
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17
B O A S T?
18 19 20 21 22
I B S L E R T H I Y
23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32

Therefore, by the firſt column of the table, they will next ſtand thus:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
I T B R O N S C H B O A E A S T *long card.*

17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32
I I S B S L I B E R T W H H I Y

You muſt obſerve, that the card here placed the 16th in order, being the laſt of the queſtion, is a long card; that you may cut them, or have them cut, after the firſt ſhuffle, at that part, and by that means ſeparate them from the other ten cards that contain the anſwer.

Your cards being thus diſpoſed, you ſhow that they make no meaning; then ſhuffle them once, and cutting them at the long card, you give the firſt part to any one, who reads the queſtion, but can find no anſwer in the other, which you open before him; you then ſhuffle them a ſecond time, and ſhow the anſwer as above.

IV. "To write 32 letters on ſo many cards, then "ſhufflle and deal them by twos to two perſons, in "ſuch manner, that the cards of one ſhall contain a "queſtion, and thoſe of the other an anſwer. Sup- "poſe the queſtion to be, *Is nothing certain?* and the "anſwer, *Yes, diſappointment.*"

Over the letters of this queſtion and anſwer, write the following numbers, which correſpond to the order in which the cards are to be dealt by two and two.

I S N O T H I N G C E R T A I N?
31 32 27 28 23 24 19 20 15 16 11 12 7 8 3 4
Y E S, D I S A P O I N T M E N T.
29 30 25 26 21 22 17 18 13 14 9 10 5 6 1 2

Then have recourſe to the firſt column of the table for 32 numbers, and diſpoſe theſe 32 cards in the following order, by that column.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
O I E R G C A N T P I N T A I S

17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32
T M E H S D I N N O Y N T E I S

The cards being thus diſpoſed, ſhuffle them once, and deal them two and two: when one of the parties will neceſſarily have the queſtion, and the other the anſwer.

Inſtead of letters you may write words upon the 32 cards, 16 of which may contain a queſtion, and the remainder the anſwer; or what other matter you pleaſe. If there be found difficulty in accommodating the words to the number of cards, there may be two or more letters or ſyllables written upon one card.

V. "The five beatitudes." The five bleſſings we will ſuppoſe to be, 1. Science. 2. Courage. 3. Health. 4. Riches, and 5. Virtue. Theſe are to be found upon cards that you deal, one by one, to five perſons. Firſt, write the letters of theſe words ſucceſſively, in the

Combination.

the order they ſtand, and then add the numbers here annexed to them.

S C I E N C E C O U R A G E
31 26 21 16 11 6 1 32 27 22 17 12 7 2
H E A L T H R I C H E S
28 23 18 13 8 3 29 24 19 14 9 4
V I R T U E
30 25 20 15 10 5

Then range them in order agreeable to the firſt column of the table for 32 numbers, as in the experiment. Thus,

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
L	H	N	A	T	E	R	E	U	A	C	R	G	T	I	U
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
E	E	C	I	I	C	H	S	O	H	R	E	E	V	S	C

Next take a pack of cards and write on the four firſt the word Science; on the four next, the word Courage; and ſo of the reſt.

Matters being thus prepared, you ſhow that the cards on which the letters are written convey no meaning. Then take the pack on which the words are written, and ſpreading open the firſt four cards, with their backs upward, you deſire the firſt perſon to chooſe one. Then cloſe thoſe cards, and ſpread the next four to the ſecond perſon; and ſo to all the five; telling them to hold up their cards left you ſhould have a confederate in the room.

You then ſhuffle the cards, and deal them one by one, in the common order, beginning with the perſon who choſe the firſt card, and each one will find in his hand the ſame word as is written on his card. You will obſerve, that after the ſixth round of dealing, there will be two cards left, which you give to the firſt and ſecond perſons, as their words contain a letter more than the others.

VI. "The cards of the game of piquet being mixed together, after ſhuffling them, to bring, by cutting them, all the cards of each ſuit together." The order in which the cards muſt be placed to produce the effect deſired being eſtabliſhed on the ſame principle as that explained in experiment II. except that the ſhuffling is here to be repeated three times, we think it will be ſufficient to give the order in which they are to be placed before the firſt ſhuffle.

Order of the Cards.

1 Ace } clubs
2 Knave
3 Eight } diamonds
4 Seven
wide card
5 Ten clubs
6 Eight } ſpades
7 Seven
wide card
8 Ten } diamonds
9 Nine
10 Queen
11 Knave
12 Queen clubs
13 Eight } hearts
14 Seven
wide card
15 Ten } ſpades
16 Nine
17 King clubs
18 Ten } hearts
19 Nine
20 Seven clubs
21 Ace diamonds
22 Knave ſpades
23 Queen hearts
24 Knave hearts
25 Ace ſpades
26 King diamonds
27 Nine clubs
28 Ace } hearts
29 King
30 Eight clubs
31 King } ſpades
32 Queen

You then ſhuffle the cards, and cutting at the wide card, which will be the ſeven of hearts, you lay the eight cards that are cut, which will be the ſuit of hearts, down on the table. Then ſhuffling the remaining cards a ſecond time, you cut at the ſecond wide card, which will be the ſeven of ſpades, and lay, in like manner, the eight ſpades down on the table. You ſhuffle the cards a third time, and offering them to any one to cut, he will naturally cut them at the wide card (D), which is the ſeven of diamonds, and conſequently divide the remaining cards into two equal parts, one of which will be diamonds and the other clubs.

VII. "The cards at piquet being all mixed together, to divide the pack into two equal parts, and name the number of points contained in each part." You are firſt to agree that each king, queen, and knave, ſhall count, as uſual, 10, the ace 1, and the other cards according to the number of the points. Then diſpoſe the cards, by the table for 32 numbers, in the following order, and obſerve that the laſt card of the firſt diviſion muſt be a wide card.

Order of the Cards before ſhuffling.

1 Seven hearts
2 Nine clubs
3 Eight hearts
4 Eight } ſpades
5 Knave
6 Ten
7 Queen } clubs
8 Ace
9 Ace hearts
wide card
10 Nine hearts
11 Queen ſpades
12 Knave clubs
13 Ten diamonds
14 Ten } hearts
15 King
16 Queen
17 Nine diamonds
18 Ace ſpades
19 Ten clubs
20 Knave } diamonds
21 Eight
22 King
23 Seven ſpades
24 Seven } diamonds
25 Queen
26 Knave hearts
27 King clubs
28 Nine } ſpades
29 King
30 Ace diamonds
31 Seven } clubs
32 Eight

You then ſhuffle them carefully, according to the method before deſcribed, and they will ſtand in the following order.

(D) You muſt take particular notice whether they be cut at the wide card, and if they are not, you muſt have hem cut, or cut them again yourſelf.

Combination.

Cards.	Numbers.	Cards.	Numbers.
		brought up	34
1 Nine	9	6 Ten clubs	10
2 King } spades	10	7 Ten diamonds	10
3 Seven	7	8 Ten hearts	10
4 Seven diamonds	7	9 Ace clubs	1
5 Ace spades	1	10 Ace hearts (wide card)	1
carried up	34	total	66

		brought up	101
11 Eight hearts	8	22 Queen hearts	10
12 Eight spades	8	23 Nine	9
13 Seven hearts	7	24 Knave	10
14 Nine clubs	9	25 Eight } diamonds	8
15 Knave } spades	10	26 King	10
16 Ten	10	27 Queen	10
17 Queen clubs	10	28 Knave hearts	10
18 Nine hearts	9	29 King clubs	10
19 Queen spades	10	30 Ace diamonds	1
20 Knave clubs	10	31 Seven } clubs	7
21 King hearts	10	32 Eight	8
carried up	101	total	194

When the cards are by shuffling disposed in this order, you cut them at the wide card, and pronounce that the cards you have cut off contain 66 points, and consequently the remaining part 194.

VIII. "The Inconceivable Repique (E)." When you would perform this experiment with the cards used in the last, you must observe not to disorder the first 10 cards in laying them down on the table. Putting those cards together, in their proper order therefore, you shuffle them a second time in the same manner, and offer them to any one to cut, observing carefully if he cut them at the wide card, which will be the ace of hearts, and will then be at top; if not, you must make him, under some pretence or other, cut them till it is; and the cards will then be ranged in such order that you will repique the person against whom you play, though you let him choose (even after he has cut) in what suit you shall make the repique.

Order of the cards after they have been shuffled and cut.

1 Eight hearts	13 Seven } clubs
2 Eight } spades	14 Eight
3 Knave	15 Knave hearts
4 Ten	16 King clubs
5 Queen } clubs	17 Nine } diamonds
6 Knave	18 Knave
7 King } hearts	19 Nine hearts
8 Queen	20 Queen spades
9 Eight } diamonds	21 Seven hearts
10 King	22 Nine clubs
11 Queen	23 Ten hearts
12 Ace	24 Ace clubs
25 Seven spades	30 Ten clubs
26 Seven diamonds	31 Ten diamonds
27 Nine spades	32 Ace hearts
28 King } spades	wide card.
29 Ace	

The cards being thus disposed, you ask your adversary in what suit you shall repique him? If he say in clubs or diamonds, you must deal the cards by threes, and the hands will be as follows:

Elder.	Younger.
Hearts, king	Clubs, ace
——— queen	——— king
——— knave	——— queen
——— nine	——— knave
——— eight	——— nine
——— seven	Diamonds, ace
Spades, queen	——— king
——— knave	——— queen
——— eight	——— knave
Diamonds, eight	——— nine
Clubs, eight	Spades, ten
——— seven	Hearts, ten
Rentrée, or take in of the elder.	Rentrée of the younger.
Seven spades	Ten clubs
Seven diamonds	Ten diamonds
Nine } spades	Ace hearts
King	
Ace	

If he against whom you play, who is supposed to be elder hand, has named clubs for the repique, and has taken in five cards, you must then lay out the queen, knave, and nine of diamonds, and you will have, with the three cards you take in, a sixiem major in clubs, and quatorze tens. If he leave one or two cards, you must discard all the diamonds.

If he require to be repiqued in diamonds, then discard the queen, knave, and nine of clubs: or all the clubs, if he leave two cards; and will then have a hand of the same strength as before.

Note. If the adversary should discard five of his hearts, you will not repique him, as he will then have a septiem in spades: or if he only take one card: but neither of these any one can do, who has the least knowledge of the game. If the person against whom you play would be repiqued in hearts or spades, you must deal the cards by twos, and the game will stand thus:

Elder hand.	Younger hand.
King } diamonds	Ace } clubs
Knave	King
Nine	Ace } diamonds
Eight	Queen

Queen

(E) This manœuvre of piquet was invented by the countess of L——— (a French lady), and communicated by her to M. Guyot.

Combination.

Elder hand.	Younger hand.
Queen, Knave, Nine } clubs	Queen, Knave, Ten } ſpades
Eight, Seven	King, Queen, Knave, Ten, Nine } hearts
Eight, Seven } hearts	
Eight ſpades	
Rentrée	Rentrée.
Seven ſpades	Ten clubs
Seven diamonds	Ten diamonds
Nine, King, Ace } ſpades	Ace hearts

If he require to be repiqued in hearts, you keep the quint to a king in hearts, and the ten of ſpades, and lay out which of the reſt you pleaſe; then, even if he ſhould leave two cards, you will have a ſixiem major in hearts, and quatorze tens, which will make a repique.

But if he demand to be repiqued in ſpades; at the end of the deal you muſt dexterouſly paſs the three cards that are at the bottom of the ſtock (that is, the ten of clubs, ten of diamonds, and ace of hearts) to the top (F), and by that means you reſerve the nine, king, and ace of ſpades for yourſelf; ſo that by keeping the quint in hearts, though you ſhould be obliged to lay out four cards, you will have a ſixiem to a king in ſpades, with which and the quint in hearts you muſt make a repique.

Obſerve here likewiſe, that if the adverſary lay out only three cards, you will not make the repique; but that he will never do, unleſs he be quite ignorant of the game, or has ſome knowledge of your intention.

This laſt ſtroke of piquet has gained great applauſe, when thoſe that have publicly performed it have known how to conduct it dexterouſly. Many perſons who underſtand the nature of combining the cards, have gone as far as the paſſing the three cards from the bottom of the ſtock, and have then been forced to confeſs their ignorance of the manner in which it was performed.

IX. "The Metamorphoſed Cards." Provide 32 cards that are differently coloured, on which ſeveral different words are written, and different objects painted. Theſe cards are to be dealt two and two to four perſons, and at three different times, ſhuffling them each time. After the firſt deal, every one's cards are to be of the ſame colour; after the ſecond deal they are all to have objects that are ſimilar: and after the third, words that convey a ſentiment.

Diſpoſe of the cards in the following order.

Cards.	Colours.	Objects.	Words.
1	Yellow	Bird	I find
2	Yellow	Bird	In you
3	Green	Flower	Charming
4	Green	Flower	Flowers
5	White	Bird	To hear
6	White	Orange	Beauty
7	Red	Butterfly	My
8	Red	Flower	Notes
9	Red	Flower	In
10	Red	Butterfly	Shepherdeſs
11	Green	Butterfly	Lover
12	Green	Butterfly	Your
13	White	Flower	Of
14	White	Flower	An inconſtant
15	Yellow	Orange	Image
16	Yellow	Flower	Enchanting
17	White	Orange	Adorn
18	Yellow	Butterfly	My
19	Yellow	Butterfly	Phyllis
20	White	Bird	Birds
21	Red	Orange	Sing
22	Red	Orange	Dear
23	Green	Orange	And ſweetneſs
24	Green	Orange	The
25	Green	Bird	Of
26	Green	Bird	Preſent
27	Yellow	Flower	As
28	Red	Bird	Changes
29	Red	Bird	Boſom
30	Yellow	Orange	Me
31	White	Butterfly	Your
32	White	Butterfly	I long

The cards thus coloured, figured, and tranſcribed, are to be put in a caſe, in the order they here ſtand.

When you would perform this experiment, you take the cards out of the caſe, and ſhow, without changing the order in which they were put, that the colours, objects, and words, are all placed promiſcuouſly. You then ſhuffle them in the ſame manner as before, and deal them, two and two, to four perſons, obſerving that they do not take up their cards till all are dealt, nor mix them together: and the eight cards dealt to each perſon will be found all of one colour. You then take each perſon's cards, and put thoſe of the ſecond perſon under thoſe of the firſt, and thoſe of the fourth perſon under thoſe of the third. After which you ſhuffle them a ſecond time; and having dealt them in the ſame manner, on the firſt perſon's cards will be painted all the birds; on the ſecond perſon's cards all the butterflies; on thoſe of the third, the oranges; and on thoſe of the fourth, the flowers. You take the cards a ſecond time, and obſerving the ſame precautions, ſhuffle and deal them as before; and then the firſt perſon, who had the laſt time the birds in his hand, will have the words that compoſe this ſentence:

Sing, dear birds; I long to hear your enchanting notes.

The ſecond perſon, who the laſt deal had the butterflies, will now have theſe words:

Of an inconſtant lover your changes preſent me the image.

The third, who had the oranges, will have this ſentence:

As

(F) The manner of doing this is explained in the article LEGERDEMAIN.

As in my Phyllis, I find in you beauty and sweetness.

The fourth, who had the flowers, will have these words:

Charming flowers, adorn the bosom of my shepherdess.

It seems quite unnecessary to give any further detail, as they who understand the foregoing experiments will easily perform this.

Among the different purposes to which the doctrine of combinations may be applied, those of writing in cipher, and deciphering, hold a principal place. See the article CIPHER.

COMBINATION, in *Chemistry*, signifies the union of two bodies of different natures, from which a new compound body results. For example, when an acid is united with an alkali, we say that a combination betwixt these two saline substances takes place; because from this union a neutral salt results, which is composed of an acid and an alkali.

COMBUST, in *Astronomy*. When a planet is in conjuction with the sun, or not distant from it above half its disk, it is said to be combust, or in combustion.

According to Argol, a planet is combust, or in combustion, when not above eight degrees and thirty minutes distant from the sun, either before or after him.

COMBUSTIO PECUNIÆ, the ancient way of trying mixed and corrupt money, by melting it down, upon payments into the exchequer. In the time of King Henry II. a constitution was made, called the trial by *combustion*; the practice of which differed little or nothing from the present method of assaying silver. But whether this examination of money by combustion was to reduce an equation of money only to sterling, viz. a due proportion of alloy with copper, or to reduce it to pure fine silver, does not appear. On making the constitution of trial it was considered, that though the money did answer *numero et pondere*, it might be deficient in value; because mixed with copper or brass, &c.

COMBUSTION, a term denoting the operation of fire upon any inflammable substance, by which it smokes, flames, and is reduced to ashes.

There is not a phenomenon in nature by which the attention of philosophers has been more engaged, or which has puzzled them more to account for, than this very common operation. To explain it, theories have been invented, the most opposite and contradictory to one another that can be imagined; and, till very lately, the state of science did not afford data sufficient to explain it in a rational manner. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

COMEDY, a sort of dramatic poetry, which gives a view of common and private life, recommends virtue, and corrects the vices and follies of mankind by means of ridicule. See the article POETRY.

This last kind alone was received among the Romans, who nevertheless made a new subdivision of it into ancient, middle, and new, according to the various periods of the commonwealth. Among the ancient comedies were reckoned those of Livius Andronicus; among the middle those of Pacuvius; and among the new ones, those of Terence. They likewise distinguished comedy according to the quality of the persons represented, and the dress they wore, into togatæ, prætextatæ, trabeatæ, and tabernariæ, which last agrees pretty nearly with our farces. Among us, comedy is distinguished from farce, as the former represents nature as she is; the other distorts and overcharges her. They both paint from the life, but with different views: the one to make nature known, the other to make her ridiculous.

COMENIUS, JOHN AMOS, a grammarian and Protestant divine, born in Moravia in 1592. He was eminent for his design to introduce a new method of teaching languages; for which purpose he published some essays in 1616, and had prepared some others, when the Spaniards pillaged his library, after having taken the city of Fulnec, where he was minister and master of the school. Comenius fled to Lesna, a city of Poland, and taught Latin there. The book he published in 1631, under the title of *Janua Linguarum reserata*, gained him a prodigious reputation, insomuch that he was offered a commission for regulating all the schools in Poland. The parliament of England desired his assistance to regulate the schools in that kingdom. He arrived at London in 1641; and would have been received by a committee to hear his plan, had not the parliament been taken up with other matters. He therefore went to Sweden, being invited by a generous patron, who settled a stipend upon him that delivered him from the fatigues of teaching; and now he employed himself wholly in discovering general methods for those who instructed youth. In 1657 he published the different parts of his new method of teaching. He was not only taken up with the reformation of schools; but he also filled his brain with prophecies, the fall of Antichrist, Millennium, &c. At last Comenius took it into his head to address Louis XIV. of France, and to send him a copy of the prophecies of Drabicius; insinuating, that it was to this monarch God promised the empire of the world. He became sensible at last of the vanity of his labours, and died in 1671.

COMET, an opaque, spherical, and solid body like a planet, performing revolutions about the sun in elliptical orbits, which have the sun in one of their foci.

There is a popular division of comets into *tailed*, *bearded*, and *hairy* comets; though this division rather relates to the different circumstances of the same comet, than to the phenomena of several. Thus, when the light is westward of the sun, and sets after it, the comet is said to be *tailed*, because the train follows it in the manner of a tail: when the comet is eastward of the sun, and moves from it, the comet is said to be *bearded*, because the light marches before it in the manner of a beard. Lastly, when the comet and the sun are diametrically opposite (the earth between them), the train is hid behind the body of the comet, except a little that appears round it in form of a border of *hair*: and from this last appearance the word comet is derived; as κομητης, *cometa*, comes from κομη, *coma*, hair. But there have been comets whose disk was as clear, as round, and as well defined, as that of Jupiter, without either tail, beard, or coma. See ASTRONOMY *Index*.

COMETARIUM,

COMETARIUM, a curious machine, exhibiting an idea of the revolution of a comet about the ſun. See ASTRONOMY *Index*.

COMETEAN, a town of Bohemia in the circle of Saltz, with a handſome town-houſe. It was taken by ſtorm in 1421, and all the inhabitants, men, women, and children, put to the ſword. It is ſeated in a fertile plain, in E. Long. 13. 35. N. Lat. 50. 30.

COMETES. See BOTANY *Index*.

COMFREY. See SYMPHYTUM, BOTANY *Index*.

COMINES, PHILIP DE, an excellent hiſtorian, born of a noble family in Flanders in 1446. He lived in a kind of intimacy with Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, for about eight years; but being ſeduced to the court of France by Louis XI. he was highly promoted by him, and executed ſeveral ſucceſsful negociations. After this king's death he experienced many troubles on account of being a foreigner, by the envy of other courtiers, and lay long in priſon before he was diſcharged: he died in 1509. Comines was a man of more natural abilities than learning; he ſpoke ſeveral living, but knew nothing of the dead languages; he has left behind him ſome memoirs of his own times, that are admired by all true judges of hiſtory. Catherine de Medicis uſed to ſay, that Comines made as many heretics in politics as Luther had done in religion.

COMINES, a town of French Flanders on the lines which the French have made to defend their country againſt the Auſtrian Netherlands. It is ſituated on the river Lis, in E. Long. 3. 1. N. Lat. 50. 30.

COMITATUS, in *Law*, a county. Ingulphus tells us, that England was firſt divided into counties by King Alfred; and the counties into hundreds, and theſe again into tythings: and Forteſcue writes, that *regnum Angliæ per comitatus, ut regnum Franciæ per ballivatus diſtinguitur*. Sometimes it is taken for a territory or juriſdiction of a particular place; as in Mat. Paris, anno 1234. See COUNTY.

COMITIA, in Roman antiquity, were general aſſemblies of the people, lawfully called by ſome magiſtrate for the enjoinment or prohibition of any thing by their votes.

The proper comitia were of three ſorts; *curiata*, *centuriata*, and *tributa*; with reference to the three grand diviſions of the city and people into *curiæ*, *centuriæ*, and *tribes*: For, by comitia *calata*, which we ſometimes meet with in authors, in earlier times were meant all the comitia in general; the word *calata* from καλεω, or *calo*, being their common epithet; though it was at laſt reſtrained to two ſorts of aſſemblies, thoſe for the creation of prieſts, and thoſe for the regulation of laſt wills and teſtaments.

The *comitia curiata* owe their origin to the diviſion which Romulus made of the people into 30 curiæ; ten being contained in every tribe. They anſwered in moſt reſpects to the pariſhes in our cities, being not only ſeparated by proper bounds and limits, but diſtinguiſhed too by their different places ſet apart for the celebration of divine ſervice, which was performed by particular prieſts (one to every curia), with the name of *curiones*.

Before the inſtitution of the comitia centuriata, all the grand concerns of the ſtate were tranſacted in the aſſembly of the curiæ; as the election of kings and other chief officers, the making and abrogating of laws, and the judging of capital cauſes. After the expulſion of the kings, when the commons had obtained the privilege to have tribunes and ædiles, they elected them for ſome time at theſe aſſemblies; but that ceremony being at length transferred to the comitia tributa, the curiæ were never convened to give their votes, except now and then upon account of making ſome particular law relating to adoptions, wills, and teſtaments, or the creation of officers for an expedition; or for electing ſome of the prieſts, as the *flamines*, and the *curio maximus*, or ſuperintendant of the curiones, who were themſelves choſen by every particular curia.

The power of calling theſe aſſemblies belonged at firſt only to the kings; but upon the eſtabliſhment of the democracy, the ſame privilege was allowed to moſt of the chief magiſtrates, and ſometimes to the pontifices.

The perſons who had the liberty of voting here were ſuch Roman citizens as belonged to the curiæ; or ſuch as actually lived in the city, and conformed to the cuſtoms and rites of their proper curiæ; all thoſe being excluded who dwelt without the bounds of the city, retaining the ceremonies of their own country, though they had been honoured with the *jus civitatis*, or admitted free citizens of Rome. The place where the curiæ met was the *comitium*, a part of the forum: No ſet time was appointed for the holding theſe, or any other of the comitia, but only as buſineſs required.

The people being met together, and confirmed by the report of good omens from the augurs (which was neceſſary in all the aſſemblies), the rogatio, or buſineſs to be propoſed to them was publicly read. After this (if none of the magiſtrates interpoſed), upon the order of him that preſided in the comitia, the people divided into their proper curias, and conſulted of the matter; and then the curias being called out, as it happened by lot, gave their votes man by man, in ancient times *viva voce*, and afterwards by tablets; the moſt votes in every curia going for the voice of the whole curia, and the moſt curiæ for the general conſent of the people.

In the time of Cicero, the comitia curiata were ſo much out of faſhion, that they were formed only by 30 lictors repreſenting the 30 curiæ; whence, in his ſecond oration againſt Rullus, he calls them *comitia adumbrata*.

The *comitia centuriata* were inſtituted by Servius Tullius; who, obliging every one to give a true account of what he was worth, according to thoſe accounts, divided the people into ſix ranks or claſſes, which he ſubdivided into 193 centuries. The firſt claſſis, containing the equites and richeſt citizens, conſiſted of 98 centuries. The ſecond, taking in the tradeſmen and mechanics, conſiſted of 22 centuries. The third, 20. The fourth, 22. The fifth, 30. The ſixth, filled up with the poorer ſort, but one century: and this though it had the ſame name with the reſt, yet was ſeldom regarded, or allowed any power in public matters. Hence it is a common thing with the Roman authors, when they ſpeak of the claſſes, to reckon no more than five, the ſixth not being worth their notice. This laſt claſſis or order was divided

vided into two parts or orders; the *proletarii* and the *capite censi*. The former, as their name implies, were designed purely to stock the republic with men, since they could supply it with so little money: and the latter, who paid the lowest tax of all, were rather counted and marshalled by their heads than by their estates.

Persons of the first rank, by reason of their pre-eminence, had the name of *classici*; whence came the name of *classici auctores* for the most approved writers. All others, of what classis soever, were said to be *infra classem*. The assembly of the people by centuries was held for the electing of consuls, censors, and prætors; as also for the judging of persons accused of what they called *crimen perduellionis*, or actions by which the party had showed himself an enemy to the state, and for the confirmation of all such laws as were proposed by the chief magistrates, who had the privilege of calling these assemblies.

The place appointed for their meeting was the *campus martius*; because in the primitive times of the commonwealth, when they were under continual apprehensions of enemies, the people, to prevent any sudden assault, went armed, in martial order, to hold these assemblies; and were for that reason forbidden by the laws to meet in the city, because an army was upon no account to be marshalled within the walls; yet, in later ages, it was thought sufficient to place a body of soldiers as a guard in the janiculum, where an imperial standard was erected, the taking down of which denoted the conclusion of the comitia.

Though the time of holding these comitia for other matters was undetermined; yet the magistrates, after the year of the city 601, when they began to enter on their place, on the kalends of January, were constantly *designed* about the end of July and the beginning of August.

All the time between their election and confirmation they continued as private persons, that inquisition might be made into the election, and the other candidates might have time to enter objections, if they met with any suspicion of unfair dealing. Yet, at the election of the censors, this custom did not hold; but as soon as they were elected, they were immediately invested with the honour.

By the institution of these comitia, Servius Tullius secretly conveyed the whole of the power from the commons; for the centuries of the first and richest class being called out first, who were three more in number than all the rest put together, if they all agreed, as generally they did, the business was already decided, and the other classes were needless and insignificant. However, the three last scarce ever came to vote.

The commons, in the time of the free state, to remedy this disadvantage, obtained, that before they proceeded to voting any matter at these comitia, that century should give their suffrages first upon whom it fell by lot, with the name of *centuria prerogativa*; the rest being to follow according to the order of their classes. After the constitution of the 35 tribes into which the classes and their centuries were divided, in the first place, the tribes cast lots which should be the *prerogative tribe*; and then the centuries of the tribes for the honour of being a prerogative century. All the other tribes and centuries had the appellation of *jure vocatæ*, because they were called out according to their proper places.

The prerogative century being chosen by lot, the chief magistrate, sitting in a tent in the middle of the campus martius, ordered that century to come out and give their voices; upon which they presently separated from the rest of the multitude, and came into an inclosed apartment, which they termed *septa* or *ovilia*, passing over the *pontes* or narrow boards laid there for the occasion; on which account *de pontibus dejici* signifies to be denied the privilege of voting, and persons thus dealt with are called *depontani*.

At the higher end of the pontes stood the *diribitores* (a sort of under officers so called from their marshalling the people), and delivered to every man, in the election of magistrates, as many tablets as there appeared candidates, one of whose names was written upon every tablet. A proper number of great chests were set ready in the *septa*, and every body threw in which tablet he pleased.

By the chests were placed some of the public servants, who taking out the tablets of every century, for every tablet, made a prick or a point in another tablet which they kept by them. Thus, the business being decided by most points gave occasion to the phrase *omne tulit punctum*, and the like.

The same method was observed in the justiciary process at these comitia, and in the confirmation of laws; except that, in both these cases, only two tablets were offered to every person; on one of which was written U. R. and on the other A, in capital letters; the two first standing for *uti rogas*, "be it as you desire," relating to the magistrate who proposed the question; and the last for *antiquo*, or "I forbid it."

It is remarkable, that though in the election of magistrates, and in the ratification of laws, the votes of that century, whose tablets were equally divided, signified nothing; yet in the trials of life and death, if the tablets *pro* and *con* were the same in number, the person was actually acquitted.

The division of people into *tribes* was an invention of Romulus, after he had admitted the Sabines into Rome; and though he constituted at that time only three, yet as the state increased in power, and the city in number of inhabitants, they rose by degrees to 35. For a long time after this institution, a *tribe* signified no more than such a space of ground with its inhabitants. But at last the matter was quite altered, and a tribe was no longer *pars urbis*, but *pars civitatis*; not a quarter of the city, but a company of citizens living where they pleased. This change was chiefly occasioned by the original difference between the tribes in point of honour. For Romulus having committed all sordid and mechanic arts to the care of strangers, slaves, and libertines; and reserved the more honest labour of agriculture to the freemen and citizens, who by this active course of life might be prepared for martial service; the *tribus rusticæ* were for this reason esteemed more honourable than the *tribus urbanæ*. And now all persons being desirous of getting into the more creditable division; and there being several ways of accomplishing their wishes, as by adoption, by the power of censors, or the like; that rustic tribe which had the most worthy names in its roll had the prefe-

rence to all others, though of the ſame general denomination. Hence all of the ſame great family bringing themſelves by degrees into the ſame tribe, gave the name of their family to the tribe they honoured; whereas at firſt the generality of the tribes did not borrow their names from perſons but from places.

The firſt aſſembly of the tribes we meet with is about the year of Rome 263, convened by Sp. Sicinius, tribune of the commons, upon account of the trial of Coriolanus. Soon after, the tribunes of the commons were ordered to be elected here; and at laſt all the inferior magiſtrates, and the collegiate prieſts. The ſame comitia ſerved for the enacting of laws relating to war and peace, and all others propoſed by the tribunes and plebeian officers, though they had not properly the name of *leges*, but *plebiſcita*. They were generally convened by the tribunes of the commons; but the ſame privilege was allowed to all the chief magiſtrates. They were confined to no place; and therefore ſometimes we find them held in the comitium; ſometimes in the campus martius, and now and then in the capitol. The proceedings were in moſt reſpects anſwerable to thoſe already deſcribed in the account of the other comitia, and therefore need not be inſiſted on. Only we may farther obſerve of the comitia in general, that when any candidate was found to have moſt tablets for a magiſtracy, he was declared to be *deſigned* or elected by the preſident of the aſſembly; and this they termed *renunciari conſul*, *prætor*, or the like; and that the laſt ſort of the comitia only could be held without the conſent or approbation of the ſenate, which was neceſſary to the convening of the other two.

COMITIALIS MORBUS, an appellation given to the EPILEPSY, by reaſon the comitia of ancient Rome were diſſolved if any perſon in the aſſembly happened to be taken with this diſtemper.

COMITIUM, in Roman antiquity, a large hall in the forum, where the COMITIA were ordinarily held.

COMMA, among grammarians, a point or character marked thus (,), ſerving to denote a ſhort ſtop, and to divide the members of a period. Different authors define and uſe it differently. According to F. Buffier, the comma ſerves to diſtinguiſh the members of a period, in each of which is a verb and the nominative caſe of the verb: thus, "That ſo many people are pleaſed with trifles, is owing to a weakneſs of mind, which makes them love things eaſy to be comprehended." Beſides this, the comma is uſed to diſtinguiſh, in the ſame manner of a period, ſeveral nouns-ſubſtantive, or nouns-adjective, or verbs not united by a conjunction: thus, "Virtue, wit, knowledge, are the chief advantages of a man:" or, "A man never becomes learned without ſtudying conſtantly, methodically, with a guſt, application," &c. If thoſe words are united in the ſame phraſe with a conjunction, the comma is omitted: thus, "the imagination and the judgment do not always agree."

The ingenious author of the tract *De ratione interpungendi*, printed with Voſſius's Element. Rhetor. Lond. 1734, lays down the uſe of a comma to be, to diſtinguiſh the ſimple members of a period or ſentence; i. e. ſuch as only conſiſt of one ſubject, and one definite verb. But this rule does not go throughout; the ſame author inſtancing many particular caſes not yet included herein, where yet the comma is adviſable. See PUNCTUATION.

It is a general rule that a comma ought not to come between a nominative and a verb, or an adjective and ſubſtantive, when theſe are not otherwiſe diſjoined: thus, in the ſentence, *God ruleth with infinite wiſdom*, a comma between *God* and *ruleth*, or between *infinite* and *wiſdom*, would be abſurd. But to this exceptions may occur; as when not a ſingle word, but a ſentence, happens to be the nominative; thus, in the example firſt above given, where the ſentence *that ſo many people are pleaſed with trifles*, forms the nominative to the verb *is*, a comma at *trifles* is proper, both for the ſake of perſpicuity, and as coinciding with a ſlight natural pauſe.

COMMA, in *Muſic*. See INTERVAL.

COMMANDINUS, FREDERIC, born at Urbino in Italy, and deſcended from a very noble family, in the 16th century. To a vaſt ſkill in the mathematics, he had added a great knowledge in the Greek tongue, by which he was well qualified to tranſlate the Greek mathematicians into Latin: accordingly he tranſlated and publiſhed ſeveral, which no writer till then had attempted; as Archimedes, Apollonius, Euclid, &c.

COMMANDRY, a kind of benefice or fixed revenue belonging to a military order, and conferred on ancient knights who had done conſiderable ſervices to the order.

There are ſtrict or regular commandries, obtained in order, and by merit; there are others of grace and favour, conferred at the pleaſure of the grand maſter; there are alſo commandries for the religious in the orders of St Bernard and St Anthony. The kings of France have converted ſeveral of the hoſpitals for lepers into commandries of the order of St Lazarus.

The commandries of Malta are of different kinds; for as the order conſiſts of knights, chaplains, and brothers ſervitors, there are peculiar commandries or revenues attached to each. The knight to whom one of theſe benefices or commandries is given is called *commander*, which agrees pretty nearly with the præpoſitus ſet over the monks in places at a diſtance from the monaſtery, whoſe adminiſtration was called *obedientia*; becauſe depending entirely upon the abbot who gave him his commiſſion. Thus it is with the ſimple commanders of Malta, who are rather farmers of the order than beneficiaries; paying a certain tribute or rent, called *reſponſio*, to the common treaſury of the order.

COMMELINA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COMMEMORATION, in a general ſenſe, the remembrance of any perſon or thing, or the doing any thing to the honour of a perſon's memory, or in remembrance of any paſt event. Thus, the euchariſt is a commemoration of the ſufferings of Jeſus Chriſt.

COMMENDAM, in the eccleſiaſtical law, the truſt or adminiſtration of the revenues of a benefice, given either to a layman, to hold by way of depoſitum for ſix months, in order to repairs, &c. or to an eccleſiaſtic or beneficed perſon, to perform the paſtoral duties thereof, till once the benefice is provided with a regular incumbent.

Commendam, Commendatus.

Anciently the adminiſtration of vacant biſhoprics belonged to the neareſt neighbouring biſhop; which is ſtill practiſed between the archbiſhopric of Lyons and the biſhopric of Autun: on this account they were called *commendatory biſhops*.

This cuſtom appears to be very ancient. St Athanaſius ſays of himſelf, according to Nicephorus, that there had been given him *in commendam*, i. e. in adminiſtration, another church beſides that of Alexandria whereof he was ſtated biſhop.

The care of churches, it ſeems, which had no paſtor, was committed to a biſhop, till they were provided with an ordinary: the regiſter of Pope Gregory I. is full of theſe commiſſions, or commendams, granted during the abſence or ſickneſs of a biſhop, or the vacancy of the ſee.

Some ſay, that Pope Leo IV. firſt eſtabliſhed the modern commendams, in favour of eccleſiaſtics who had been expelled their benefices by the Saracens; to whom the adminiſtration of the vacant churches was committed for a time, in expectation of their being reſtored; though St Gregory is ſaid to have uſed the ſame while the Lombards deſolated Italy.

In a little time the practice of commendams was exceedingly abuſed; and the revenues of monaſteries given to laymen for their ſubſiſtence. The biſhops alſo procured ſeveral benefices, or even biſhoprics, *in commendam*, which ſerved as a pretext for holding them all without directly violating the canons. Part of the abuſe has been retrenched; but the uſe of commendams is ſtill retained as an expedient to take off the incompatibility of the perſon by the nature of the benefice.

When a parſon is made biſhop, his parſonage becomes vacant; but if the king give him power he may ſtill hold it *in commendam*.

COMMENDATUS, one who lives under the protection of a great man. *Commendati homines*, were perſons who, by voluntary homage, put themſelves under the protection of any ſuperior lord: for ancient homage was either *predial*, due for ſome tenure; or *perſonal*, which was by compulſion, as a ſign of neceſſary ſubjection; or voluntary, with a deſire of protection; and thoſe who, by voluntary homage, put themſelves under the protection of any man of power, were ſometimes called *homines ejus commendati*, as often occurs in Doomſday. *Commendati dimidii* were thoſe who depended on two ſeveral lords, and paid one half of their homage to each; and *ſub-commendati* were like under-tenants under the command of perſons that were themſelves under the command of ſome ſuperior lord: alſo there were *dimidii ſub-commendati*, who bore a double relation to ſuch depending lords. This phraſe ſeems to be ſtill in uſe in the uſual compliment, "Commend me to ſuch a friend," &c. which is to let him know, "I am his humble ſervant."

Commendatus || Commentary.

COMMENSURABLE, among geometricians, an appellation given to ſuch quantities as are meaſured by one and the ſame common meaſure.

COMMENSURABLE Numbers, whether integers or fractions, are ſuch as can be meaſured or divided by ſome other number without any remainder; ſuch are 12 and 18, as being meaſured by 6 and 3.

COMMENSURABLE in Power, is ſaid of right lines, when their ſquares are meaſured by one and the ſame ſpace or ſuperfices.

COMMENSURABLE Surds, thoſe that being reduced to their leaſt terms, become true figurative quantities of their kind; and are therefore as a rational quantity to a rational one.

COMMENTARY, or COMMENT, in matters of literature, an illuſtration of the difficult or obſcure paſſages of an author.

COMMENTARY, or *Commentaries*, likewiſe denotes a kind of hiſtory, or memoirs of certain tranſactions, wherein the author had a conſiderable hand: ſuch are the Commentaries of Cæſar.

COMMERCE,

IS an operation by which the wealth, or work, either of individuals or of ſocieties, may be exchanged by a ſet of men called *merchants*, for an equivalent, proper for ſupplying every want, without any interruption to induſtry, or any check upon conſumption.

CHAP. I. HISTORY *of* COMMERCE.

§ 1. *General Hiſtory.*

It is a point as yet undecided by the learned, to what nation the invention and firſt uſe of commerce belonged: ſome attribute it to one people, ſome to another, for reaſons that are too long to be diſcuſſed here. But it ſeems moſt probable that the inhabitants of Arabia were thoſe that firſt made long voyages. It muſt be allowed, that no country was ſo happily ſituated for this purpoſe as that which they inhabited, being a peninſula waſhed on three ſides by three famous ſeas, the Arabian, Indian, and Perſian. It is alſo certain, that it was very early inhabited; and the firſt notice we have of any conſiderable trade refers it to the Iſhmaelites, who were ſettled in the hither part of Arabia. To them Joſeph was ſold by his brethren, when they were going down with their camels to Egypt with ſpicery, balm, and myrrh. It may ſeem ſtrange to infer from hence, that commerce was already practiſed by this nation, ſince mention is here made of camels, or a caravan, which certainly implies an inland trade; and it muſt be likewiſe allowed, that balm and myrrh were the commodities of their country. But whence had they the ſpicery? Or how came Arabia to be ſo famous in ancient times for ſpices? Or whence proceeded that miſtake of many great authors of antiquity, that ſpices actually grew there? Moſt certainly, becauſe theſe people dealt in them; and that they dealt in them the fitſt of any nation that we know of, appears from this very inſtance. Strabo and many other good authors aſſure us, that in ſucceeding times they were very great traders: they tell us particularly what ports they had; what prodigious magazines they kept of the richeſt kinds

kinds of goods; what wonderful wealth they obtained; in what prodigious magnificence they lived, and into what excesses they fell in respect to their expences for carving, building, and statues. All this shows that they were very great traders; and it also shows, that they traded to the East Indies; and from thence only they could have their spices, their rich gums, their sweet-scented woods, and their ivory, all which it is expressly said they had in the greatest abundance. This therefore proves, that they had an extensive and flourishing commerce; and that they had it earlier than any other nation, seems evident from their dealing at that time in spices. Besides, there is much less difficulty in supposing that they first discovered the route to the Indies, than if we ascribe that discovery to any other nation; for, in the first place, they lay nearest, and in the next they lay most conveniently; to which we may add, thirdly, that as the situation of their country naturally inclined them to navigation, so by the help of the monsoons they might make regular voyages to and from the Indies with great facility; nor is it at all unlikely that this discovery might be at first owing to chance, and to some of their vessels being blown by a strong gale to the opposite coast, from whence they might take the courage to return, by observing the regularity of the winds at certain seasons. All these reasons taken together seem to favour this opinion, that commerce flourished first among them; and as to its consequences in making them rich and happy, there is no dispute about them.

We find in the records of antiquity no nation celebrated more early for carrying all arts to perfection than the inhabitants of Egypt: and it is certain also, that no art was there cultivated more early, with more assiduity, or with greater success, than trade. It appears from the foregoing instance, that the richest commodities were carried there by land; and it is no less certain, that the most valuable manufactures were invented and brought to perfection there many ages before they were thought of in other countries; for, as the learned Dr Warburton very justly observes, at the time that Joseph came into Egypt, the people were not only possessed of all the conveniences of life, but were remarkable also for their magnificence, their politeness, and even for their luxury; which argues, that traffic had been of long standing amongst them. To say the truth, the great advantages derived from their country's lying along the Red sea, and the many benefits that accrued to them from the Nile, which they very emphatically called *The River*, or *The River of Egypt*, and of which they knew how to make all the uses that can be imagined, gave them an opportunity of carrying their inland trade not only to a greater height than in any country at that time, but even higher than it has been carried anywhere, China only excepted; and some people have thought it no trivial argument to prove the descent of the Chinese from the Egyptians, that they have exactly the same sort of genius, and with wonderful industry and care have drawn so many cuts and canals, that their country is almost in every part of it navigable. It was by such methods, by a wise and well-regulated government, and by promoting a spirit of industry amongst the people, that the ancient Egyptians became so numerous, so rich, so powerful; and that their country, for large cities, magnificent structures, and perpetual abundance, became the glory and wonder of the world.

The Phœnicians, though they possessed only a narrow slip of the coast of Asia, and were surrounded by nations so powerful and so warlike that they were never able to extend themselves on that side, became famous, by erecting the first naval power that makes any figure in history, and for the raising of which they took the most prudent and effectual measures. In order to this, they not only availed themselves of all the creeks, harbours, and ports, which nature had bestowed very liberally on their narrow territory, but improved them in such a manner, that they were no less remarkable for their strength than considerable for their conveniency; and so attentive were they to whatever might contribute to the increase of their power, that they were not more admired for the vast advantages they derived from their commerce, than they were formidable by their fleets and armies. They were likewise celebrated by antiquity as the inventors of arithmetic and astronomy; and in the last-mentioned science they must have been very considerable proficients, since they had the courage to undertake long voyages at a time when no other nation (the Arabians and Egyptians excepted) durst venture farther than their own coasts. By these arts Tyre and Sidon became the most famous marts in the universe, and were resorted to by all their neighbours, and even by people at a considerable distance, as the great storehouses of the world. We learn from the Scriptures how advantageous their friendship and alliance became to the two great kings of Israel, David and Solomon; and we see, by the application of the latter for architects and artists to Hiram king of Tyre, to what a prodigious height they had carried manufactures of every kind.

It is very certain that Solomon made use of their assistance in equipping his fleets at Elath and Eziongeber; and it is very probable that they put him upon acquiring those ports, and gave him the first hints of the amazing advantages that might be derived from the possession of them, and from the commerce he might from thence be able to carry on. These ports were most commodiously situated on the Arabian gulf; and from thence his vessels, manned chiefly by Phœnicians, sailed to Ophir and Tharsis, wherever those places were. Some writers will needs have them to be Mexico and Peru, which is certainly a wild and extravagant supposition; others believe that we are to look for Ophir on the coast of Africa, and Tharsis in Spain; but the most probable opinion is, that they were both seated in the East Indies. By this adventurous navigation, he brought into his country curiosities not only unseen, but unheard of before, and riches in such abundance, that, as the Scripture finely expresses it, "He made silver in Jerusalem as stones, and cedar-trees as sycamores that grow in the plains." The metaphor is very bold and emphatical; but when we consider that it is recorded in this History, that the return of one voyage only to Ophir produced 450 talents of gold, which makes 51,328 pounds of our Troy weight, about 2,463,744l. sterling, we cannot doubt of the immense profit that accrued from this commerce. It is also observable that the queen of

History. Sheba, or Saba, which lies in that part of Arabia before mentioned, surprised at the reports that were spread of the magnificence of this prince, made a journey to his court on purpose to satisfy herself, whether fame had not exaggerated the fact; and from the presents she made him of 120 talents of gold (656,640l.), of spices in great abundance, and precious stones, we may discern the true reason of her curiosity, which proceeded from an opinion that no country could be so rich as her own. And there is another circumstance very remarkable, and which seems strongly to fortify what we have advanced in the beginning of this section; it is added, "neither were there any such spices as the queen of Sheba gave to King Solomon;" which seems to intimate, that the Arabians had penetrated farther into the Indies than even the fleets of this famous prince, and brought from thence other spices (perhaps nutmegs and cloves) than had ever been seen before. It was by his wisdom, and by his steady application to the arts of peace, all of which mutually support each other, as they are all driven on by the wheel of commerce, which supplies every want, and converts every superfluity into merchandise, that this monarch raised his subjects to a condition much superior to that of any of their neighbours, and rendered the land of Israel, while he governed it, the glory and wonder of the East. He made great acquisitions without making wars; and his successor, by making wars, lost those acquisitions. It was his policy to keep all his people employed; and, by employing them, he provided equally for the extension of their happiness, and his own power; but the following kings pursued other measures, and other consequences attended them. The trade of Judea sunk almost as suddenly as it rose, and in process of time they lost those ports on the Red sea, upon which their Indian commerce depended.

The whole trade of the universe became then, as it were, the patrimony of the Phœnicians and the Egyptians. The latter monopolized that of the Indies, and, together with her corn and manufactures, brought such a prodigious balance of wealth continually into the country, as enabled the ancient monarchs of Egypt to compass all those memorable works that in spite of time and barbarous conquerors remain the monuments of their wisdom and power, and are like to remain so as long as the world subsists. The Phœnicians drew from Egypt a great part of those rich commodities and valuable manufactures which they exported into all the countries between their own and the Mediterranean sea; they drew likewise a vast resort to their own cities, even from countries at a great distance; and we need only look into the prophets Isaiah and Ezekiel in order to be convinced that these governments, founded on trade, were infinitely more glorious and more stable than those that were erected by force. All this we find likewise confirmed by profane histories; and by comparing these, it is evident, that the industry of the inhabitants of this small country triumphed over all obstacles, procured the greatest plenty in a barren soil, and immense riches, where, without industry, there must have been the greatest indigence. It is true, that old Tyre was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but not till she had flourished for ages; and even then she fell with dignity, and after a resistance that ruined the army of the great conqueror of Asia. Out of the ashes of this proud city the great spirit of its inhabitants produced a phœnix, little, if at all, inferior in beauty to its parent. New Tyre was situated on an island; and though her bounds were very narrow, yet she became quickly the mistress of the sea, and held that supreme dominion till subdued by Alexander the Great, whom no power could resist. The struggle she made, however, though unsuccessful, was great, and very much to the honour of her inhabitants: it must be owned, that the Greek hero found it more difficult to master this single place, than to overcome the whole power of Persia.

The views of the Macedonian prince were beyond comparison more extensive than his conquests; and whoever considers Alexander's plan of power, and enters into it thoroughly, will think him more a politician than he was a conqueror. He framed in his own mind an idea of universal monarchy, which it was indeed impossible to accomplish; but the very notion of it does him far greater honour than all his victories. He thought of placing his capital in Arabia; and of disposing things in such a manner, as to have commanded the most remote part of the Indies, at the same time that he maintained a connexion with the most distant countries in Europe. He was for making use of force to acquire, but he very well knew, that commerce only could preserve, an empire, that was to have no other limits than those which nature had assigned the world. He desired to be master of all; but at the same time he was willing to be a wise and gracious master, and to place his happiness in that of his people, or rather in making all the nations of the earth but one people. A vast, an extravagant, an impracticable scheme it was, of which he lived not long enough to draw the outlines; but the sample he left in his new city of Alexandria sufficiently shows how just and how correct his notions were, and how true a judgment he had formed of what might be effected by those methods upon which he depended. That city, which he might be said to design with his own hand, and which was built, as it were, under his eye, became in succeeding times all that he expected, the glory of Egypt, and the centre of commerce for several ages.

While Tyre was in the height of her glory, and had no rival in the empire of the sea, she founded her noble colony of Carthage on the coast of Africa. The situation of the city was everywhere admirable, whether considered in the light of a capital, of a strong fortress, or of a commodious port. It was equally distant from all the extremities of the Mediterranean sea, had a very fine country behind it, and was not in the neighbourhood of any power capable of restraining its commerce or its growth. It is almost inexpressible how soon its inhabitants became not only numerous and wealthy, but potent and formidable. By degrees they extended themselves on all sides, conquered the best part of Spain, and erected there a new Carthage; the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, or at least the best part of them, submitted likewise to their yoke. Their conquests, however, were inconsiderable in extent, when compared with their navigation. On one side they stretched as far westward as Britain; and the

the Scilly islands, which are now so inconsiderable, were to them an Indies, the route to which they used the utmost industry to conceal. On the other hand, they discovered a great part of the coast of Africa, the Canary islands; and some there are who believe they first found the way to America. While they consigned themselves to trade, and the arts which belonged thereto, their power was continually increasing; but when industry gave way to luxury, and a spirit of ambition banished their old maxims of frugality and labour, their acquisitions remained at a stand. The Romans began to grow jealous of their naval power, which it cost them two obstinate wars of 40 years continuance to humble. When she was at length destroyed, her very ruins were majestic; for at the beginning of the third fatal Punic war, this city contained 700,000 inhabitants alone, and had 300 cities in Africa under her dominion. Such was the empire of Carthage, raised entirely by commerce: and to which, if she had been content to have applied herself with the same steadiness in her highest prosperity as in her early beginnings, there is no doubt she had preserved her freedom much longer than she did; for as economy, diligence, and good faith, are the pillars of a commercial state; so when these are once shaken, it is not only natural that she should decline, but also unavoidable.

The Ptolemies, who were the successors of Alexander in Egypt, entered deeply into that hero's scheme, and reaped the benefit of his wise establishment. Ptolemy Philadelphus, by encouraging trade, made his subjects immensely rich, and himself inexpressibly powerful. We are told by an ancient author, that he had 120 galleys of war of an enormous size, and upwards of 4000 other vessels, small and great. This would appear incredible, if other wonders were not related of him, which seem to explain and confirm these. He raised a new city on the coast of the Red sea; he was at an immense expence in opening harbours, constructing quays, in raising inns at proper distances on the road, and in cutting a canal from sea to sea. A prince who comprehended the importance of commerce to a degree that induced him to dare such expences as these, might have what treasures, what armies, what fleets he pleased. In his time, Alexandria appeared in pomp and splendour. She owed her birth to Alexander; but it was Ptolemy, who caught a double portion of his master's spirit, which raised her to that magnificence that ages could not deface. We may guess at what she was in her glory, by what we are told was the produce of her customs, which fell little short of two millions of our money annually; and yet we cannot suppose that Ptolemy, who understood trade so well, would cramp it by high duties, or extravagant impositions. When the revenue of the prince from a single port was so great, what must have been the riches of his subjects?

But what shows us Alexandria in the highest point of light, is the credit she maintained after Egypt sunk from an empire into a province. The Romans themselves were struck with the majesty of her appearance; and though till then they had little regarded traffic, yet they were not long before they comprehended the advantages of such a port, and such a mart as Alexandria: they confirmed her privileges, they protected her inhabitants, they took every measure possible to preserve her commerce; and this with so good an effect, that she actually preserved it longer than Rome herself could preserve her power. She followed, indeed, the fortune of the empire, and became at last dependent upon Constantinople, when its founder removed thither the capital of the empire; and his successor found means to transfer also a part of the trade of Alexandria to the same place. Yet this city continued still to hold up her head, and though she sunk under the barbarous power of the Arabs, yet they grew polished by degrees; by degrees she recovered somewhat of her ancient pre-eminence; and though she never rose to any thing like her former lustre, yet she remained the centre of what little trade there was in the world; which is more than can be said of almost any place that has fallen under the Mohammedan power.

When the Roman empire was overrun by barbarians, and arts and sciences sunk with that power which had cultivated and protected them, commerce also visibly declined; or, to speak with greater propriety, was overwhelmed and lost. When that irruption of various nations had driven the Roman policy out of the greatest part of Europe, some straggling people, either forced by necessity, or led by inclination, took shelter in a few straggling islands that lay near the coast of Italy, and which would never have been thought worth inhabiting in a time of peace. This was in the 6th century; and at their first fixing there they had certainly nothing more in view than living in a tolerable state of freedom, and acquiring a subsistence as well as they could. These islands being divided from each other by narrow channels, and those channels so encumbered by shallows that it was impossible for strangers to navigate them, these refugees found themselves tolerably safe; and uniting amongst themselves for the sake of improving their condition, and augmenting their security, they became in the 8th century a well-settled government, and assumed the form of a republic.

Simple and mean as this relation may appear, yet it is a plain and true account of the rise, progress, and establishment of the famous and potent republic of Venice. Her beginnings were indeed weak and slow; but when the foundation was once well laid, her growth was quick, and the increase of her power amazing. She extended her commerce on all sides; and taking advantage of the barbarous maxims of the Mohammedan monarchies, she drew to herself the profits of the Indian trade, and might, in some sense, be said to make Egypt a province, and the Saracens her subjects. By this means her traffic swelled beyond conception; she became the common mart of all nations; her naval power arrived at a prodigious height; and making use of every favourable conjuncture, she stretched her conquest not only over the adjacent terra firma of Italy, but through the islands of the Archipelago, so as to be at once mistress of the sea, of many fair and fruitful countries, and of part of the great city of Constantinople itself. But ambition, and the desire of lording it over her neighbours, brought upon her those evils which first produced a decay of trade and then a declension of power. General histories indeed ascribe this to the league of Cambray, when

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when all the great powers in Europe combined against this republic: and in truth, from that period the sinking of her power is truly dated: but the Venetian writers very justly observe, that though this effect followed the league, yet there was another more latent, but at the same time a more effectual cause, which was, the falling off of their commerce; and they have ever since been more indebted to their wisdom than their power; to the prudent concealing of their own weakness, and taking advantage of the errors of their enemies, than to any other cause, for their keeping up that part which they still bear, and which had been lost long ago by any other nation but themselves.

At the same time that Venice rose, as it were, out of the sea, another republic was erected on the coast of Italy. There could not well be a worse situation than the narrow, marshy, unprofitable, and unwholesome islands in the Adriatic, except the rocky, barren, and inhospitable shores of Liguria; and yet as commerce raised Venice the Rich on the one, so she erected Genoa the Proud on the other. In spite of ambitious and warlike neighbours, in spite of a confined and unproducing country, and, which were still greater impediments, in spite of perpetual factions and successive revolutions, the trade of Genoa made her rich and great. Her merchants traded to all countries, and throve by carrying the commodities of the one to the other. Her fleets became formidable; and, besides the adjacent island of Corsica, she made larger and important conquests. She fixed a colony at Caffa, and was for some time in possession of the coasts on both sides of the Black sea. That emulation which is natural to neighbouring nations, and that jealousy which rises from the pursuit of the same mistress, commerce, begat continual wars between these rival republics; which, after many obstinate and bloody battles, were at last terminated in favour of Venice, by that famous victory of Chiozzo gained by her doge Andrew Contarini, from which time Genoa never pretended to be mistress of the sea. These quarrels were fatal to both; but what proved more immediately destructive to the Genoese, was their avarice, which induced them to abandon the fair profits of trade for the sake of that vile method of acquiring wealth by usury. All Italy is now subject to France.

But we must now look to another part of the world. In the middle age of the German empire, that is, about the middle of the 13th century, there was formed a confederacy of many maritime cities, or at least of cities not far from the sea. This confederacy solely regarded commerce, which they endeavoured to promote and extend, by interesting therein a great number of persons, and endeavouring to profit by their different views and different lights. Though the cities of Germany held the principal rank in the Teutonic Hanse, they did not however forbear associating many other cities, as well in France as in England and in the Low Countries; the whole, however, without hurting the authority, without prejudice to the rights of the sovereign on whom they depended. This confederacy had its laws, its ordinances, and its judgments, which were observed with the same respect as the maritime code of the Rhodians, who passing for the ablest seamen in all antiquity, their constitutions were observed by the Greeks and Romans. The Teutonic Hanse grew in a short time to so high a rank in power and authority by the immense riches it acquired, that princes themselves rendered it a sincere homage from principles of esteem and admiration... Those of the north principally had frequent occasion for their credit, and borrowed of them considerable sums. The grand masters of the Teutonic order, who were at that time sovereigns of Livonia, declared themselves conservators of the rights and privileges of the Hanse: all succeeded, not only to, but beyond their wishes; and Germany, charmed with their progress, looked on them with the same eyes as a curious gardener does on certain rare plants, though not of his own raising and culture. The kings of France and England granted also various privileges to the Teutonic confederacy; they exempted their vessels in case of shipwreck from all demands whatsoever from the admiralty, or from private persons; they forbade any disturbance to their navigation at all times, and even when France was at war with the emperor, or the princes of the north. In fine, during the course of these unhappy wars which were styled *Croisades*, the Hanse was signally consulted, and gave always puissant succours in money and in ships to the Christians oppressed by infidels. It is astonishing that cities at so great a distance from each other, subject to different kings, sometimes in open war, but always jealous of their rights, should be able to confederate and live together in so strict an union. But when this union had rendered them very rich and powerful, it cannot seem at all strange, that on the one hand they grew arrogant and overbearing, took upon them not only to treat with sovereigns on the foot of equality, but even to make war with them, and more than once with success. It will, on the other hand, appear still less strange, that such behaviour as this awakened various princes to a more particular view of the dangers that such a league might produce, and the advantages that would naturally flow to their respective states, by recovering their trade thus made over, at least in some part to others, entirely to themselves; and these, in few words, were the causes of the gradual declension of the Hanseatic alliance, which is now totally dissolved, although the cities of Lubeck, Hamburgh, and Bremen, maintain sufficient marks of that splendour and dignity with which this confederacy was once adorned.

We must now turn our eyes to Portugal and Spain, where in the space of about 50 years there happened a train of events which gradually led on to such discoveries as changed the whole face of affairs in the commercial world, and gave to the knowledge of later ages what for some thousand years had been kept secret from all mankind; we mean a perfect and distinct notion of that terraqueous globe which they inhabit. The kingdom of Portugal was small, but well cultivated, very populous, and blessed with a variety of good ports; all which, however, had stood them in little stead, if they had not had a succession of wise princes who, instead of involving themselves in war with their neighbours to gratify their ambition, endeavoured to extend the happiness and wealth of their subjects, and consequently their own power, in the softer and more successful method of protecting arts and sciences, encouraging

encouraging induſtry, and favouring trade. This, with the convenient ſituation of their country, in the beginning of the 15th century, prompted ſome lively ſpirits to attempt diſcoveries; and theſe, countenanced by a heroic young prince, puſhed on their endeavours with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſtep by ſtep the coaſt of Africa was ſurveyed as far as the Cape of Good Hope, to which they gave that name. The point they had in view was a new route to the Eaſt Indies, which Vaſquez de Gama happily diſcovered; and in a ſhort ſpace of time Portugal, from one of the leaſt conſiderable, grew to be one of the richeſt powers in Europe, gained prodigious dominions in Aſia and Africa, and raiſed a naval power ſuperior to any thing that had been ſeen for many ages before.

See *Columbus* (*Chriſtopher*).

But while this was doing, Chriſtopher Columbus, a Genoeſe of great capacity, though of almoſt unknown original, who had been bred to the ſea from his youth, and who had carefully ſtudied what others made a trade, formed in his mind the amazing project of counteracting experience, and ſailing to the Indies by a weſtern courſe. He offered this project to the Portugueſe, by whom it was conſidered and rejected as a chimera. He propoſed it afterwards to other ſtates, but with no better fortune; and at laſt owed the diſcovery of the New World to the high ſpirit of a heroine, the famous Iſabella, queen of Caſtile, who almoſt at her own expence, and with very little countenance from her huſband, who yet was ſtyled *Ferdinand the Wiſe*, furniſhed the adventurous Columbus with that poor ſquadron, with which, at once, in ſpite of all the difficulties that the envy of his officers, and the obſtinacy of his mutinous crew, threw in his way, he perfected his deſign, and laid open a new Indies, though in reality he aimed at the diſcovery of the old. Neither was this noble effort of his matchleſs underſtanding defeated; for after his deceaſe, Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe, propoſed to the emperor Charles V. the diſcovery of a paſſage to the ſpice iſlands by the South ſeas, which was what Columbus aimed at; and though Magellan lived not to return, yet in one voyage the diſcovery was perfected. It is inconceivable almoſt how many and how great benefits accrued to Europe from theſe diſcoveries; of which, however, it is certain, that the Portugueſe made a very indifferent, and the Spaniards a much worſe, uſe; the former making ſlaves of, and the latter rooting out the natives. This, as it was a moſt ungrateful return to divine Providence for ſo high a bleſſing; ſo it might have been eaſily foreſeen it would prove, as experience has ſhown it did prove, highly prejudicial to their own intereſts, by depopulating very fine countries, which have been thereby turned into deſerts: and though on their firſt diſcovery infinite treaſures were returned from them, which were coined in the mints of Spain; yet by an obſtinate purſuit of this falſe policy, the Spaniſh iſlands in the Weſt Indies are now brought ſo low as to be ſcarce worth keeping. The conſequences that naturally followed on the diſcovery of a paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, and of a fourth part of the globe in the weſtern hemiſphere, were, as it has been already hinted, the cauſe of an entire change in the ſtate of Europe, and produced, not only in Portugal and Spain, but in moſt other nations, a deſire of viſiting theſe remote parts; of eſtabliſhing colonies and manufactures; of exporting and importing commodities, and of raiſing, ſettling, and protecting new manufactures. By this means, as the reader cannot but perceive, not only particular nations brought about ſignal advantages to themſelves, but Europe in general received a laſting and invaluable benefit; for its potentates made themſelves formidable, and even terrible in thoſe diſtant parts of the earth, where their fame had hardly reached before. It is however true, that this has not been carried on as high as it might have been; for though there was room enough for every nation to have had its ſhare, and though it might be demonſtrated that the good of the whole would have contributed ſufficiently to the profit of every ſtate, the ſubjects of which had engaged in this traffic; yet inſtead of proſecuting ſo natural and ſo equitable a meaſure, they have taken a quite contrary courſe; and by decrying, attacking, and deſtroying each other, have very much leſſened that prodigious reverence which the Aſiatics, Africans, and Americans, at firſt had for the inhabitants of Europe.

The naval power of the Portugueſe received an incurable wound by falling under the power of the Spaniards; and though human policy would have ſuggeſted, that this alone muſt have raiſed the latter to the monopoly of commerce, and the univerſal dominion of the ſea; yet the very purſuit of a deſign ſo viſibly detrimental to the intereſt of mankind, proved very quickly their ruin alſo. For the Spaniards, from the natural haughtineſs of their temper, miſled by the boundleſs ambition of their princes, and endeavouring to become the lords of Europe, forced other nations in their own defence to make a much quicker progreſs in navigation than otherwiſe they could have done. For the Engliſh and Dutch, who till this time ſeemed blind to the advantages of their ſituation, had their eyes opened by the injuries they received; and by degrees the paſſion of revenge inſpired them with deſigns that poſſibly public ſpirit would never have excited. In ſhort, the pains taken by Spain to keep all the riches that flowed from theſe diſcoveries to herſelf, and the dangerous, deteſtable, and deſtructive purpoſes to which ſhe applied the immenſe wealth that flowed in upon her from them, produced effects directly oppoſite to thoſe which ſhe propoſed, and made her enemies rich, great, powerful, and happy, in proportion as her commerce dwindled away, and as her naval power ſunk and crumbled to pieces, merely by an improper diſplay, an ill-managed exertion, and a wrong application of it.

It was from hence that the inhabitants of the Seven Provinces, whom her oppreſſion had made poor, and her ſeverities driven mad, became firſt free, then potent, and by degrees rich. Their diſtreſſes taught them the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a moderate and equal government; the mildneſs of that government, and the bleſſings which it procured to its ſubjects, raiſed their number and elevated their hopes. The conſequences became quickly viſible, and in a ſhort time amazing both to friends and enemies; every fiſhing village improved into a trading town; their little towns grew up into large and magnificent cities; their inland boroughs were filled with manufactures; and in leſs than half a century the diſtreſſed States of

History. Holland became high and mighty; nay, in ſpite of the dangers and expences which attended a war made all that time againſt a ſuperior force, theſe people, ſurrounded with enemies, loaded with taxes, expoſed to perſonal ſervice, and to a thouſand other diſadvantages, grew up to ſuch a ſtrength as not only made the Spaniards deſpair of reducing them any more under their dominion, but inclined them to wiſh, and at laſt forced them to ſolicit, their friendſhip.

This, at leaſt as far as ancient or modern hiſtories inform us, was the quickeſt and ſtrongeſt of all the productions of commerce that the world has ever ſeen. For it is beyond diſpute that the republic of the United Provinces owes her freedom, her power, and her wealth, entirely to induſtry and trade. The greateſt part of the country is far from being fertile: and what is ſo, produces not enough to ſuffice the tenth part of the inhabitants for the tenth part of the year: the climate is rather tolerable than wholſome; and its havens are rather advantageous from the difficulty of entering them, than from their commodiouſneſs in any other reſpect. Of native commodities they have few or none; timber and maritime ſtores are entirely wanting; their country cannot boaſt ſo much as of a coal-mine; and yet theſe provinces upon whom nature has beſtowed ſo little, in conſequence of an extenſive trade, are enriched with all things. Their ſtore-houſes are full of corn, even when the harveſt in corn-countries fails; there is no commodity, however bulky, or ſcarce and hard to be come at, which may not be had from their magazines. The ſhipping of Holland is prodigious; and to ſee the quantities of naval ſtores with which their yards and ports abound, aſtoniſhes thoſe who are unacquainted with the vigour of that cauſe which produces this abundance. But above all, the populouſneſs of this country is the greateſt miracle. That men ſhould reſort to a Canaan, and deſire to live in a land flowing with milk and honey, is nothing ſtrange; but that they ſhould make it their choice to force nature, to raiſe palaces, lay out gardens, dig canals, plant woods, and ranſack all the quarters of the earth for fruits and flowers, to produce an artificial paradiſe in a dead plain, or upon an ungrateful heath in the midſt of fogs and ſtanding lakes, would in ſo critical an age as this paſs for a fable, if the country did not lie ſo near us as to put the truth of it out of queſtion. It is now ſubject to France.

§ 2. *Britiſh Hiſtory.*

We may eaſily conceive, that foreign commerce by the natives of this iſland muſt have been a work of time; for men firſt think of neceſſaries, then of conveniences, and laſt of ſuperfluities. Thoſe who came originally from the continent might have better notions of things; but as it muſt be preſumed that either fear of indigence drove them hither, ſo it is eaſy to apprehend that ſucceeding generations muſt for ſome time ſink much below their anceſtors in their notions of the commodities of life; and, deriving their manners from their circumſtances, become quite another ſort of people. But thoſe on the oppoſite continent, knowing that this iſland was inhabited, and having the uſe, though in ever ſo imperfect a degree, of veſſels and of foreign traffic, came over hither, and bartered their goods for the raw commodities of the Britons, till by degrees perhaps they taught the latter to make ſome improvements in thoſe ſlight leather and wicker boats, which they uſed for paſſing their own rivers, and creeping along their coaſts, till at laſt they ventured themſelves over to Gaul, and entered upon ſome kind of correſpondence with their neighbours. All this is ſo deducible from the laws of nature, that we might have conceived thus much by the light of reaſon, if we had not the Commentaries of Cæſar to guide us, and to ſtrengthen by the authority of hiſtory, the facts that might have been found out by the force of rational conjecture.

Things were preciſely in this ſituation when the Romans invaded Britain; and there is no doubt that our anceſtors falling under the power of that empire, and under its power at a time when, with reſpect to arts and ſciences, it was in a moſt flouriſhing condition, was a great advantage to them; and though from their love of civil liberty, which, when under the direction of reaſon, is the moſt natural and laudable of all paſſions, they made a long and vigorous, and in ſome ſenſe a noble and glorious, reſiſtance; yet by degrees they caught the manners and cuſtoms of their conquerors, and grew content to be happy rather than free. With learning and politeneſs the Romans introduced foreign commerce; and according to the nature of their policy, as they made high roads through the iſland, eſtabliſhed colonies in proper places, and fixed ſtanding camps, which were a kind of fortreſſes, where they thought proper; ſo they were no leſs careful with regard to marts or emporiums for the conveniency of traders, and of which what they found was uncertain; but that they left many, is without queſtion; and among the reſt London, which is not more famous for her preſent extenſive trade, than venerable for her unrecorded antiquity.

When the Romans unwillingly left Britain, and the Britons as unwillingly made way for the Saxons, a new deluge of barbarity overflowed this iſland; almoſt all the improvements of our civilized conquerors were effaced; and upon the eſtabliſhment as it were of a new people, things were all to begin again. This neceſſarily took up a great deal of time; and before they were in any tolerable poſture, the Saxons found themſelves diſtreſſed by freſh ſwarms of barbarians. Yet there ſtill remain ſome evidences of their having been acquainted with, inclined to, and, if their circumſtances would have permitted, moſt certainly would have entered upon and carried foreign commerce to a great height. We have authentic teſtimonies, that Alfred the Great formed projects of vaſt diſcoveries to the North, as he actually ſent perſons of great prudence and abilities into the Eaſt; and the curioſities which they brought home were for many ages preſerved in the treaſury of the church of Saliſbury.

As for the Danes, they were not long our maſters; but as they became ſo by a maritime force, and as their countrymen had eſtabliſhed themſelves not only on the oppoſite ſhore of France, but in other parts of Europe, it is reaſonable to believe that they held ſome correſpondence with them from thence; and that, if their dominion had laſted longer, this might have been better regulated, and productive of many advantages. But they had ſoon to do with their brethren in

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in another way; for the Normans, men of the same race, but better eſtabliſhed in another country, diſpoſſeſſed them here; and partly under colour of right, partly by force, erected that monarchy, which, not without various alterations and changes, ſubſiſts even to our times, and to the ſubſiſtence of which, with the help of thoſe changes and alterations, we owe that happy conſtitution under which we live; that univerſal improvement which adorns the face of our country; that domeſtic trade which nouriſhes ſo numerous a people, by plentifully rewarding their induſtry; and that extenſive commerce which is at once the ſource of our wealth and the ſupport of our liberty.

It cannot be expected, that in a work like this we ſhould attempt to trace the progreſs of trade through every reign; ſhow how it was encouraged and protected, or diſcountenanced and checked; what occaſions were luckily ſeized, or what opportunities unfortunately loſt. It may be ſufficient for us, after what has been already ſaid, to obſerve, that the opinion commonly entertained, of our having little or no trade before the reign of Queen Elizabeth, is very far from being well founded.

In fact, the reign of that princeſs was great and glorious in whatever light we conſider it; but it was moſt ſo in this, that under Providence, it became great and glorious by the wiſdom and prudence of the queen and her miniſters. The Engliſh nation never was in ſo deſperate a condition as at her acceſſion. The crown was in debt, the treaſury empty, the nation involved in a foreign war directly againſt her own intereſts, her coaſts naked; in a word, without credit abroad, and without concord at home, no ſettled religion, the great men ſplit into factions, and the common people diſtracted and dejected. Sad circumſtances theſe! and yet from hence aroſe the grandeur of that reign, and the eſtabliſhment of our commerce. The queen found herſelf obliged to act with great caution, to derive aſſiſtance from every quarter, to employ it faithfully, and to promote to the utmoſt of her power the welfare of her ſubjects, whom nothing but the public-ſpiritedneſs of her government could enable to grow rich enough to ſupport the neceſſary expences of the crown. It was this gave a popular turn to her councils. She encouraged her ſubjects to arm againſt the Spaniards, that they might be accuſtomed to the ſea, and acquire that knowledge in navigation, with which, till then, they had been unacquainted. She paſſed many laws for the public good, erected ſeveral companies, and ſaw that thoſe companies purſued the ends for which they were erected; in ſhort, ſhe did every thing that could be expected, during the whole courſe of her reign, to excite and encourage induſtry at home, and to enable us to make a proper figure abroad. In a word, ſhe furniſhed us with ſtock and credit, put us upon improving our commodities and manufactures, brought the art of ſhip-building amongſt us, filled our ports with able ſeamen, ſhowed a juſt reſpect to Engliſh merchants, reduced Ireland ſo as to render it beneficial to Britain, and approved our ſending colonies into America; and thus the ſeeds of Britiſh wealth were ſown in her time, though the harveſt was reaped in the days of her ſucceſſors. See the articles COALERY, COLONY, FISHERIES, MANUFACTURES, SHIPPING, and TRADE.

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CHAP. II. PRINCIPLES *of* COMMERCE.

SECT. I. *Origin of Trade.*

THE moſt ſimple of all trade is that which is carried on by bartering the neceſſary articles of ſubſiſtence. If we ſuppoſe the earth free to the firſt poſſeſſor, this perſon who cultivates it will firſt draw from it his food, and the ſurplus will be the object of barter: he will give this in exchange to any one who will ſupply his other wants. This naturally ſuppoſes both a ſurplus quantity of food produced by labour, and alſo free hands; for he who makes a trade of agriculture cannot ſupply himſelf with all other neceſſaries, as well as food; and he who makes a trade of ſupplying the farmers with ſuch neceſſaries, in exchange for his ſurplus of food, cannot be employed in producing that food. The more the neceſſities of man increaſe, the more free hands are required to ſupply them; and the more free hands are required, the more ſurplus food muſt be produced by additional labour, to ſupply their demand.

This is the leaſt complex kind of trade, and may be carried on to a greater or leſs extent, in different countries, according to the different degrees of the wants to be ſupplied. In a country where there is no money, nor any thing equivalent to it, the wants of mankind will be confined to few objects; to wit, the removing the inconveniences of hunger, thirſt, cold, heat, danger, and the like. A free man, who by his induſtry can procure all the comforts of a ſimple life, will enjoy his reſt, and work no more; and, in general, all increaſe of work will ceaſe, ſo ſoon as the demand for the purpoſes mentioned comes to be ſatisfied. There is a plain reaſon for this. When the free hands have procured, by their labour, wherewithal to ſupply their wants, their ambition is ſatisfied: ſo ſoon as the huſbandmen have produced the neceſſary ſurplus for relieving theirs, they work no more. Here then is a natural ſtop put to induſtry, conſequently to bartering.

The next thing to be examined is, how bartering grows into trade, properly ſo called, and underſtood, according to the definition given of it above; how trade becomes to be extended among men; how manufactures, more ornamental than uſeful, come to be eſtabliſhed; and how men come to ſubmit to labour, in order to acquire what is not abſolutely neceſſary for them.

This, in a free ſociety, is chiefly owing to the introduction of money, and a taſte for ſuperfluities in thoſe who poſſeſs it.

In ancient times money was not wanting; but the taſte for ſuperfluities not being in proportion to it, the ſpecie was locked up. This was the caſe in Europe four hundred years ago. A new taſte for ſuperfluity has drawn, perhaps, more money into circulation, from our own treaſures, than from the mines of the new world. The poor opinion we entertain of the riches of our forefathers, is founded upon the modern way of eſtimating wealth, by the quantity of coin in circulation, from which we conclude, that the greateſt part of the ſpecie now in our hands muſt have come from America.

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It is more, therefore, through the taste of superfluity, than in consequence of the quantity of coin, that trade comes to be established; and it is only in consequence of trade that we see industry carry things in our days to so high a pitch of refinement and delicacy. Let us illustrate this, by comparing together the different operations of barter, sale, and commerce.

When reciprocal wants are supplied by barter, there is not the smallest occasion for money: this is the most simple of all combinations.

When wants are multiplied, bartering becomes more difficult: upon this money is introduced. This is the common price of all things: it is a proper equivalent in the hands of those who want, perfectly calculated to supply the occasions of those who, by industry, can relieve them. This operation of buying and selling is a little more complex than the former; but still we have here no idea of trade, because we have not introduced the merchant, by whose industry it is carried on.

Let this third person be introduced, and the whole operation becomes clear. What before we called *wants*, is here represented by the consumer; what we called *industry*, by the manufacturer; what we called *money*, by the merchant. The merchant here represents the money, by substituting credit in its place; and as the money was invented to facilitate barter, so the merchant, with his credit, is a new refinement upon the use of money. This renders it still more effectual in performing the operations of buying and selling. This operation is trade: it relieves both parties of the whole trouble of transportation, and adjusting wants to wants, or wants to money; the merchant represents by turns both the consumer, the manufacturer, and the money. To the consumer he appears as the whole body of manufacturers; to the manufacturers as the whole body of consumers; and to the one and the other class his credit supplies the use of money. This is sufficient at present for an illustration. We now return to the simple operations of money in the hands of the two contracting parties, the buyer and the seller, in order to show how men come to submit to labour in order to acquire superfluities.

So soon as money is introduced into a country, it becomes an universal object of want to all the inhabitants.

The consequence is, that the free hands of the state who before stopt working, because all their wants were provided for, having this new object of ambition before their eyes, endeavour, by refinements upon their labour, to remove the smaller inconveniences which result from a simplicity of manners. People, who formerly knew but one sort of clothing for all seasons, willingly part with a little money to procure for themselves different sorts of apparel properly adapted to summer and winter, which the ingenuity of manufacturers, and their desire of getting money, may have suggested to their invention.

Indeed these refinements seem more generally owing to the industry and invention of the manufacturers (who by their ingenuity daily contrive means of softening or relieving inconveniencies which mankind seldom perceive to be such, till the way of removing them is contrived), than to the taste for luxury in the rich, who, to indulge their ease, engage the poor to become industrious.

Let any man make an experiment of this nature upon himself, by entering into the first shop. He will nowhere discover so quickly his wants as there. Every thing he sees appears either necessary, or at least highly convenient; and he begins to wonder how he could have been so long without that which the ingenuity of the workman alone had invented, in order that from the novelty it might incite his desire; for perhaps when it is bought, he will never once think of it more, nor ever apply it to the use for which at first it appeared so necessary.

Here then is a reason why mankind labour though not in want. They become desirous of possessing the very instruments of luxury, which their avarice or ambition prompted them to invent for the use of others.

What has been said represents trade in its infancy, or rather the materials with which that great fabric is built.

We have formed an idea of the wants of mankind multiplied even to luxury, and abundantly supplied by the employment of all the free hands set apart for that purpose. But if we suppose the workman himself disposing of his work, and purchasing with it food from the farmer, clothes from the clothier; and, in general, seeking for the supply of every want from the hands of the person directly employed for the purpose of relieving it; this will not convey an idea of trade according to our definition.

Trade and commerce are an abbreviation of this long process; a scheme invented and set on foot by merchants, from a principle of gain, supported and extended among men, from a principle of general utility to every individual, rich or poor; to every society, great or small.

Instead of a pin-maker exchanging his pins with 50 different persons, for whose labour he has occasion, he sells all to the merchant for money or for credit; and as occasion offers, he purchases all his wants, either directly from those who supply them, or from other merchants, who deal with manufacturers in the same way his merchant dealt with him.

Another advantage of trade is, that industrious people in one part of the country may supply customers in another, though distant. They may establish themselves in the most commodious places for their respective business, and help one another reciprocally, without making the distant parts of the country suffer for want of their labour. They are likewise exposed to no avocation from their work, by seeking for customers.

Trade produces many excellent advantages; it marks out to the manufacturers when their branch is under or overstocked with hands. If it is understocked, they will find more demand than they can answer; if it is overstocked, the sale will be slow.

Intelligent men, in every profession, will easily discover when these appearances are accidental, and when they proceed from the real principles of trade.

Posts, and correspondence by letters, are a consequence of trade; by the means of which merchants are regularly informed of every augmentation or diminution

nution of induſtry in every branch, in every part of the country. From this knowledge they regulate the prices they offer; and as they are many, they ſerve as a check upon one another, from the principles of competition.

From the current prices, the manufacturers are as well informed, as if they kept the correſpondence themſelves: the ſtateſman feels perfectly where hands are wanting, and young people deſtined to induſtry, obey, in a manner, the call of the public, and fall naturally in to ſupply the demand.

Two great aſſiſtances to merchants, eſpecially in the infancy of trade, are public markets for collecting the work of ſmall dealers, and large undertakings in the manufacturing way by private hands. By theſe means the merchants come at the knowledge of the quantity of work in the market, as on the other hand the manufacturers learn, by the ſale of the goods, the extent of the demand for them. Theſe two things being juſtly known, the price of goods is eaſily fixed.

Public ſales ſerve to correct the ſmall inconveniences which proceed from the operations of trade. A ſet of manufacturers got all together into one town, and entirely taken up with their induſtry, are thereby as well informed of the rate of the market as if every one of them carried thither his work; and upon the arrival of the merchant, who readily takes it off their hands, he has not the leaſt advantage over them from his knowledge of the ſtate of demand. This man both buys and ſells in what is called *wholeſale;* and from him retailers purchaſe, who diſtribute the goods to every conſumer throughout the country. Theſe laſt buy from wholeſale merchants in every branch, that proportion of every kind of merchandiſe which is ſuitable to the demand of their borough, city, or province.

Thus all inconveniences are prevented, at ſome additional coſt to the conſumer, who muſt naturally reimburſe the whole expence. The diſtance of the manufacturer, the obſcurity of his dwelling, the caprice in ſelling his work, are quite removed; the retailer has all in his ſhop, and the public buys at a current price.

§ 2. *How the price of Goods is determined by Trade.*

In the price of goods, two things muſt be conſidered as really exiſting, and quite different from one another; to wit, the real value of the commodity, and the profit upon alienation.

I. The firſt thing to be known of any manufacture, when it comes to be ſold, is how much of it a perſon can perform in a day, a week, a month, according to the nature of the work, which may require more or leſs time to bring it to perfection. In making ſuch eſtimates, regard is to be had only to what, upon an average, a workman of the country in general may perform, without ſuppoſing him the beſt or the worſt in his profeſſion, or having any peculiar advantage or diſadvantage as to the place where he works.

Hence the reaſon why ſome people proſper by their induſtry, and others not; why ſome manufactures flouriſh in one place and not in another.

II. The ſecond thing to be known is, the value of the workman's ſubſiſtence, and neceſſary expence, both for ſupplying his perſonal wants and providing the inſtruments belonging to his profeſſion, which muſt be taken upon an average as above, except when the nature of the work requires the preſence of the workman in the place of conſumption; for although ſome trades, and almoſt every manufacture, may be carried on in places at a diſtance, and therefore may fall under one general regulation as to prices; yet others there are, which, by their nature, require the preſence of the workman in the place of conſumption; and in that caſe the prices muſt be regulated by circumſtances relative to every particular place.

III. The third and laſt thing to be known, is the value of the materials, that is, the firſt matter employed by the workman; and if the object of his induſtry be the manufacture of another, the ſame proceſs of inquiry muſt be gone through with regard to the firſt as the ſecond; and thus the moſt complex manufactures may be at laſt reduced to the greateſt ſimplicity.

Theſe three articles being known, the price of manufacture is determined. It cannot be lower than the amount of all the three, that is, than the real value; whatever it is higher, is the manufacturer's profit. This will ever be in proportion to demand, and therefore will fluctuate according to circumſtances.

Hence appears the neceſſity of a great demand, in order to promote flouriſhing manufactures.

By the extenſive dealings of merchants, and their conſtant application to the ſtudy of the balance of work and demand, all the above circumſtances are known to them, and are made known to the induſtrious, who regulate their living and expence according to their certain profit.

Employ a workman in a country where there is little trade or induſtry, he proportions his price always to the urgency of your want, or your capacity to pay, but ſeldom to his own labour. Employ another in a country of trade, he will not impoſe upon you, unleſs perhaps you be a ſtranger, which ſuppoſes your being ignorant of the value; but employ the ſame workman in a work not uſual in the country, conſequently not demanded, and therefore not regulated as to the value, he will proportion his price as in the firſt ſuppoſition.

We may therefore conclude, from what has been ſaid, that in a country where trade has been eſtabliſhed, manufactures muſt flouriſh, from the ready ſale, the regulated price of work, and the certain profit reſulting from induſtry. Let us next inquire into the conſequences of ſuch a ſituation.

§ 3. *How foreign Trade opens to an induſtrious People, and the conſequences of it to the Merchants who ſet it on foot.*

The firſt conſequence of the ſituation deſcribed in the preceding ſection is, that wants are eaſily ſupplied for the adequate value of the thing wanted.

The next conſequence is, the opening of foreign trade, under its two denominations of paſſive and active. Strangers and people of diſtant countries, finding the difficulty of having their wants ſupplied at home, and the eaſe of having them ſupplied from this country, immediately have recourſe to it. This is paſſive trade. The active is when merchants, who have executed this plan at home with ſucceſs, begin to tranſ-

Principles. port the labour of their countrymen into other regions, which either produce, or are capable of producing ſuch articles of conſumption, proper to be manufactured, as are moſt demanded at home; and conſequently will meet with the readieſt ſale, and fetch the largeſt profits.

Here then is the opening of foreign trade, under its two denominations of active and paſſive.

What then are the conſequences of this new commerce to our merchants, who have left their homes in queſt of gain abroad?

The firſt is, that, arriving in any new country, they find themſelves in the ſame ſituation with regard to the inhabitants, as the workman in the country of no trade, with regard to thoſe who employ him; that is, they proportion the price of their goods to the eagerneſs of acquiring, or the capacity of paying, in the inhabitants, but never to their real value.

The firſt profits then, upon this trade, muſt be very conſiderable; and the demand from ſuch a country will be *high* or *low*, *great* or *ſmall*, according to the ſpirit, not the real wants of the people; for theſe in all countries muſt firſt be ſupplied by the inhabitants themſelves, before they ceaſe to labour.

If the people of this not-trading country be abundantly furniſhed with commodities uſeful to the traders, they will eaſily part with them, at firſt, for the inſtruments of luxury and eaſe; but the great profit of the traders will inſenſibly increaſe the demand for the production of their new correſpondents: this will have the effect of producing a competition between themſelves, and thereby throwing the demand on their ſide. This is perpetually a diſadvantage in traffic; the moſt unpoliſhed nations in the world quickly perceive the effects of it, and are taught to profit by the diſcovery, in ſpite of the addreſs of thoſe who are the moſt expert in commerce.

The traders will therefore be very fond of falling upon every method and contrivance to inſpire this people with a taſte of refinement and delicacy. Abundance of fine preſents, conſiſting of every inſtrument of luxury and ſuperfluity, the beſt adapted to the genius of the people, will be given to the prince and leading men among them. Workmen will even be employed at home, to ſtudy the taſte of the ſtrangers, and to captivate their deſires by every poſſible means. The more eager they are of preſents, the more laviſh the traders will be in beſtowing and diverſifying them. It is an animal put up to fatten; the more he eats, the ſooner he is fit for ſlaughter. When their taſte for ſuperfluity is fully formed, when the reliſh for their former ſimplicity is ſophiſticated, poiſoned, and obliterated, then they are ſurely in the fetters of the traders, and the deeper they go, the leſs poſſibility there is of being extricated. The preſents then will die away, having ſerved their purpoſe; and if afterwards they are found to be continued, it will probably be to ſupport the competition againſt other nations, who will incline to ſhare of the profits.

If, on the contrary, this not-trading nation does not abound with commodities uſeful to the traders, theſe will make little account of trading with them, whatever their turn may be; but, if we ſuppoſe this country inhabited by a laborious people, who, having taken a taſte for refinement from the traders, apply themſelves to agriculture, in order to produce articles of ſubſiſtence, they will ſolicit the merchants to give them part of their manufactures in exchange for thoſe; and this trade will undoubtedly have the effect of multiplying numbers in the trading nation. But if food cannot be furniſhed, nor any other branch of production found out to ſupport the correſpondence, the taſte for refinement will ſoon die away, and trade will ſtop in this quarter.

Had it not been for the furs in thoſe countries adjacent to Hudſon's bay, and in Canada, the Europeans never would have thought of ſupplying inſtruments of luxury to thoſe nations; and if the inhabitants of thoſe regions had not taken a taſte for the inſtruments of luxury furniſhed to them by the Europeans, they never would have become ſo indefatigable nor ſo dexterous hunters. At the ſame time we are not to ſuppoſe that ever theſe Americans would have come to Europe in queſt of our manufactures. It is, therefore, owing to our merchants, that theſe nations are become in any degree fond of refinement; and this taſte, in all probability, will not ſoon exceed the proportion of the productions of their country. From theſe beginnings of foreign trade it is eaſy to trace its increaſe.

One ſtep towards this, is the eſtabliſhing correſpondences in foreign countries; and theſe are more or leſs neceſſary in proportion as the country where they are eſtabliſhed is more or leſs poliſhed, or acquainted with trade. They ſupply the want of poſts, and point out to the merchants what proportion the productions of the country bear to the demand of the inhabitants for manufactures. This communicates an idea of commerce to the not-trading nation, and they inſenſibly begin to fix a determined value upon their own productions, which perhaps bore no determined value at all before.

Let us trace a little the progreſs of this refinement in the ſavages, in order to ſhow how it has the effect of throwing the demand upon the traders, and of creating a competition among them for the productions of the new country.

Experience ſhows, that, in a new diſcovered country, merchants conſtantly find ſome article or other of its productions, which runs out to a great account in commerce; and we ſee that the longer ſuch a trade ſubſiſts, and the more the inhabitants take a taſte for European manufactures, the more their own productions riſe in their value, and the leſs profit is made by trading with them, even in caſes where the trade is carried on by companies; which is a very wiſe inſtitution for one reaſon, that it cuts off a competition between our merchants.

This is the beſt means of keeping prices low in favour of the nation; however, it may work a contrary effect with reſpect to individuals who muſt buy from theſe monopolies.

When companies are not eſtabliſhed, and when trade is open, our merchants, by their eagerneſs to profit by the new trade, betray the ſecrets of it; they enter into competition for the purchaſe of the foreign produce; and this raiſes prices, and favours the commerce of the moſt ignorant ſavages.

§ 4.

Principles. § 4. *Consequences of the Introduction of a passive Foreign Trade among a People who live in Simplicity and Idleness.*

We now suppose the arrival of traders, all in one interest, with instruments of luxury and refinement, at a port in a country of great simplicity of manners, abundantly provided by nature with great advantages for commerce, and peopled by a nation capable of adopting a taste for superfluities.

The first thing the merchants do is, to expose their goods, and point out the advantages of many things, either agreeable or useful to mankind in general, such as wines, spirits, instruments of agriculture, arms and ammunition for hunting, nets for fishing, manufactures for clothing, and the like. The advantages of these are presently perceived, and such commodities are eagerly sought after.

The natives, on their side, produce what they most esteem, generally something superfluous or ornamental. The traders, after examining all circumstances, determine the object of their demand, giving the least quantity possible in return for this superfluity, in order to impress the inhabitants with a high notion of the value of their own commodities; but as this parsimony may do more hurt than good to their interest, they are very generous in making presents, from the principles mentioned above.

When the exchange is completed, and the traders depart, regret is commonly mutual; the one and the other are sorry that the superfluities of the country fall short. A return is promised by the traders, and assurances are given by the natives of a better provision another time.

What are the first consequences of this revolution?

It is evident, that, in order to supply an equivalent for this new want, more hands must be set to work than formerly. And it is evident also, that this augmentation of industry will not essentially increase numbers: Why? Because the produce of the industry is, in this case, intended to be exported. But, if we can find out any additional consumption at home, even implied by this new trade, it will have the effect of augmenting numbers. An example will make this plain.

Let us suppose the superfluity of this country to be the skins of wild beasts, not proper for food; the manufacture sought for, brandy. The brandy is sold for furs. He who has furs, or he who can spare time to hunt for them, will drink brandy in proportion; but there is no reason to conclude from this simple operation, that one man more in the country must necessarily be fed, or that any augmentation of agriculture must of consequence ensue from this new traffic.

But let us throw in a circumstance which may imply an additional consumption at home, and then examine the consequences.

A poor creature who has no equivalent to offer for food, who is miserable, and ready to perish for want of subsistence, goes a hunting, and kills a wolf; he comes to a farmer with the skin, and says, You are well fed, but you have no brandy; if you will give me a loaf, I will give you this skin, which the strangers are so fond of, and they will give you brandy. But, says the farmer, I have no more bread than what is sufficient for my own family. As for that, replies the other, I will come and dig in your ground, and you and I will settle our account as to the small quantity I desire of you. The bargain is made: the poor fellow gets his loaf, and lives at least; perhaps he marries, and the farmer gets a dram. But had it not been for this dram, that is, this new want, which was purchased by the industry of this poor fellow, by what argument could he have induced the farmer to part with a loaf? Principles.

Here the sentiment of charity is excluded. This alone is a principle of multiplication; but as true it is, on the other hand, that could the poor fellow have got bread by begging, he would not probably have gone a hunting.

Here then it appears that the very dawning of trade, in the most unpolished countries, implies a multiplication. This is sufficient to point out the first step, and to connect the subject of our present inquiries with what has already been discussed in relation to other circumstances.

So soon as all the furs are disposed of, and a taste for superfluity is introduced, both the traders and the natives will be equally interested in the advancement of industry in this country. Many new objects of profit for the first will be discovered, which the proper employment of the inhabitants, in reaping the natural advantages of their soil and climate, will make effectual. The traders will therefore endeavour to set on foot many branches of industry among the savages, and the allurements of brandy, arms, and clothing, will animate these in the pursuit of them.

When once this revolution is brought about; when those who formerly lived in simplicity become industrious; matters put on a new face.

That is to say, we now find two trading nations instead of one; with this difference, however, that as hitherto we have supposed the merchants all in one interest, the compound demand, that is, the competition of the buyers, has been, and must still continue on the side of the natives. This is a great prejudice to their interest: but as it is not supposed sufficient to check their industry, nor to restrain their consumption of the manufactures, let us here examine a little more particularly the consequences of the principle of demand in such a situation; for although we allow, that it can never change sides, yet it may admit of different modifications, and produce different effects, as we shall presently perceive.

The merchants we suppose all in one interest, consequently there can be no competition among them; no check can be put upon their raising their prices, as long as the prices they demand are complied with. So soon as they are raised to the full extent of the abilities of the natives, or of their inclination to buy, the merchants have the choice of three things, which are all perfectly in their option; and the preference to be given to the one or the other, depends entirely upon themselves, and upon the circumstances we are going to point out.

First, they may support their *high* demand; that is, not lower their price, which will preserve a high estimation of the manufactures in the opinion of the inhabitants, and render the profits upon their trade the greatest possible. This part they may possibly take, if they perceive the natives doubling their diligence,

gence, in order to become able, in time, to purchase considerable cargoes at a high value; from which supposition is inferred a strong disposition in the people to become luxurious, since nothing but want of ability prevents them from complying with the highest demand: but still another circumstance must concur, to engage the merchants not to lower their price. The great proportion of the goods they seek for in return, must be found in the hands of a few. This will be the case if slavery be established; for then there must be many poor and few rich; and they are commonly the rich consumers who proportion the price they offer, rather to their desires, than to the value of the thing.

The second thing which may be done is, to encourage a great demand; that is, to lower their prices. This will sink the value of the manufactures in the opinion of the inhabitants, and render profits less in proportion, although indeed, upon the voyage, the profits may be greater.

This part they will take, if they perceive the inhabitants do not incline to consume great quantities of the merchandise at a high value, either for want of abilities or inclination; and also, if the profits upon the trade depend upon a large consumption, as is the case in merchandise of a low value, and suited chiefly to the occasions of the lower sort. Such motives of expediency will be sufficient to make them relinquish a high demand, and prefer a great one; and the more, when there is a likelihood that the consumption of low-priced goods in the beginning may beget a taste for others of a higher value, and thus extend in general the taste of superfluity.

A third part to be taken is the least politic, and perhaps the most familiar. It is to profit by the competition between the buyers, and encourage the rising of demand as long as possible: when this comes to a stop, to make a kind of auction, by first bringing down the prices to the level of the highest bidders, and so to descend by degrees, in proportion as demand sinks. Thus we may say with propriety, that demand commonly becomes great, in proportion as prices sink. By this operation, the traders will profit as much as possible, and sell off as much of their goods as the profits will permit.

But this plan, in a new discovered country, is not politic, as it both discovers a covetousness and a want of faith in the merchants, and also throws open the secrets of their trade to those who ought to be kept ignorant of them.

Let us next suppose, that the large profits of our merchants shall be discovered by others, who arrive at the same ports in a separate interest, and who enter into no combination which might prevent the natural effects of competition.

Let the states of demand among the natives be supposed the same as formerly, both as to height and greatness, in consequence of the operation of the different principles, which might have induced our merchants to follow one or other of the plans we have been describing: we must, however, still suppose, that they have been careful to preserve considerable profits upon every branch.

If we suppose the inhabitants to have increased in numbers, wealth, and taste for superfluity, since the last voyage, demand will be found rather on the rising hand. Upon the arrival of the merchants in competition with the former, both will offer to sale; but if both stand at the same prices, it is very natural to suppose, that the former dealers will obtain a preference; as *cæteris paribus* it is always an advantage to know and to be known. The last comers, therefore, have no other way left to counterbalance this advantage, but to lower their prices.

This is a new phenomenon: here the fall of prices is not voluntary as formerly, nor consented to from expediency; not owing to a failure of demand, but to the influence of a new principle of commerce, to wit, a double competition, which we shall now examine.

§ 5. *Of double Competition.*

When competition is much stronger on one side of the contract than on the other, it is called *simple*. This is the species of competition which is implied in the terms *high demand*, or when it is said that *demand raises prices*.

Double competition is, when, in a certain degree, it takes place on both sides of the contract at once, or vibrates alternately from one to the other. This is what restrains prices to the adequate value of merchandise.

The great difficulty is to distinguish clearly between the principles of *demand* and those of *competition*: here then follow the principal differences between the two relatively to the effects they produce severally in the mercantile contract of buying and selling, which we here express shortly by the word *contract*.

Simple demand is what brings the quantity of commodity to market. Many demand, who do not buy; many offer, who do not sell. This demand is called *great* or *small*; it is said to increase, to augment, to swell; and is expressed by these and other synonymous terms, which mark an augmentation or diminution of quantity. In this species, two people never demand the same thing, but a part of the same thing, or things quite alike.

Compound demand is the principle which raises prices, and can never make them sink; because in this case more than one demands the very same thing. It is solely applicable to the buyers, in relation to the price they offer. This demand is called *high* or *low*, and is said to rise, to fall, to mount, to sink, and is expressed by these and other synonymous terms.

Simple competition, when between buyers, is the same as *compound* or *high demand*; but differs from it in so far, as this may equally take place among sellers, which compound demand cannot; and then it works a contrary effect: it makes prices sink, and is synonymous with low demand; it is this competition which overturns the balance of work and demand.

Double competition is what is understood to take place in almost every operation of trade; it is this which prevents the excessive rise of prices; it is this which prevents their excessive fall. While double competition prevails, the balance is perfect, trade and industry flourish.

The capital distinction, therefore, between the terms *demand* and *competition* is, that *demand* is constantly relative to the buyers; and when money is not the price, as

Principles.

as in barter, then it is relative to that ſide upon which the greateſt *competition* is found.

We therefore ſay, with regard to *prices*, demand is *high* or *low*. With regard *to the quantity of merchandiſe*, demand is *great* or *ſmall*. With regard to *competition*, it is always called *great* or *ſmall*, *ſtrong* or *weak*.

Competition is, with equal propriety, applicable to both parties in the contract. A *competition* among buyers is a proper expreſſion; a *competition* among ſellers, who have the merchandiſe, is fully as eaſily underſtood, though it be not quite ſo ſtriking, for reaſons which an example will make plain.

You come to a fair, where you find a great variety of every kind of merchandiſe, in the poſſeſſion of different merchants. Theſe, by offering their goods to ſale, conſtitute a tacit competition; every one of them wiſhes to ſell in preference to another, and at the ſame time with the beſt advantage to himſelf.

The buyer begins by cheapening at every ſhop. The firſt price aſked marks the covetouſneſs of the ſeller; the firſt price offered, the avarice of the buyer. From this operation competition begins to work its effects on both ſides, and ſo becomes double. The principles which influence this operation are now to be deduced.

It is impoſſible to ſuppoſe the ſame degree of eagerneſs either to buy or ſell, among ſeveral merchants; becauſe the degree of eagerneſs is exactly in proportion to their views of profit; and as theſe muſt neceſſarily be influenced and regulated by different circumſtances, that buyer, who has the beſt proſpect of ſelling again with profit, obliges him, whoſe proſpect is not ſo good, to content himſelf with leſs; and that ſeller, who has bought to the beſt advantage, obliges him, who has paid dearer for the merchandiſe, to moderate his deſire of gain.

It is from theſe principles that competition among buyers and ſellers muſt originate. This is what confines the fluctuation of prices within limits which are compatible with the reaſonable profits of both buyers and ſellers; for we muſt conſtantly ſuppoſe the whole operation of buying and ſelling to be performed by merchants; the buyer cannot be ſuppoſed to give ſo high a price as that which he expects to receive when he diſtributes to the conſumers, nor can the ſeller be ſuppoſed to accept of a lower than that which he paid to the manufacturer. This competition is properly called *double*, becauſe of the difficulty to determine upon which ſide it ſtands; the ſame merchant may have it in his favour upon certain articles, and againſt him upon others; it is continually in vibration, and the arrival of every poſt may leſs or more pull down the heavy ſcale.

In every tranſaction between merchants, the profit reſulting from the ſale muſt be exactly diſtinguiſhed from the value of the merchandiſe. The firſt may vary, the laſt never can. It is this profit alone which can be influenced by competition; and it is for that reaſon we find ſuch uniformity everywhere in the prices of goods of the ſame quality.

The competition between ſellers does not appear ſo ſtriking as that between buyers; becauſe he who offers to ſale, appears only paſſive in the firſt operation; whereas the buyers preſent themſelves one after another; they make a demand when the merchandiſe is refuſed to one at a certain price; a ſecond either offers more, or does not offer at all; but ſo ſoon as another ſeller finds his account in accepting the price the firſt had refuſed, then the firſt enters into competition, providing his profits will admit his lowering the firſt price; and thus competition takes place among the ſellers, until the profits upon their trade prevent prices from falling lower.

In all markets this competition is varying, though inſenſibly, on many occaſions; but in others the vibrations are very perceptible. Sometimes it is found ſtrongeſt on the ſide of the buyers; and in proportion as this grows, the competition between the ſellers diminiſhes. When the competition between the former has raiſed prices to a certain ſtandard, it comes to a ſtop; then the competition changes ſides, and takes place among the ſellers, eager to profit by the higheſt price. This makes prices fall; and according as they fall, the competition among the buyers diminiſhes. They ſtill wait for the loweſt period. At laſt it comes, and then perhaps ſome new circumſtance, by giving the balance a kick, diſappoints their hopes. If therefore it ever happens, that there is but one intereſt upon one ſide of the contract, as in the example in the former ſection, where we ſuppoſed the ſellers united, you perceive, that the riſe of the price, occaſioned by the competition of the buyers, and even its coming to a ſtop, could not poſſibly have the effect of producing any competition on the other ſide; and therefore, if prices come afterwards to ſink, the fall muſt have proceeded from the prudential conſiderations of adapting the price to the faculties of thoſe who, from the height of it, had withdrawn their demand.

From theſe principles of competition, the foreſtalling of markets is made a crime, becauſe it diminiſhes the competition which ought to take place between different people, who have the ſame merchandiſe to offer to ſale. The foreſtaller buys all up, with an intention to ſell with more profit, as he has by that means taken other competitors out of his way, and appears with a ſingle intereſt on one ſide of the contract, in the face of many competitors on the other. This perſon is puniſhed by the ſtate, becauſe he has prevented the price of the merchandiſe from becoming juſtly proportioned to the real value; he has robbed the public and enriched himſelf; and in the puniſhment he makes reſtitution. Here occur two queſtions to be reſolved, for the ſake of illuſtration.

Can competition among buyers poſſibly take place, when the proviſion made is more than ſufficient to ſupply the quantity demanded? On the other hand, can competition take place among the ſellers, when the quantity demanded exceeds the total proviſion made for it?

We think it may in both caſes; becauſe in the one and the other, there is a competition implied on one ſide of the contract, and the very nature of this competition preſuppoſes a poſſibility of its coming on the other, provided ſeparate intereſts be found upon both ſides. But to be more particular:

1. Experience ſhows, that however juſtly the proportion between the demand and the ſupply may be determined in fact, it is ſtill next to impoſſible to diſcover it exactly, and therefore the buyers can only regulate the prices they offer, by what they may reaſonably

Principles. ably expect to sell for gain. The sellers, on the other hand, can only regulate the prices they expect, by what the merchandise has cost them when brought to market. We have already shown, how, under such circumstances, the several interests of individuals affect each other, and make the balance vibrate.

2. The proportion between the supply and the demand is seldom other than *relative* among merchants, who are supposed to buy and sell, not from necessity, but from a view to profit. What we mean by *relative* is, that their demand is *great* or *small* according to prices; there may be a great demand for grain at 35s. per quarter, and no demand at all for it at 40s.; that is, among merchants.

It is essential to attend to the smallest circumstance in matters of this kind. The circumstance we mean, is the difference we find in the effect of competition, when it takes place purely among merchants on both sides of the contract, and when it happens, that either the consumers mingle themselves with the merchant-buyers, or the manufacturers, that is, the furnishers, mingle themselves with the merchant-sellers. This combination we shall illustrate by the solution of another question, and then conclude with a few reflections upon the whole.

Can there be no case formed where the competition upon one side may subsist, without a possibility of its taking place on the other, although there should be separate interests upon both?

The case is hardly supposable among merchants, who buy and sell with a view to profit; but it is absolutely supposable, and that is all, when the direct consumers are the buyers; when the circumstances of one of the parties is perfectly known; and when the competition is so strong upon one side, as to prevent a possibility of its becoming double, before the whole provision is sold off, or the demand satisfied. Let us have recourse to examples.

Grain arriving in a small quantity, at a port where the inhabitants are starving, producing so great a competition among the consumers who are the buyers, that their necessity becomes evident; all the grain is generally bought up before prices can rise so high as to come to a stop; because nothing but want of money, that is, an impossibility of complying with the prices demanded by the merchants can restrain them: but if you suppose, even here, that prices come naturally to a stop; or that, after some time, they fall lower, from prudential considerations; then there is a possibility of a competition taking place among the sellers, from the principles above deduced. If, on the contrary, the stop is not natural, but occasioned by the interposition of the magistrate, from humanity, or the like, there will be no competition, because then the principles of commerce are suspended; the sellers are restrained on one side, and they restrain the buyers on the other. Or rather indeed, it is the magistrate, or compassion, who in a manner fixes the price, and performs the office of both buyer and seller.

A better example still may be found, in a competition among sellers, where it may be so strong as to render a commodity in a manner of no value at all, as in the case of an uncommon and unexpected draught of fish, in a place of small consumption, when no preparations have been made for salting them. There can be then no competition among the buyers, because the market cannot last, and they find themselves entirely masters, to give what price they please, being sure the sellers must accept of it, or lose their merchandise. In the first example, humanity commonly stops the activity of the principle of competition; in the other, it is stopped by a certain degree of fair dealing, which forbids the accepting of a merchandise for nothing. Principle

In proportion therefore as the rising of prices can stop demand, or the sinking of prices can increase it, in the same proportion will competition prevent either the rise or the fall from being carried beyond a certain length; and if such a case can be put, where the rising of prices cannot stop demand, nor the lowering of prices augment it, in such cases double competition has no effect; because these circumstances unite the most separate interests of buyers and sellers in the mercantile contract; and when upon one side there is no separate interest, there can then be no competition.

From what has been said, we may form a judgment of the various degree of competition. A book not worth a shilling, a fish of a few pounds weight, are often sold for considerable sums. The buyers here are not merchants. When an ambassador leaves a court in a hurry, things are sold for less than the half of their value; he is no merchant, and his situation is known. When, at a public market, there are found consumers, who make their provision, or manufacturers, who dispose of their goods for present subsistence; the merchants, who are respectively upon the opposite side of the contract to these, profit of their competition; and those who are respectively upon the same side with them, stand by with patience until they have finished their business. Then matters come to be carried on between merchant and merchant, and then profits may rise and fall in the proportion of quantity to demand; that is to say, if the provision is less than the demand, the competition among the demanders, or the rise of the price, will be in the compound proportion of the falling short of the commodity, and of the prospect of selling again with profit. It is this combination which regulates the competition, and keeps it within bounds. It can affect but the profits upon the transaction; the intrinsic value of the commodity stands immoveable; nothing is ever sold below the real value; nothing is ever bought for more than it may probably bring. We mean in general. Whereas, so soon as consumers and needy manufacturers mingle in the operation, all proportion is lost. The competition between them is too strong for the merchants; the balance vibrates by jerks. In such markets merchants seldom appear; the principal objects there, are the fruits and productions of the earth, and articles of the first necessity for life, not manufactures strictly so called. A poor fellow often sells to purchase bread to eat; not to pay what he did eat while he was employed in the work he disposes of. The consumer often measures the value of what he is about to purchase, by the weight of his purse, and his desire to consume.

§ 6. *Of what is called Expence, Profit, and Loss.*

The term *expence*, when simply expressed, without any particular relation, is always understood to be relative

Principles. lative to money. This kind is diſtinguiſhed under the three heads of *private*, *public*, and *national*.

1. *Private expence* is what a private perſon, or private ſociety, lays out, either to provide articles of conſumption, or ſomething more permanent, which may be conducive to their eaſe, convenience, or advantage. Thus we ſay, *a large domeſtic expence*, relative to one who ſpends a great income. We ſay, a merchant has been at *great expence* for magazines, for living, for clerks, &c. but never that he has been at any in buying goods. In the ſame way a manufacturer may expend for building, machines, horſes, and carriages, but never for the matter he manufactures. When a thing is bought in order to be ſold again, the ſum employed is called money *advanced;* when it is bought not to be ſold, it may be ſaid to be *expended*.

2. *Public expence* is the employment of that money which has been contributed by individuals for the current ſerviceof the ſtate. The contribution, or the gathering it together, repreſents the effects of many articles of *private expence;* the laying it out when collected is *public expence*.

3. *National expence* is what is expended out of the country, this is what diminiſhes national wealth. The principal diſtinction to be here attended to is between public expence, or the laying out of public money, and national expence, which is the alienating the nation's wealth in favour of ſtrangers. Thus the greateſt public expence imaginable may be no national expence; becauſe the money may remain at home. On the other hand, the ſmalleſt public, or even private expence, may be a national expence; becauſe the money may go abroad.

Profit and *loſs* is divided into *poſitive*, *relative*, and *compound*. *Poſitive profit* implies no loſs to any body; it reſults from an augmentation of labour, induſtry, or ingenuity, and has the effect of ſwelling or augmenting the public good.

Poſitive loſs implies no profit to any body; it is what reſults from the ceſſation of the former, or of the effects reſulting from it, and may be ſaid to diminiſh the public good.

Relative profit is what implies a loſs to ſomebody; it marks a vibration of the balance of wealth between parties, but implies no addition to the general ſtock.

Relative loſs is what, on the contrary, implies a profit to ſomebody; it alſo marks a vibration of the balance, but takes nothing from the general ſtock.

The *compound* is eaſily underſtood; it is that ſpecies of profit and loſs which is partly relative and partly poſitive.

§ 7. *The general conſequences reſulting to a trading Nation, upon the opening of an active foreign Commerce.*

A nation which remains paſſive in her commerce is at the mercy of thoſe who are active, and muſt be greatly favoured indeed by natural advantages, or by a conſtant flux of gold and ſilver from her mines, to be able to ſupport a correſpondence not entirely hurtful to the augmentation of her wealth.

When we look upon the wide field which here opens to our view, we are perplexed with too great a variety of objects. In one part, we ſee a decent and comely beginning of induſtry; wealth flowing gently in to recompenſe ingenuity; numbers both augmenting, and every one becoming daily more uſeful to another; agriculture proportionally extending itſelf; no violent revolution; no exorbitant profits; no inſolence among the rich; no exceſſive miſery among the poor; multitudes employed in producing; great economy upon conſumption; and all the inſtruments of luxury, daily produced by the hands of the diligent, going out of the country for the ſervice of ſtrangers; not remaining at home for the gratification of ſenſuality. At laſt the augmentations come inſenſibly to a ſtop. Then theſe rivers of wealth, which were in briſk circulation through the whole world, and which returned to this trading nation as blood returns to the heart, only to be thrown out again by new pulſations, begin to be obſtructed in their courſe; and flowing abroad more ſlowly than before, come to form ſtagnations at home. Theſe, impatient of reſtraint, ſoon burſt out into domeſtic circulation. Upon this cities ſwell in magnificence of buildings; the face of the country is adorned with palaces, and becomes covered with groves; luxury ſhines triumphant in every part; inequality becomes more ſtriking to the eye; and want and miſery appear more deformed from the contraſt; even fortune grows more whimſical in her inconſtancy; the beggar of the other day now rides in his coach; and he who was born in a bed of ſtate, is ſeen to die in a gaol, or in an alms houſe. Such are the effects of great domeſtic circulations.

The ſtateſman looks about with amazement; he who was wont to conſider himſelf as the firſt man in the ſociety in every reſpect, perceives himſelf, perhaps, eclipſed by the luſtre of private wealth, which avoids his graſp when he attempts to ſeize it. This makes his government more complex and more difficult to be carried on; he muſt now avail himſelf of art and addreſs, as well as of power and force. By the help of cajoling and intrigues he gets a little into debt; this lays a foundation for public credit, which growing by degrees, and in its progreſs aſſuming many new forms, becomes, from the moſt tender beginnings, a moſt formidable monſter, ſtriking terror into thoſe who cheriſhed it in its infancy. Upon this, as upon a triumphant war-horſe, the ſtateſman gets aſtride; he then appears formidable anew; his head turns giddy; he is choked with the duſt he has raiſed; and at the moment he is ready to fall, to his utter aſtoniſhment and ſurpriſe, he finds a ſtrong monied intereſt of his own creating, which, inſtead of ſwallowing him up, as he apprehended, flies to his ſupport. Through this he gets the better of all oppoſition, he eſtabliſhes taxes, multiplies them, mortgages his fund of ſubſiſtence; either becomes a bankrupt, and riſes again from his aſhes; or if he be leſs audacious, he ſtands trembling and tottering for a while on the brink of the political precipice. From the one or the other of theſe perilous ſituations, he begins to diſcover an endleſs path, which after a multitude of windings ſtill returns into itſelf, and continues an equal courſe through this vaſt labyrinth.

It is now full time to leave off rhapſody, and return to reaſoning and cool inquiry, concerning the more

Principles. more immediate and more general effects and revolutions produced by the opening of a foreign trade in a nation of induſtry.

The firſt and moſt ſenſible alteration will be an increaſe of demand for manufacturers, becauſe by ſupplying the wants of ſtrangers, the number of conſumers will now be conſiderably augmented. What again will follow upon this, muſt depend upon circumſtances.

If this revolution in the ſtate of demand ſhould prove too violent, the conſequence of it will be to raiſe demand; if it ſhould prove gradual, it will increaſe it. This diſtinction is well underſtood, and the conſequence appears juſt; for, if the ſupply do not increaſe in proportion to the demand, a competition will enſue among the demanders; which is the common effect of ſuch ſudden revolutions. If, on the other hand, a gentle increaſe of demand ſhould be accompanied with a proportional ſupply, the whole induſtrious ſociety will grow in vigour, and in wholeſome ſtature, without being ſenſible of any great advantage or inconveniency; the change of their circumſtances will even be imperceptible.

The immediate effects of the violent revolution will, in this example, be flattering to ſome and diſagreeable to others. Wealth will be found daily to augment, from the riſing of prices, in many branches of induſtry. This will encourage the induſtrious claſſes, and the idle conſumers at home will complain. We have already dwelt abundantly long upon the effect reſulting from this to the lower claſſes of the people, in providing them with a certain means of ſubſiſtence. Let us now examine in what reſpect even the higher claſſes will be made likewiſe to feel the good effects of this general change, although at firſt they may ſuffer a temporary inconvenience from it.

Farmers, as has been obſerved, will have a greater difficulty in finding ſervants, who, inſtead of labouring the ground, will chooſe to turn themſelves to manufactures. This we have conſidered in the light of purging the lands of ſuperfluous mouths; but every conſequence in this great chain of politics draws other conſequences after it; and as they follow one another, things put on different faces, which affect claſſes differently. The purging of the land is but one of the firſt; here follows another.

The deſertion of the hands employed in a trifling agriculture will at firſt, no doubt, embarraſs the farmers; but in a little time every thing becomes balanced in a trading nation, becauſe here every induſtrious man muſt advance in proſperity, in ſpite of all general combinations of circumſtances.

In the caſe before us, the relative profits upon farming muſt ſoon become greater than formerly, becauſe of this additional expence which muſt affect the whole claſs of farmers; conſequently, this additional expence, inſtead of turning out to be a loſs to either landlord or farmer, will, after ſome little time, turn out to the advantage of both, becauſe the produce of the ground, being indiſpenſably neceſſary to every body, muſt in every article increaſe in its value. Thus, in a ſhort time, accounts will be nearly balanced on all hands; that is to ſay, the ſame proportion of wealth will, *cæteris paribus*, continue the ſame among the induſtrious. We ſay among the induſtrious; for thoſe who are either idle, or even negligent, will be great loſers. Principl

A proprietor of land, inattentive to the cauſes of his farmer's additional expence, may very imprudently ſuffer his rents to fall, inſtead of aſſiſting him on a proper occaſion, in order to make them afterwards riſe the higher.

Thoſe who live upon a determined income in money, and who are nowiſe employed in traffic, nor in any ſcheme of induſtry, will, by the augmentation of prices, be found in worſe circumſtances than before.

In a trading nation every man muſt turn his talents to account, or he will undoubtedly be left behind in this univerſal emulation, in which the moſt induſtrious, the moſt ingenious, and the moſt frugal, will conſtantly carry off the prize.

This conſideration ought to be a ſpur to every man. The richeſt men in a trading nation have no ſecurity againſt poverty; we mean proportional poverty; for though they diminiſh nothing of their income, yet, by not increaſing it in proportion to others, they loſe their rank in wealth, and from the firſt claſs in which they ſtood they will ſlide inſenſibly down to a lower.

There is one conſequence of an additional beneficial trade, which raiſes demand and increaſes wealth; but if we ſuppoſe no proportional augmentation of ſupply, it will prove at beſt but an airy dream which laſts for a moment; and when the gilded ſcene is paſſed away, numberleſs are the inconveniences which are ſeen to follow.

We ſhall now point out the natural conſequences of this augmentation of wealth drawn from foreign nations, when the ſtateſman remains inattentive to increaſe the ſupply both of food and manufactures, in proportion to the augmentation of mouths, and of the demand for the produce of induſtry.

In ſuch a ſituation profits will daily ſwell, and every ſcheme for reducing them within the bounds of moderation, will be looked upon as a hurtful and unpopular meaſure: be it ſo; but let us examine the conſequences.

We have ſaid, that the riſe of demand for manufactures naturally increaſes the value of work: now we muſt add, that under ſuch circumſtances, the augmentation of riches in a country, either not capable of improvement as to the ſoil, or where precautions have not been taken for facilitating a multiplication of inhabitants, by the importation of ſubſiſtence, will be productive of the moſt calamitous conſequences.

On one ſide, this wealth will effectually diminiſh the maſs of the food before produced; and on the other, will increaſe the number of uſeleſs conſumers. The firſt of theſe circumſtances will raiſe the demand for food; and the ſecond will diminiſh the number of uſeful free hands, and conſequently raiſe the price of manufactures: here are ſhortly the outlines of this progreſs.

The more rich and luxurious a people are, the more delicate they become in their manner of living; if they fed on bread formerly, they will now feed on meat; if they fed on meat, they will now feed on fowl. The ſame ground which feeds a hundred with bread, and a proportional quantity of animal-food, will not maintain an equal number of delicate livers.

Principles. Food muſt then become more ſcarce; demand for it riſes; the rich are always the ſtrongeſt in the market; they conſume the food, and the poor are forced to ſtarve. Here the wide door to modern diſtreſs opens; to wit, a hurtful competition for ſubſiſtence. Farther, when a people become rich, they think leſs of economy; a number of uſeleſs ſervants are hired, to become an additional dead weight on conſumption; and when their ſtarving countrymen cannot ſupply the extravagance of the rich ſo cheaply as other nations, they either import inſtruments of foreign luxury, or ſeek to enjoy them out of their own country, and thereby make reſtitution of their gains.

Is it not therefore evident, that if, before things come to this paſs, additional ſubſiſtence be not provided by one method or other, the number of inhabitants muſt diminiſh; although riches may daily increaſe by a balance of additional matter ſuppoſed to be brought into the country in conſequence of the hitherto beneficial foreign trade? This is not all. We ſay further, that the beneficial trade will laſt for a time only. For the infallible conſequences of the riſe of prices at home will be, that thoſe nations which at firſt conſumed your manufactures, perceiving the gradual increaſe of their price, will begin to work for themſelves; or finding out your rivals who can ſupply them cheaper, will open their doors to them. Theſe again, perceiving the great advantages gained by your traders, will begin to ſupply the market; and ſince every thing muſt be cheaper in countries where we do not ſuppoſe the concurrence of all the circumſtances mentioned above, theſe nations will ſupplant you, and be enriched in their turn.

Here comes a new revolution. Trade is at a ſtand: what then becomes of all the hands which were formerly employed in ſupplying the foreign demands?

Were revolutions ſo ſudden as we are obliged to repreſent them, all would go to wreck; in proportion as they happen by quicker or ſlower degrees, the inconveniences are greater or ſmaller.

Prices, we have ſaid, are made to riſe by competition. If the competition of the ſtrangers was what raiſed them, the diſtreſs upon the manufacturers will be in proportion to the ſuddenneſs of their deſerting the market. If the competition was divided between the ſtrangers and the home conſumers, the inconveniences which enſue will be leſs; becauſe the deſertion of the ſtrangers will be in ſome meaſure made up by an increaſe of home-conſumption which will follow upon the fall of prices. And if, in the third caſe, the natives have been ſo imprudent, as not only to ſupport a competition with the ſtrangers, and thereby diſguſt them from coming any more to market, but even to continue the competition between themſelves, the whole loſs ſuſtained by the revolution will be national. Wealth will ceaſe to augment; but the inconveniences, in place of being felt by the manufacturers, will only affect the ſtate; theſe will continue in affluence, extolling the generoſity of their countrymen, and deſpiſing the poverty of the ſtrangers who had enriched them.

Domeſtic luxury will here prove an expedient for preſerving from ruin the induſtrious part of a people, who in ſubſiſting themſelves had enriched their country. No change will follow in their condition; they will go on with a painful aſſiduity to labour; and if the conſequences of it become now hurtful to one part of the ſtate, they muſt at leaſt be allowed to be eſſentially neceſſary for the ſupport of another. Principles.

But that luxury is no neceſſary concomitant of foreign trade, in a nation where the true principles of it are underſtood, will appear very plain, from a contraſt we are now going to point out, in the example of a modern ſtate, renowned for its commerce and frugality. The country is Holland.

A ſet of induſtrious and frugal people were aſſembled in a country by nature ſubject to many inconveniences, the removing of which neceſſarily employed abundance of hands. Their ſituation upon the continent, the power of their former maſters, and the ambition of their neighbours, obliged them to keep great bodies of troops. Theſe two articles added to the numbers of the community, without either enriching the ſtate by their labour exported, or producing food for themſelves or countrymen.

The ſcheme of a commonwealth was calculated to draw together the induſtrious; but it has been ſtill more uſeful in ſubſiſting them: the republican form of government being there greatly ſubdivided, veſts authority ſufficient in every part of it, to make ſuitable proviſion for their own ſubſiſtence; and the tie which unites them, regards only matters of public concern. Had the whole been governed by one ſovereign, or by one council, this important matter never could have been effected.

It would be impoſſible for the moſt able miniſter that ever lived, to provide nouriſhment for a country ſo extended as France, or even as England, ſuppoſing theſe as fully peopled as Holland is; even although it ſhould be admitted that a ſufficient quantity of food might be found in other countries for their ſubſiſtence. The enterpriſe would be too great, abuſes would multiply; the conſequence would be, that the inhabitants would die for want. But in Holland, the caſe is different: every little town takes care of its own inhabitants; and this care being the object of application and profit to ſo many perſons, is accompliſhed with ſucceſs.

When once it is laid down as a maxim in a country, that food muſt of neceſſity be got from abroad in order to feed the inhabitants at home, the corn-trade becomes conſiderable, and at the ſame time certain, regular, and permanent. This was the caſe in Holland: as the inhabitants were induſtrious, the neceſſary conſequence has been, a very extraordinary multiplication; and at the ſame time ſuch an abundance of grain, that, inſtead of being in want themſelves, they often ſupply their neighbours. There are many examples of England's being ſupplied with grain from thence; and, which is ſtill more extraordinary, from the re-exportation of the very produce of its own fruitful ſoil.

It is therefore evident, that the only way to ſupport induſtry, is to provide a ſupply of ſubſiſtence, conſtantly proportional to the demand that may be made for it. This is a precaution indiſpenſably neceſſary for preventing hurtful competition. This is the particular care of the Dutch: ſo long as it can be effectual, their ſtate can fear no decline; but whenever they come to be diſtreſſed in the markets, upon

Principles.

which they depend for ſubſiſtence, they will ſink into ruin. It is by mere dint of frugality, cheap and parſimonious living, that the navigation of this induſtrious people is ſupported. Conſtant employment, and an accumulation of almoſt imperceptible gains, fill their coffers with wealth, in ſpite of the large outgoings, to which their own proper nouriſhment yearly forces them. The large profits upon induſtry in other countries, which are no proof of generoſity, but a fatal effect of a ſcanty ſubſiſtence, is far from dazzling their eyes. They ſeldom are found in the liſt of competitors at any foreign port; if they have their cargo to diſpoſe of, they wait with pleaſure in their own veſſels, conſuming their own proviſions, and at laſt accept of what others have left. It may be ſaid, that many other circumſtances concur in favour of the Dutch, beſides the article of ſubſiſtence. Without diſputing this matter, it may be obſerved, that if a computation be made of the hands employed in providing ſubſiſtence, and of thoſe who are ſeverally taken up in ſupplying every other want, their numbers will be found nearly to balance one another in the moſt luxurious countries. From this we may conclude, that the article of food, among the lower claſſes, muſt bear a very high proportion to all the other articles of their conſumption; and therefore a diminution upon the price of ſubſiſtence, muſt be of infinite conſequence to manufacturers who are obliged to buy it. From this conſideration, let us judge of the conſequence of ſuch augmentations upon the price of grain as are familiar to us; 30 or 40 per cent. ſeems nothing. Now this augmentation operates upon two-thirds, at leaſt, of the whole expence of a labouring man: let any one who lives in tolerable affluence make the application of this to himſelf, and examine how he would manage his affairs, if, by accidents of rains or winds, his expences were to riſe 30 per cent. without a poſſibility of reſtraining them; for this is unfortunately the caſe with all the lower claſſes. From whence it may be concluded, that the keeping food cheap, and ſtill more the preſerving it at all times at an equal ſtandard, is the fountain of the wealth of Holland; and that any hurtful competition in this article muſt beget a diſorder which will affect the whole of the manufacturers of a ſtate.

Principle

COM

Commercy || Comminatory.

COMMERCY, a handſome town of France in the duchy of Bar, with the title of a principality, and a magnificent caſtle. It is ſeated on the river Meuſe, in E. Long. 5. 24. N. Lat. 48. 20.

COMMERSONIA. See BOTANY *Index*.

COMMINATION, an office in the liturgy of the church of England, appointed to be read on Aſh Wedneſday, or the firſt day of Lent. It is ſubſtituted in the room of that *godly diſcipline in the primitive church*, by which (as the introduction to the office expreſſes it), "ſuch perſons, as ſtood convicted of notorious ſins, were put to open penance, and puniſhed in this world, that their ſouls might be ſaved in the day of the Lord; and that others, admoniſhed by their example, might be the more afraid to offend." This diſcipline, in after ages, degenerated, in the church of Rome, into a formal confeſſion of ſins upon Aſh Wedneſday, and the empty ceremony of ſprinkling aſhes upon the heads of the people. Our reformers wiſely rejected this ceremony, as mere ſhadow and ſhow; and ſubſtituted this office in its room, which is *A denunciation of God's anger and judgment againſt ſinners*, that the people being appriſed of God's wrath and indignation againſt ſin, may not, through want of diſcipline in the church, be encouraged to follow and purſue them; but rather be moved to ſupply that diſcipline to themſelves, and ſo as to avoid being judged and condemned at the tribunal of God.

COMMINATORY, an appellation given to whatever threatens puniſhment, or ſome penalty. Thus, in France, when an exile is enjoined not to return under pain of death, it is deemed a *comminatory* penalty; ſince, if he do return, it is not ſtrictly executed: but a ſecond injunction is laid on him, which is more than comminatory, and, from the day of the date thereof, imports death without remedy.

Comminatory || Commiſſary.

COMMINGES, a province of France, 45 miles in length, and 15 in breadth; bounded on the north by Gaſcony, on the ſouth by Catalonia, on the eaſt by Couſſerans, and on the weſt by Bigorre. Its principal trade conſiſts in cattle, mules, and corn. St Bertrand is the capital town.

COMMINUTION, denotes the breaking, or rather grinding, a body to very ſmall particles.

COMMIRE, JOHN, a celebrated Latin poet, born at Amboiſe in 1625, entered into the ſociety of the Jeſuits, and taught polite literature and divinity. He died at Paris in 1702. We have a volume of his Latin Poems, and a collection of his poſthumous works. His odes and fables are more particularly admired.

COMMISSARY, in the eccleſiaſtical law, an officer of the biſhop, who exerciſes ſpiritual juriſdiction in places of a dioceſe ſo far from the epiſcopal ſee, that the chancellor cannot call the people to the biſhop's principal conſiſtory court, without giving them too much inconveniency.

COMMISSARY-Court, in Scotland, a court originally conſtituted by the biſhops for executing in their name an uſurped juriſdiction; and was anciently called the *biſhop's court*, *curia Chriſtianitatis*, or *conſiſtorial court*. This court was modelled by Queen Mary at the Reformation, and continues to this day.

COMMISSARY, in a military ſenſe, is of different ſorts.

COMMISSARY-General of the Muſters, an officer appointed to muſter the army, as often as the general thinks proper, in order to know the ſtrength of each regiment

Commiſſary, Commiſſion.

regiment and company, to receive and inſpect the muſter-rolls, and to keep an exact ſtate of the ſtrength of the army.

COMMISSARY of Horſes, an officer in the artillery appointed to have the inſpection of the artillery-horſes, to ſee them muſtered, and to ſend ſuch orders as he receives from the commanding officer of the artillery by ſome of the conductors of horſes, of which he has a certain number for his aſſiſtants.

COMMISSARY of Proviſions, an officer who has the charge of furniſhing the army with proviſions.

COMMISSARY of Stores, an officer in the artillery who has the charge of all the ſtores, for which he is accountable to the office of ordnance.

COMMISSION, in common law, the warrant or letters patent, which all perſons exerciſing juriſdiction have to empower them to hear or determine any cauſe or ſuit; as the commiſſion of the judges, &c.

COMMISSION of Bankruptcy, is the commiſſion that iſſues from the lord chancellor on a perſon's becoming a bankrupt within any of the ſtatutes, directed to certain commiſſioners appointed to examine into it, and to ſecure the bankrupt's lands and effects for the ſatisfaction of his creditors. See the article BANKRUPT.

The proceedings on a commiſſion of bankruptcy may be divided, 1. Into thoſe which affect the bankrupt himſelf. 2. Into thoſe which affect his property.

Blackſt Comment.

1. As to thoſe of the former kind, there muſt, in the firſt place, be a petition to the lord chancellor by one creditor to the amount of 100l. or by two to the amount of 150l. or by three or more to the amount of 200l.; upon which he grants a commiſſion to ſuch diſcreet perſons as to him ſhall ſeem good, who are then ſtyled commiſſioners of bankrupt. The petitioners, to prevent malicious applications, muſt be bound in a ſecurity of 200l. to make the party amends, in caſe they do not prove him a bankrupt. And if, on the other hand, they receive any money or effects from the bankrupt, as a recompenſe for ſuing out the commiſſion, ſo as to receive more than their rateable dividends of the bankrupt's eſtate, they forfeit not only what they ſhall have ſo received, but their whole debt. When the commiſſion is awarded and iſſued, the commiſſioners are to meet at their own expence, and to take an oath for the due execution of their commiſſion, and to be allowed a ſum not exceeding 20s. *per diem* each, at every ſitting. And no commiſſion of bankruptcy ſhall abate or be void on any demiſe on the crown.

When the commiſſioners have received their commiſſion, they are firſt to receive proof of the perſon's being a trader, and having committed ſome act of bankruptcy; and then to declare him bankrupt, if proved ſo; and to give notice thereof in the gazette, and at the ſame time to appoint three meetings. At one of theſe meetings an election muſt be made of aſſignees, or perſons to whom the bankrupt's eſtate ſhall be aſſigned, and in whom it ſhall be veſted for the benefit of the creditors; which aſſignees are choſen by the major part, in value, of the creditors who ſhall then have proved their debts; but may be originally appointed by the commiſſioners, and afterwards approved or rejected by the creditors; but no creditors ſhall be admitted to vote in the choice of aſſignees, whoſe debt on the balance of accounts, does not amount to 10l. And at the third meeting at fartheſt, which muſt be on the 42d day after the advertiſement in the gazette, the bankrupt, upon notice alſo perſonally ſerved upon him, or left at his uſual place of abode, muſt ſurrender himſelf perſonally to the commiſſioners, and muſt henceforth in all reſpects conform to the directions of the ſtatutes of bankruptcy; or, in default thereof, ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy, and ſhall ſuffer death, and his goods and eſtate ſhall be divided among his creditors.

In caſe the bankrupt abſconds, or is likely to run away between the time of the commiſſion iſſued and the laſt day of ſurrender, he may, by warrant from any judge or juſtice of the peace, be apprehended and committed to the county gaol, in order to be forthcoming to the commiſſioners, who are alſo empowered immediately to grant a warrant for ſeizing his goods and papers.

When the bankrupt appears, the commiſſioners are to examine him touching all matters relating to his trade and effects. They may alſo ſummon before them, and examine, the bankrupt's wife, and any other perſon whatſoever, as to all matters relating to the bankrupt's affairs: And in caſe any of them ſhall refuſe to anſwer, or ſhall not anſwer fully, to any lawful queſtion, or ſhall refuſe to ſubſcribe ſuch their examination, the commiſſioners may commit them to priſon without bail, till they make and ſign a full anſwer; the commiſſioners ſpecifying in their warrant of commitment the queſtion ſo refuſed to be anſwered. And any gaoler, permitting ſuch perſon to eſcape or go out of priſon, ſhall forfeit 500l. to the creditors.

The bankrupt, upon this examination, is bound, upon pain of death, to make a full diſcovery of all his eſtate and effects, as well in expectancy as poſſeſſion, and how he has diſpoſed of the ſame; together with all books and writings relating thereto: and is to deliver up all in his power to the commiſſioners (except the neceſſary apparel of himſelf, his wife, and his children); or in caſe he conceals or embezzles any effects to the amount of 20l. or withholds any book or writings, with intent to defraud his creditors, he ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

After the time allowed the bankrupt for ſuch diſcovery is expired, any other perſon voluntarily diſcovering any part of his eſtate before unknown to the aſſignees, ſhall be entitled to five per cent. out of the effects ſo diſcovered, and ſuch farther reward as the aſſignees and commiſſioners ſhall think proper. And any truſtee wilfully concealing the eſtate of any bankrupt, after the expiration of 42 days, ſhall forfeit 100l. and double the value of the eſtate concealed, to the creditors.

Hitherto every thing is in favour of the creditors; and the law ſeems to be pretty rigid and ſevere againſt the bankrupt; but, in caſe he proves honeſt, it makes him full amends for all this rigour and ſeverity. For, if the bankrupt hath made an ingenuous diſcovery, hath conformed to the directions of the law, and hath acted in all points to the ſatisfaction of his creditors; and if they, or four parts in five of them in number and value (but none of them creditors for leſs than 20l.

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20l. will ſign a certificate to that purport; the commiſſioners are then to authenticate ſuch certificate under their hands and ſeals, and to tranſmit it to the lord chancellor: and he, or two judges whom he ſhall appoint, on oath made by the bankrupt that ſuch certificate was obtained without fraud, may allow the ſame; or diſallow it, upon cauſe ſhown by any of the creditors of the bankrupt.

If no cauſe be ſhown to the contrary, the certificate is allowed of courſe; and then the bankrupt is entitled to a decent and reaſonable allowance out of his effects for his future ſupport and maintenance, and to put him in a way of honeſt induſtry. This allowance is alſo in proportion to his former good behaviour, in the early diſcovery of the decline of his affairs, and thereby giving his creditors a large dividend. For if his effects will not pay one half of his debts, or 10s. in the pound, he is left to the diſcretion of the commiſſioners and aſſignees, to have a competent ſum allowed him, not exceeding 3 per cent.; but if they pay 10s. in the pound, he is to be allowed 5 per cent; if 12s. 6d. then 7½ per cent.; and if 15s. in the pound, then the bankrupts ſhall be allowed 10 per cent; provided that ſuch allowance do not in the firſt caſe exceed 200l. in the ſecond 250l. and in the third 300l.

Beſides this allowance, he has alſo an indemnity granted him, of being free and diſcharged for ever from all debts owing by him at the time he became a bankrupt; even though judgment ſhall have been obtained againſt him, and he lies in priſon upon execution for ſuch debts; and, for that among other purpoſes, all proceedings on commiſſion of bankrupt, are, on petition, to be entered on record, as a perpetual bar againſt actions to be commenced upon this account: though, in general, the production of the certificate properly allowed ſhall be ſufficient evidence of all previous proceedings. Thus the bankrupt becomes a clear man again; and by the aſſiſtance of his allowance and his own induſtry, may become an uſeful member of the commonwealth; which is the rather to be expected, as he cannot be entitled to theſe benefits, but by the teſtimony of his creditors themſelves of his honeſt and ingenuous diſpoſition; and unleſs his failures have been owing to miſfortunes, rather than to miſconduct and extravagance.

2. As to the proceedings which affect the bankrupt's property.

By virtue of the ſtatutes before mentioned, all the perſonal eſtate and effects of the bankrupt are conſidered as veſted, by the act of bankruptcy, in the future aſſignees of his commiſſioners, whether they be goods in actual poſſeſſion, or debts, contracts, and other choſes in action; and the commiſſioners by their warrant may cauſe any houſe or tenement of the bankrupt to be broken open, in order to enter upon and ſeize the ſame. And when the aſſignees are choſen or approved by the creditors, the commiſſioners are to aſſign every thing over to them; and the property of every part of the eſtate is hereby as fully veſted in them as it was in the bankrupt himſelf, and they have the ſame remedies to recover it.

The property veſted in the aſſignees is the whole that the bankrupt had in himſelf, at the time he committed the firſt act of bankruptcy, or that has been veſted in him ſince, before his debts are ſatisfied or agreed for. Therefore, it is uſually ſaid that once a bankrupt and always a bankrupt; by which is meant, that a plain direct act of bankruptcy once committed, cannot be purged, or explained away, by any ſubſequent conduct, as a dubious equivocal act may be; but that, if a commiſſion is afterward awarded, the commiſſion and the property of the aſſignees ſhall have a relation, or reference, back to the firſt and original act of bankruptcy. Inſomuch that all tranſactions of the bankrupt are from that time abſolutely null and void, either with regard to the alienation of his property, or the receipt of his debts from ſuch as are privy to his bankruptcy; for they are no longer his property, or his debts, but thoſe of the future aſſignees. And if an execution be ſued out, but not ſerved and executed on the bankrupt's effects till after the act of bankruptcy, it is void, as againſt the aſſignees. But the king is not bound by this fictitious relation, nor is within the ſtatutes of bankrupts; for if, after the act of bankruptcy committed, and before the aſſignment of his effects, an extent iſſues for the debt of the crown, the goods are bound thereby. In France this doctrine of relation is carried to a very great length: for there, every act of a merchant, for ten days precedent to the act of bankruptcy, is preſumed to be fraudulent, and is therefore void. But with us the law ſtands upon a more reaſonable footing; for as theſe acts of bankruptcy may ſometimes be ſecret to all but a few, and it would be prejudicial to trade to carry this notion to its utmoſt length, it is provided by ſtat. 19 Geo. II. c. 32. that no money paid by a bankrupt to a *bona fide*, or real creditor, in a courſe of trade, even after an act of bankruptcy done, ſhall be liable to be refunded. Nor by ſtat. 1 Jac. I. c. 15. ſhall any debtor of a bankrupt that pays him his debt without knowing of his bankruptcy, be liable to account for it again. The intention of this relative power being only to reach fraudulent tranſactions, and not to diſtreſs the fair trader.

The aſſignees may purſue any legal method of recovering this property ſo veſted in them by their own authority; but cannot commence a ſuit in equity, nor compound any debts owing to the bankrupt, nor refer any matters to arbitration, without the conſent of the creditors, or the major part of them in value, at a meeting to be held in purſuance of notice in the gazette.

When they have got in all the effects they can reaſonably hope for, and reduced them to ready money, the aſſignees muſt, within 12 months after the commiſſion iſſued, give 21 days notice to the creditors, of a meeting for a dividend or diſtribution; at which time they muſt produce their accounts, and verify them upon oath, if required. And then the commiſſioners ſhall direct a dividend to be made, at ſo much in the pound, to all creditors who have before proved, or ſhall then prove their debts. This dividend muſt be made equally, and in a rateable proportion, to all the creditors, according to the quantity of their debts; no regard being paid to the quality of them. Mortgages, indeed, for which the creditor has a real ſecurity in his own hands, are entirely ſafe; for the commiſſion of bankrupt reaches only the equity of redemption. So are all perſonal debts, where the creditor

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ditor has a chattel in his hands, or a pledge or pawn, for the payment, or has taken the debtor's lands or goods in execution. And, upon the equity of the ſtat. 8 An. c. 14. (which directs, that upon all executions of goods being on any premiſes demiſed to a tenant, one year's rent and no more, ſhall, if due, be paid to the landlord) it hath alſo been held, that under a commiſſion of bankrupt, which is in the nature of a ſtatute execution, the landlord ſhall be allowed his arrears of rent to the ſame amount, in preference to other creditors, even though he hath neglected to diſtrain while the goods remained on the premiſes; which he is otherwiſe entitled to do for his entire rent, be the quantum what it may. But otherwiſe judgments and recognizes (both which are debts of record, and therefore at other times have a priority), and alſo bonds and obligations by deed or ſpecial inſtrument (which are called deeds by ſpeciality, and are uſually the next in order), theſe are all put on a level with debts by mere ſimple contract, and all paid *pari paſſu*. Nay, ſo far is this matter carried, that, by the expreſs proviſion of the ſtatutes, debts not due at the time of the dividend made, as bonds or notes of hand, payable at a future day, ſhall be paid equally with the reſt, allowing a diſcount or drawback in proportion. And inſurances, and obligations upon bottomry or reſpondentia, *bona fide*, made by the bankrupt, though forfeited after the commiſſion is awarded, ſhall be looked upon in the ſame light as debts contracted before any act of bankruptcy.

Within 18 months after the commiſſion iſſued, a ſecond and final dividend ſhall be made, unleſs all the effects were exhauſted by the firſt. And if any ſurplus remains, after paying every creditor his full debt, it ſhall be reſtored to the bankrupt. This is a caſe which ſometimes happens to men in trade, who involuntarily, or at leaſt unwarily, commit acts of bankruptcy, by abſconding and the like, while their effects are more than ſufficient to pay their creditors. And if any ſuſpicious or malevolent creditor will take the advantage of ſuch acts, and ſue out a commiſſion, the bankrupt has no remedy, but muſt quietly ſubmit to the effects of his own imprudence: except that upon ſatisfaction made to all the creditors, the commiſſion may be ſuperſeded. This caſe may alſo happen when a knave is deſirous of defrauding his creditors, and is compelled, by a commiſſion, to do them that juſtice which otherwiſe he wanted to evade. And therefore, though the uſual rule is, that all intereſt on debts carrying intereſt ſhall ceaſe from the time of iſſuing the commiſſion, yet in caſe of a ſurplus left after payment of every debt, ſuch intereſt ſhall again revive, and be chargeable on the bankrupt or his repreſentatives.

Commiſſion of LUNACY, iſſues out of the court of chancery, whether a perſon repreſented to be a lunatic, be ſo or not. See LUNACY.

COMMISSION of Teinds, a court at Edinburgh, which came in place of a committee of the Scottiſh parliament, for erecting new pariſhes, and valuing teinds for the ſupport of the clergy. It is veſted in the lords of ſeſſion. See LAW *Index*.

COMMISSION-officers. See OFFICERS.

COMMISSION, in *Commerce*. See FACTORAGE.

COMMISSIONER, a perſon authorized by commiſſion, letters patent, or other lawful warrant, to examine any matters, or execute any lawful commiſſion.

COMMISSIONER in the General Aſſembly of the church of Scotland. See ASSEMBLY (*General*).

COMMISSIONERS of the Cuſtoms. See CUSTOMS.

COMMISSIONERS of Exciſe. See EXCISE.

COMMISSIONERS of the Navy. See NAVY.

Lords COMMISSIONERS of the Treaſury. See TREASURY and EXCHEQUER.

COMMISSURE, a term uſed by ſome authors for the ſmall metuſes or interſtices of bodies; or the little clefts between the particles: eſpecially when thoſe particles are broadiſh and flat, and lie contiguous to one another, like thin plates and lamellæ. The word literally ſignifies *a joining* or connecting of one thing to another.

COMMISSURE, in *Architecture*, &c. denotes the joint of two ſtones, or the application of the ſurface of the one to that of the other. See MASONRY.

Among anatomiſts, commiſſure is ſometimes alſo uſed for a ſuture of the cranium or ſkull. See SUTURE.

COMMITMENT, in criminal law, is the ſending to priſon a perſon who hath been guilty of any crime. This takes place where the offence is not bailable, or the party cannot find BAIL; muſt be by proper warrant, containing the cauſe of the commitment; and continues till put an end to by the courſe of law (ſee TRIAL); impriſonment being intended only for ſafe cuſtody, and not for puniſhment (ſee ARRESTMENT and BAIL). In this dubious interval between the commitment and trial, a priſoner ought to be uſed with the utmoſt humanity; and neither be loaded with needleſs fetters, nor ſubjected to other hardſhips than ſuch as are abſolutely requiſite for the purpoſe of confinement only: though what are ſo requiſite muſt too often be left to the direction of the gaolers, who are frequently a mercileſs race of men, and by being converſant in ſcenes of miſery, ſteeled againſt any tender ſenſation.

COMMITTEE, one or more perſons to whom the conſideration or ordering of a matter is referred, either by ſome court, or by the conſent of parties to whom it belongs.

COMMITTEE of Parliament, a certain number of members appointed by the houſe for the examination of a bill, making a report of an inquiry, proceſs of the houſe, &c. See PARLIAMENT.

Sometimes the whole houſe is reſolved into a committee; on which occaſion each perſon has a right to ſpeak and reply as much and as often as he pleaſes: an expedient they uſually have recourſe to in extraordinary caſes, and where any thing is to be thoroughly canvaſſed. When the houſe is not in a committee, each gives his opinion regularly, and is only allowed to ſpeak once, unleſs to explain himſelf.

The ſtanding committees, appointed by every new parliament, are thoſe of privileges and elections, of religion, of grievances, of courts of juſtice, and of trade; though only the former act.

COMMIXTION, in *Scots Law*, is a method of acquiring property, by mixing or blending together different ſubſtances belonging to different proprietors. See LAW *Index*.

Commiſſioner || Commixtion.

COMMODATE,

COMMODATE, Commodatum, in the civil jurisprudence, the loan or free concession of any thing movcable or immoveable, for a certain time, on condition of restoring again the same individual after a certain term. The commodate is a kind of loan; there is this difference, however, between a loan and a commodate, that the latter is gratis, and does not transfer the property: the thing must be returned in essence, and without impairment; so that things which consume by use or time cannot be objects of a commodate, but of a loan; in regard they may be returned in kind, though not in identity. See Law *Index*.

COMMODIANUS, Gazeus, a Christian author in the 4th century, who wrote a work in Latin verse, entitled Instructions; the moral of which is excellent, but the verse extremely heavy. M. Davies published a fine edition of it in 1711, at the end of Minucius Felix.

COMMODITY, in a general sense, denotes all sorts of wares and merchandises whatsoever that a person deals or trades in.

Staple COMMODITIES, such wares and merchandises as are commonly and readily sold in a market, or exported abroad; being for the most part the proper produce or manufacture of the country.

COMMODORE, a general officer in the British marine, invested with the command of a detachment of ships of war, destined on any particular enterprise, during which time he bears the rank of brigadier-general in the army, and is distinguished from the inferior ships of his squadron by a broad red pendant tapering towards the outer end, and sometimes forked. The word is corrupted from the Spanish *comendador*.

Commodore is also a name given to some select ship in a fleet of merchantmen, who leads the van in time of war, and carries a light in his top to conduct the rest and keep them together. He is always the oldest captain in the fleet which he commands.

COMMODUS, L. Aurelius Antoninus, son of M. Antoninus, succeeded his father in the Roman empire. He was naturally cruel and fond of indulging his licentious propensities. He wished to be called Hercules; and, like that hero, he adorned his shoulders with a lion's skin, and armed his hand with a knotted club. He publicly fought with the gladiators, and boasted of his dexterity in killing the wild beasts in the amphitheatre. He required divine honours from the senate, and they were granted. He was wont to put such an immense quantity of gold dust in his hair, that when he appeared bareheaded in the sunshine his head glittered as if surrounded with sun-beams. Martia, one of his concubines, whose death he had prepared, poisoned him: but as the poison did not quickly operate, he was strangled by a wrestler. He died in the 31st year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. It has been observed, that he never trusted himself to a barber; but always burnt his beard, in imitation of the tyrant Dionysius. A. D. 192.

COMMON, Communis, something that belongs to all alike; is owned or allowed by all; and not confined to this more than that. In this sense, *common* stands opposed to *proper*, *peculiar*, &c. Thus, the earth is said to be our *common* mother; in the first or golden age all things were in *common*, as well as the sun and elements: the name animal is *common* to man and beast; that of substance to body and spirit.

Common, *Communia*, (i. e. *quod ad omnes pertinet*), in law, signifies that soil, the use whereof is common to a particular town or lordship; or it is a profit that a man hath in the land of another person, usually in common with others; or a right which a person hath to put his cattle to pasture into ground that is not his own. And there is not only common of pasture, but also common of piscary, common of estovers, common of turbary, &c. And in all cases of common, the law much respects the custom of the place; for there the rule is, *consuetudo loci est observanda*. See Commonty.

Common Council. See Council.

Common Law, that body of law received as rules in parliament to alter the same. See Law, Part II. N° 36.

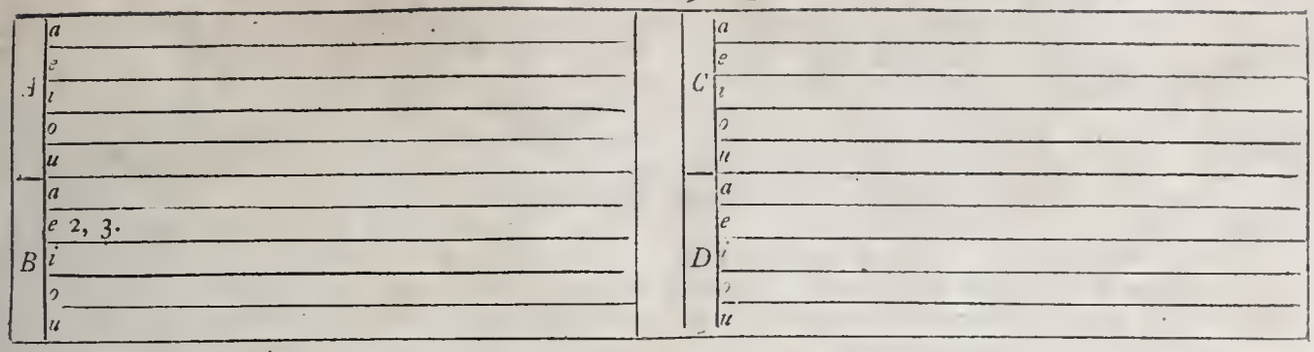
Common-Place Book, is a register of what things occur, worthy to be noted, in the course of a man's thinking or study, so disposed as that among a number of subjects any one may be easily found. The advantages of making a common-place book are many: it not only makes a man read with accuracy and attention, but induces him insensibly to think for himself, provided he considers it not so much as a register of sentiments that strike him in the course of reading, but as a register of his own thoughts upon various subjects. Many valuable thoughts occur even to men of no extraordinary genius. These, without the assistance of a common-place book, are generally lost both to himself and others. There are various methods of arranging common-place books; that of Mr Locke is as good as any that have hitherto been contrived.

The first page of the book you intend to take down their common-place in, is to serve as a kind of index to the whole, and to contain references to every place or matter therein: in the commodious contrivance of which index, so as it may admit of a sufficient copia or variety of materials, without any confusion, all the secret of the method consists.

In order to this, the first page, as already mentioned, or for more room, the two first pages that front each other, are to be divided by parallel lines into 25 equal parts; whereof every fifth line is to be distinguished by its colour or other circumstance. These lines are to be cut perpendicularly by others, drawn from top to bottom: and in the several spaces thereof the several letters of the alphabet, both capital and minuscle, are to be duly written.

The form of the lines and divisions, both horizontal and perpendicular, with the manner of writing the letters therein, will be conceived from the following specimen; wherein, what is to be done in the book for all the letters of the alphabet, is here shown in the first four, *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D*.

Common.



Common, Commonalty

The index to the common-place book thus formed, matters are ready for the taking down any thing therein.

In order to this, consider to what head the thing you would enter is most naturally referred; and under which one would be led to look for such a thing; in this head, or word, regard is had to the initial letter, and the first vowel that follows it; which are the characteristic letters whereon all the use of the index depends.

Suppose (*e. gr.*) I would enter down a passage that refers to the head *beauty*. *B*, I consider, is the initial letter, and *e* the first vowel: then looking upon the index for the partition *B*, and therein the line *e* (which is the place for all words whose first letter is *b*, and the first vowel *e*; as *beauty*, *beneficence*, *bread*, *breeding*, *blemishes*), and finding no numbers already down to direct me to any page of the book where words of this characteristic have been entered, I turn forward to the first blank page I find (which, in a fresh book, as this is supposed to be, will be page 2d), and here write what I have occasion for on the head *beauty*; beginning the head in the margin, and indenting all the other subservient lines, that the head may stand out, and show itself; this done, I enter the page where it is written, viz. 2. in the index in the space B *e*; from which time the class *be* becomes wholly in possession of the 2d and 3d pages, which are consigned to letters of this characteristic.

Had I found any page or number already entered in the space *B e*, I must have turned to the page, and have written my matter in what room was left therein: so, if after entering the passage on beauty, I should have occasion for *benevolence*, or the like, finding the number 2 already possessed of the space of this characteristic, I begin the passage on benevolence in the remainder of the page; which not containing the whole, I carry it on to page 3d, which is also for *be*; and add the number 3 in the index.

COMMON Pleas is one of the king's courts now held constantly in Westminster-hall, but in former times was moveable.

All civil causes, as well real as personal, are, or were formerly, tried in this court, according to the strict law of the land. In personal and mixed actions it has a concurrent jurisdiction with the king's bench, but has no cognizance of pleas of the crown. The actions belonging to the court of common-pleas come thither by original, as arrests and outlawries; or by privilege, or attachment for or against privileged persons; or out of inferior courts, not of record, by *pone*, *recordari*, *accedas ad curiam*, writ of false judgment, &c. The chief judge of this court is called *lord chief justice of the common pleas*, who is assisted by three other judges. The other officers of the court are the *custos brevium*, who is the chief clerk; three prothonotaries, and their secondaries; the clerk of the warrants, clerk of the essoins, 14 filazers, 4 exigentors, a clerk of the juries, the chirographer, the clerk of the king's silver, clerk of the treasury, clerk of the seal, clerk of the outlawries, clerk of the inrolment of fines and recoveries, and clerk of the errors.

COMMON Prayer is the liturgy in the church of England: (See LITURGY.) Clergymen are to use the public form of prayers prescribed by the Book of Common Prayer: and refusing to do so, or using any other public prayers, are punishable by stat. 1 Eliz. c. ii.

COMMON, in *Grammar*, denotes the gender of nouns which are equally applicable to both sexes; thus *parens*, "a parent," is of the common gender.

COMMON, in *Geometry*, is applied to an angle, line, or the like, which belongs equally to two figures.

COMMON Divisor, a quantity or number which exactly divides two or more other quantities or numbers, without leaving any remainder.

COMMONALTY, the lower of the two divisions of the civil state. See *CIVIL State*.

The commonalty, like the nobility, are divided into several degrees: and as the lords, though different in rank, yet all of them are peers in respect of their nobility: so the commoners, though some are greatly superior to others, yet all are in law commonalty, in respect of their want of nobility.

1. The first name of dignity next beneath a peer was anciently that of *vidames*, *vice-domini*, or *valvasors*: who are mentioned by our ancient lawyers as *viri magnæ dignitatis*; and Sir Edward Coke speaks highly of them. Yet they are now quite out of use; and our legal antiquarians are not agreed upon even their original or ancient office.

2. Now, therefore, the first personal dignity after the nobility is a knight of the order of St George or of the Garter, first instituted by Edw. III. A. D. 1344.

3. Next (but not till after certain official dignities, as privy-counsellors, the chancellors of the exchequer and duchy of Lancaster, the chief justice of the king's bench, the master of the rolls, and the other English judges), follows a *knight banneret*; who indeed, by statutes 5 Richard II. stat. 2. c. 4. and 14 Richard II. c. 11. is ranked next after barons; and his precedence before the younger sons of viscounts was confirmed to him by order of King James I. in the tenth year of his reign.

Commonalty.

reign. But in order to entitle him to this rank, he must have been created by the king in person, in the field, under the royal banners, in time of open war; else he ranks after,

4. *Baronets;* who are the next in order: which is a dignity of inheritance, created by letters patent, and usually descendible to the issue-male. See BARONETS.

5. Next follow *knights of the Bath.* See BATH.

6. The last of these inferior nobility are *knights bachelors;* the most ancient, though the lowest, order of knighthood amongst us. See BACHELOR.

7. The above, with those enumerated under the article NOBILITY, Sir Edward Coke says, are all the names of *dignity* in this kingdom; *esquires* and *gentlemen* being only names of *worship.* But before these last the heralds rank all colonels, sergeants at law, and doctors in the three learned professions.

8. *Esquires* and *gentlemen* are confounded together by Sir Edward Coke: who observes, that every esquire is a gentleman, and a gentleman is defined to be one *qui arma gerit,* "who bears coat-armour;" the grant of which adds gentility to a man's family: in like manner as civil nobility among the Romans was founded in the *jus imaginum,* or having the image of one ancestor at least who had borne some curule office. It is indeed a matter somewhat unsettled what constitutes the distinction, or who is a real esquire; for it is not an estate, however large, that confers this rank upon its owner. Camden, who was himself a herald, distinguishes them the most accurately; and he reckons up four sorts of them: 1st, The eldest sons of knights, and their eldest sons in perpetual succession. 2dly, The eldest sons of younger sons of peers, and their eldest sons, in like perpetual succession: both which species of esquires Sir Henry Spelman entitles *armigeri natalitii.* 3dly, Esquires created by the king's letters patent, or rather investiture; and their eldest sons. 4thly, Esquires by virtue of their office: as justices of the peace and others who bear any office of trust under the crown. To these may be added the esquires of the knights of the Bath, each of whom constitutes three at his installation; and all foreign, nay, Irish peers; for not only these, but the eldest sons of peers of Great Britain, though frequently titular lords, are only esquires in the law, and must be so named in all legal proceedings.

9. As for *gentlemen,* says Sir Thomas Smith, they be made good cheap in this kingdom; for whosoever studieth the laws of the realm, who studieth in the universities, who professeth liberal sciences, and (to be short) who can live idly and without manual labour, and will bear the part, charge, and countenance of a gentleman, he shall be called master, and shall be taken for a gentleman.

10. A *yeoman* is he that hath free land of 40s. by the year; who is thereby qualified to serve on juries, vote for knights of the shire, and do any other act where the law requires one that is *probus et legalis homo.*

11. The rest of the commonalty are *tradesmen, artificers,* and *labourers;* who (as well as all others) must, in pursuance of the statute 1 Henry V. c. 5. be styled by the name and addition of their estate, degree, or mystery, in all actions and other legal proceedings.

COMMONER, or GENTLEMAN-COMMONER, in the universities, a student entered in a certain rank.

Commonalty || Commons

COMMONS, or HOUSE OF COMMONS, a denomination given to the lower house of parliament. See PARLIAMENT.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom as have not seats in the house of lords, every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally or by his representatives. In a free state, every man who is supposed a free agent, ought to be in some measure his own governor: and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. And this power, when the territories of the state are small and its citizens easily known, should be exercised by the people in their aggregate or collective capacity, as was wisely ordained in the petty republics of Greece, and the first rudiments of the Roman state. But this will be highly inconvenient when the public territory is extended to any considerable degree, and the number of citizens is increased. Thus when, after the Social war, all the burghers of Italy were admitted free citizens of Rome, and each had a vote in the public assemblies, it became impossible to distinguish the spurious from the real voter, and from that time all elections and popular deliberations grew tumultuous and disorderly; which paved the way for Marius and Sylla, Pompey and Cæsar, to trample on the liberties of their country, and at last to dissolve the commonwealth. In so large a state as ours, therefore, it is very wisely contrived, that the people should do that by their representatives which it is impracticable to perform in person: representatives chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are or may be easily distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; and cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses chosen by the mercantile or supposed trading interest of the nation; much in the same manner as the burghers in the diet of Sweden are chosen by the corporate towns, Stockholm sending four, as London does with us, other cities two, and some only one. The number of English representatives is 513, of Scots 45, of Irish 100; in all 658; and every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm; for the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not barely to advantage his constituents, but the commonwealth; to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons, "de communi consilio super negotiis quibusdam arduis et urgentibus, regem, statum, et defensionem regni Angliæ et ecclesiæ Anglicanæ concernentibus." And therefore he is not bound, like a deputy in the United Provinces, to consult with, or take the advice of, his constituents upon any particular point, unless he himself thinks it proper or prudent so to do.

The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. See TAXES and ELECTIONS.

Doctors

Commons || Communion.

Doctors COMMONS. See *COLLEGE of Civilians.*

Proctor of the COMMONS. See PROCTOR.

COMMONTY, in *Scots Law*, sometimes signifies lands belonging to two or more common proprietors; sometimes a heath or muir, though it should belong in property to one, if there has been a promiscuous possession upon it by pasturage; and the act 1695 mentions commonties belonging in property to the king and to royal boroughs. See LAW *Index.*

COMMONWEALTH. See REPUBLIC.

COMMOTE, an ancient term in Wales, denoting half a cantred, or hundred: containing 50 villages. See HUNDRED. Wales was anciently divided into three provinces; each of these subdivided into cantreds, and every cantred into two commotes or hundreds. Silvester Girald, however, tells us in his Itinerary, that a commote is but a quarter of a hundred.

COMMUNIS, in *Botany*, the name of a class in Linnæus's *Methodus Calycina*, consisting of two plants which, like teazel and dandelion, have a calyx or flower-cup common to many flowers or florets. These are the aggregate or compound flowers of other systems.

COMMUNIBUS LOCIS, a Latin term, in frequent use among philosophical, &c. writers; implying some medium or mean relation, between several places. Dr Keil supposes the ocean to be one quarter of a mile deep, *communibus locis*, q. d. at a medium, or taking one place with another.

COMMUNIBUS Annis, has the same import with regard to years that *communibus locis* has with regard to places. Mr Derham observes that the depth of rain, *communibus annis*, or one year with another, were it to stagnate on the earth, would amount in Townley in Lancashire, to $42\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at Upminster in Essex, to $19\frac{1}{4}$; at Zurich, $32\frac{1}{4}$; at Pisa, $43\frac{1}{4}$: and at Paris to 19 inches.

COMMUNICATING, in *Theology*, the act of receiving the sacrament of the eucharist. Those of the reformed, and of the Greek church, communicate under both kinds; those of the Romish, under only one. The oriental communicants receive the species of wine by a spoon, and anciently they sucked it through a pipe, as has been observed by Beat. Rheanus on Tertullian.

COMMUNICATION, in a general sense, the act of imparting something to another.

COMMUNICATION, is also used for the connection of one thing with another, or the passage from one place to another; thus a gallery is a communication between two apartments.

COMMUNICATION of motion, the act whereby a body at rest is put into motion by a moving body; or, it is the acceleration of motion in a body already moving.

Lines of COMMUNICATION, in military matters, trenches made to continue and preserve a safe correspondence between two forts or posts; or at a siege between two approaches, that they may relieve one another.

Canal of COMMUNICATION. See CANAL.

COMMUNION, in matters of religion, the being united in doctrine and discipline; in which sense of the word, different churches are said to hold communion with each other.

Communion.

In the primitive Christian church, every bishop was obliged, after his ordination, to send circular letters to foreign churches, to signify that he was in communion with them. The three grand communions into which the Christian church is at present divided, is that of the church of Rome, the Greek church, and the Protestant church: but originally all Christians were in communion with each other, having one common faith and discipline.

COMMUNION is also used for the act of communicating the sacrament of the eucharist, or the Lord's supper.

The fourth council of Lateran decrees, that every believer shall receive the communion, at least at Easter; which seems to import a tacit desire, that they should do it oftener; as, in effect, they did it much oftener in the primitive days. Gratian, and the master of the sentences, prescribe it as a rule for the laity, to communicate three times a-year, at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas. But in the 13th century, the practice was adopted, never to approach the eucharist, except at Easter; and the council thought fit to enjoin it then by a law, lest their coldness and remissness should go farther still. And the council of Trent renewed the same injunction, and recommended frequent communion without enforcing it by an express decree.

In the ninth century the communion was still received by the laity in both kinds; or, rather the species of bread was dipped in the wine, as is owned by the Romanists themselves. (Acta SS. Benedict. Sæc. III). M. de Marca observes, that they received it at first in their hands, Hist. de Bearn, and believes the communion under one kind alone to have had its rise in the West under Pope Urban II. in 1096, at the time of the conquest of the Holy Land. And it was more solemnly enjoined by the council of Constance in 1414. The twenty-eighth canon of the council of Clermont enjoins the communion to be received under both kinds, distinctly; adding, however, two exceptions; the one of necessity, the other of caution, *nisi per necessitatem et cautelam;* the first in favour of the sick, the second of the abstemious, or those who had an aversion for wine.

It was formerly a kind of canonical punishment, for clerks guilty of any crime, to be reduced *to lay communion*, i. e. only to receive it as the laity did, viz. under one kind.

They had another punishment of the same nature, though under a different name, called *foreign communion;* to which the canons frequently condemned their bishops and other clerks. This punishment was not any excommunication, or deposition; but a kind of suspension from the function of the order, and a degradation from the rank they held in the church. It had its name because the communion was only granted to the criminal on the foot of a foreign clerk, i. e. being reduced to the lowest of his order, he took place after all those of his rank, as all clerks, &c. did in the churches to which they did not belong. The second council of Agda orders every clerk that absents himself from the church to be reduced to foreign communion.

COMMUNION Service, in the liturgy of the church of England, the office for the administration of the Holy

sacrament, extracted from several ancient liturgies, as those of St Basil, St Ambrose, &c.

By the last rubric, part of this service is appointed to be read every Sunday and holiday, after the morning prayer, even though there be no communicants.

COMMUNITY, denotes a society of men living in the same place, under the same laws, the same regulations, and the same customs.

COMMUTATION, in *Law*, the change of a penalty or punishment from a greater to a less; as when death is commuted for banishment, &c.

COMNENA, Ann, daughter of Alexius Comnenus emperor of the East; memorable for her great learning and virtue, and for her history of the life and actions of her father, which is highly esteemed. She flourished about the year 1117. The history, which is in 15 books, was first published very imperfectly by Heschelius in 1610; and afterwards printed in the collection of the Byzantine historians, with a diffuse and incorrect Latin version by the Jesuit Possimus, but with excellent notes by the learned Du Fresne.

COMO, a strong and populous town of Italy, in the duchy of Milan, and in the Comasco, with a bishop's see. It was taken by the Imperialists in 1706, and is seated on a lake of the same name, in E. Long. 8. 57. N. Lat. 45. 45.

Como, the lake so called, is the largest in Italy. It is situated in the duchy of Milan, in the Comasco, on the confines of Switzerland and the Grisons. It is 88 miles in circumference, yet is not above 6 miles over in any part.

COMORA islands lie between the north end of the island of Madagascar and the coast of Zanguebar, from 10 to 15 degrees south latitude. Authors differ greatly with regard to their number, some speaking of three, others of five, and some of eight of these islands. They all abound in horned cattle, sheep, hogs, and a variety of fruits common in warm countries. They are said also to produce a kind of rice which turns of a violet colour when boiled. The most remarkable of them, and which the Europeans are best acquainted with, is the island of Johanna. See that article.

COMORIN, or Cape Comorin, the most southerly promontory of the Hither India, lying north-west of the island of Ceylon.

COMORRA, a handsome and large town of Lower Hungary, and capital of a territory of the same name. It is so well fortified, that the Turks could never take it. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Hungarians or Russians, who are very rich, and are of the Greek religion. It is seated on the river Danube, in the island of Silbut. E. Long. 18. 5. N. Lat. 47. 46.

COMOSÆ, in *Botany*, from *Coma;* an order of plants in the former edition of Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method, consisting of the spiked willow or spiræa frutex, dropwort, and greater meadow-sweet. These, though formerly distinct genera, are by Linnæus collected into one, under the name of *spiræa*. The flowers growing in a head resemble a bush, or tuft of hair, which probably gave rise to the epithet *Comosæ*

COMPACT, in *Philosophy*, is said of bodies which are of a close, dense, and heavy texture, with few pores, and those very small.

Compact, in a legal sense, signifies an agreement or contract stipulated between several parties.

COMPANION, one with whom a man frequently converses.

As the human mind cannot always be on the stretch, nor the hand always employed in labour, recreation becomes both agreeable and necessary. Of all recreations, that of the company of a few chosen companions must be allowed to be the most manly and most improving: but as in those hours of recreation we are most in danger of being misled, being generally at such seasons more off our guard than usual, the greatest care should be taken in making choice of whom to associate with; for according to our choice of them, both our character and disposition will receive a tincture, as waters passing through minerals partake of their taste and efficacy. This is a truth so universally received, that it is become a proverb both in the natural and moral world, That a man is known by his company. As by chemistry we learn, that discordant mixtures produce nothing but broil and fermentation till one of them gets the ascendency of the rest; so from Scripture we learn, that two cannot walk together except they be agreed. From which we may see, how impossible it is for any one to be thought a person of real goodness and integrity, whilst he chooses for his companions the abandoned and licentious.

By associating with such, he will not only lose his character, but his virtue; for whatever fallacious distinction he may be pleased to make between the men and their vices, in the end the first generally qualifies the last; and by ceasing to hate them he will soon learn both to love and practise them. In short, the society of sensual men is peculiarly ensnaring. The malignity of their contagion doth not appear all at once. Their frolics first appear harmless; then, when partaken of, they leave a longing relish behind them; and one appointment makes way for another, one expence leads on to a second; and so time and fortune are wasted away to very bad purpose. The one appetite craves, and another must be gratified, till all become too importunate to be denied; which verifies what the wisest of men long since said, "That the beginning of sin is like the breaking forth of waters, which when it once makes an entrance, carries all before it with rushing impetuosity." Some pangs of remorse may be felt by the infatuated creature on his first degeneracy, and some faint resolutions against being seduced any more; which will no sooner be discovered by those leaders to destruction, than all arts will be used to allure him back to bear them company in the broad beaten path to ruin. Of all which methods, none is more to be dreaded than raillery; for this is generally exercised with all its force, and too often proves fatal. Another method used to mislead the young novice not yet hackneyed in vice, and no less dangerous than the other, is to call evil good, and good evil. Lust and sensuality must pass for love and gallantry; revenge and malice, for heroism. But steadiness should be shown, by holding such pests of society in derision, and looking on them with contempt; by appearing unmoved

ved by their ill-founded banters, and unſtung by their impious jeſts.

Upon the whole, in order to eſcape the danger which attends the keeping of evil company, let thoſe you aſſociate with be perſons as carefully educated and as honeſtly diſpoſed as yourſelf; of a good moral character, not given to any known vice; whoſe lives are temperate, and whoſe expences are moderate: with ſuch company as theſe, you will neither get diſcredit, nor degenerate into exceſs. You will be a mutual check to each other; and your reputation will be ſo eſtabliſhed, that it will be the ambition of others to be admitted members of your ſociety. Select thoſe for your companions who are men of good ſenſe and underſtanding; and, if poſſible, who excel in ſome art, ſcience, or accompliſhment; that ſo, in the courſe of your acquaintance, your very hours of amuſement may contribute to your improvement; and for the moſt part ſuch are open and communicative, and take as much pleaſure in being heard as you to be informed. By purſuing ſuch a conduct, you will be an ornament and uſeful member of ſociety.

COMPANY, a collective term, underſtood of ſeveral perſons aſſembled together in the ſame place, or with the ſame deſign. The word is formed of the French *compagnie*, and that of *companio*, or *companies*, which Chifflet obſerves, are found in the Salic law, tit. 66. and are proper military words, underſtood of ſoldiers, who, according to the modern phraſe, are comrades or meſs-mates, i. e. lodge together, eat together, &c. of the Latin *cum*, "with," and *panis*, "bread." It may be added, that in ſome Greek authors under the weſtern empire, the word κομπανια occurs in the ſenſe of ſociety.

COMPANY, in a familiar or faſhionable ſenſe, is uſed for an aſſemblage of perſons met for the purpoſe of converſation, paſtime, or feſtivity.

The love of company and of ſocial pleaſures is natural, and attended with ſome of the ſweeteſt ſatisfactions of human life; but, like every other love, when it proceeds beyond the bounds of moderation, it ceaſes to produce its natural effect, and terminates in diſguſtful ſatiety. The foundation-ſtone and the pillar on which we build the fabric of our felicity, muſt be laid in our own hearts. Amuſement, mirth, agreeable variety, and even improvement, may be ſometimes ſought in the gaiety of mixed company, and in the uſual diverſions of the world; but if we found our general happineſs on theſe, we ſhall do little more than raiſe caſtles in the air, or build houſes on the ſand.

To derive the proper pleaſure and improvement from company, it ought to be ſelect, and to conſiſt of perſons of character, reſpectable both for their morals and their underſtandings. Mixed and undiſtinguiſhed ſociety tends only to diſſipate our ideas, and induce a laxity of principles and practice. The pleaſure it affords is of a coarſe, mixed, noiſy, and rude kind. Indeed, it commonly ends in wearineſs and diſguſt, as even they are ready to confeſs who yet conſtantly purſue it, as if their chief good conſiſted in living in a crowd.

Among theſe, indeed, who are exempted by their circumſtances from profeſſional and official employments, and who profeſſedly devote themſelves to a life of pleaſure, little elſe ſeems to conſtitute the idea of it, but an unceaſing ſucceſſion of company, public or private. The dreſs, and other circumſtances preparatory to the enjoyment of this pleaſure, ſcarcely leave a moment for reflection. Day after day is ſpent in the ſame toilſome round, till a habit is formed, which renders diſſipation neceſſary to exiſtence. One week without it would probably induce a lowneſs of ſpirits, which might terminate in deſpair and ſuicide. When the mind has no anchor, it will ſuffer a kind of ſhipwreck; it will ſink in whirlpools, and be daſhed on rocks. What, indeed, is life or its enjoyments without ſettled principles, laudable purpoſes, mental exertions, and internal comfort? It is merely a vapour, or, to drop the language of figure on ſo ſerious a ſubject, it is a ſtate worſe than non-entity, ſince it poſſeſſes a reſtleſs power of action, productive of nothing but miſery.

It is recommended, therefore, to all who wiſh to enjoy their exiſtence (and who entertains not that wiſh)? that they ſhould acquire a power not only of bearing, but of taking a pleaſure in, temporary ſolitude. Every one muſt, indeed, ſometimes be alone. Let him not repine when he is alone, but learn to ſet a value on the golden moments. It is then that he is enabled to ſtudy himſelf and the world around him. It is then that he has an opportunity of ſeeing things as they are, and of removing the deceitful veil, which almoſt every thing aſſumes in the buſy ſcene of worldly employments. The ſoul is enabled to retire into herſelf, and to exert thoſe energies which are always attended with ſublime pleaſure. She is enabled to ſee the dependent, frail, and wretched ſtate of man as the child of nature; and incited by her diſcovery, to implore grace and protection from the Lord of the univerſe. They, indeed, who fly from ſolitude, can ſeldom be religious; for religion requires meditation. They may be ſaid to "live without God in the world;" not, it is true, from atheiſtical principles, but from a careleſſneſs of diſpoſition; a truly deplorable ſtate, the conſciouſneſs of which could not fail to cloud the gaiety of thoſe halcyon beings who ſport in the ſunſhine of unremitted pleaſure.

There is no doubt that man is made for action, and that his duties and pleaſures are often moſt numerous and moſt important amidſt the buſy hum of men. Many vices, and many corrupt diſpoſitions, have been foſtered in a ſolitary life. Monkery is not favourable to human nature or human happineſs; but neither is unlimited diſſipation.

In ſhort, let there be a ſweet interchange of retirement and aſſociation, of repoſe and activity. A few hours ſpent every day by the votaries of pleaſure in ſerious meditation, would render their pleaſure pure, and more unmixed with miſery. It would give them knowledge, ſo that they would ſee how far they might advance in their purſuit without danger; and reſolution, ſo that they might retreat when danger approached. It would teach them how to live, a knowledge which indeed they think they poſſeſs already; and it would alſo teach them, what they are often too little ſolicitous to learn, how to die.

COMPANY, in a commercial ſenſe, is a ſociety of merchants, mechanics, or other traders, joined together in one common intereſt.

When there are only two or three joined in this manner, it is called a partnerſhip; the term *company* being

Company. being restrained to societies consisting of a considerable number of members, associated together by a charter obtained from the prince.

The mechanics of all corporations, or towns incorporated, are thus erected into companies, which have charters of privileges and large immunities.

COMPANY seems more particularly appropriated to those grand associations set on foot for the commerce of the remote parts of the world, and vested by charter with peculiar privileges.

When companies do not trade upon a joint stock, but are obliged to admit any person, properly qualified, upon paying a certain fine, and agreeing to submit to the regulations of the company, each member trading upon his own stock and at his own risk, they are called *Regulated Companies*. When they trade upon a joint stock, each member sharing in the common profit or loss in proportion to his share in this stock, they are called *Joint-stock Companies*. Such companies, whether regulated or joint-stock, sometimes have, and sometimes have not, exclusive privileges.

However injurious companies with joint-stock, and incorporated with exclusive privileges, may at this time be reckoned to the nation in general, it is yet certain that they were the general parent of all our foreign commerce; private traders being discouraged from hazarding their fortunes in foreign countries, until the method of traffic had been first settled by joint-stock companies. But since the trade of this kingdom and the number of traders have increased, and the methods of assurance of shipping and merchandise, and the navigation of all parts of the known world have become familiar to us, these companies, in the opinion of most men, have been looked upon in the light of monopolies; their privileges have therefore been lessened from time to time, in order to favour a free and general trade; and experience has shown, that the trade of the nation has advanced in proportion as monopolies have been discouraged. In short, as all restrictions of trade are found to be hurtful, nothing can be more evident, than that no company whatsoever, whether they trade in a joint-stock or only under regulation, can be for the public good, except it may be easy for all or any of his majesty's subjects to be admitted into all or any of the said companies, at any time, and for a very inconsiderable fine.

I. REGULATED Companies resemble, in every respect, the corporations of trades, so common in the cities and towns of all the different countries of Europe; and are a sort of enlarged monopolies of the same kind. As no inhabitant of a town can exercise an incorporated trade, without first obtaining his freedom in the corporation; so in most cases no subject of the state can lawfully carry on any branch of foreign trade, for which a regulated company is established, without first becoming a member of that company. The monopoly is more or less strict according as the terms of admission are more or less difficult; and according as the directors of the company have more or less authority, or have it more or less in their power to manage in such a manner as to confine the greater part of the trade to themselves and their particular friends. In the most ancient regulated companies the privileges of apprenticeship were the same as in other corporations; and entitled the person who had served his time to a member of the company, to become himself a member, either without paying any fine, or upon paying a much smaller one than what was exacted from other people. The usual corporation spirit, wherever the law does not restrain it, prevails in all regulated companies. When they have been allowed to act according to their natural genius, they have always, in order to confine the competition to as small a number of persons as possible, endeavoured to subject the trade to many burdensome regulations. When the law has restrained them from doing this, they have become altogether useless and insignificant.

The regulated companies for foreign commerce, which at present subsist in Great Britain, are, The Hamburgh Company, the Russia Company, the Eastland Company, the Turkey Company, and the African Company.

1. *The Hamburgh Company* is the oldest trading establishment in the kingdom; though not always known by that name, nor restrained to those narrow bounds under which it is now confined. It was first called the *Company of Merchants trading to Calais, Holland, Zealand, Brabant, and Flanders*: then it acquired the general title of *Merchant-adventurers of England*: as being composed of all the English merchants who traded to the Low Countries, the Baltic, and the German ocean. Lastly, it was called the *Company of Merchant-adventurers of England trading to Hamburgh*.

This company was first incorporated by Edward I. in 1296; and established again, by charter, in 1406, under the reign of King Henry IV. It was afterwards confirmed, and augmented with divers privileges, by many of his successors. Before the charter of Henry IV. all the English merchants who trafficked out of the realm, were left to their own discretion, and managed their affairs with foreigners as might be most for their respective interests, without any regard to the general commerce of the nation. Henry, observing this disorder, endeavoured to remedy it, by uniting all the merchants in his dominions into one body; wherein, without losing the liberty of trading each for himself, they might be governed by a company still subsisting; and be subject to regulations, which should secure the general interest of the national commerce, without prejudice to the interest of particulars. With this view, he granted all the merchants of his states, particularly those of Calais, then in his hands, a power of associating themselves into a body politic, with directors and governors, both in England and abroad; to hold assemblies, both for the direction of business and the deciding of controversies among merchants; make laws; punish delinquents; and impose moderate duties and taxes on merchandises, and merchants, to be employed in the service of the corporation. These few articles of the charter of Henry IV. were afterwards much augmented by Henry VII. who first gave them the title of *Merchant-adventurers to Calais, Holland*, &c. gave them a power of proclaiming and continuing free fairs at Calais; and ordered, that to be reputed a member of the society, each person pay 20 marks sterling; and that the several members should attend the general meetings, or courts, appointed by the directors, whether at London, Calais, or elsewhere.

A petition being made to Queen Elizabeth, in 1564, for

Company. for an explanation of certain articles in the charter of Henry VII. and a confirmation of the reſt granted by other kings; that princeſs, by a charter of the ſame year, declares that, to end all diſputes, they ſhall be incorporated anew, under the title of the *Company of Merchant-adventurers of England;* that all who were members of the former company ſhould, if they deſired it, be admitted members of this; that they ſhould have a common ſeal; that they ſhould admit into their ſociety what other perſons, and on what terms, they pleaſed, and expel them again on miſbehaviour; that the city of Hamburgh and neighbouring cities ſhould be reputed within their grant, together with thoſe of the Low Countries, &c. in that of the former company: that no member ſhould marry out of the kingdom, nor purchaſe lands, &c. in any city beyond ſea; and that thoſe who do, ſhall be, *ipſo facto*, excluded for ever. Twenty-two years after this firſt charter, Queen Elizabeth granted them a ſecond; confirming the former, and further granting them a privilege of excluſion; with a power of erecting in each city within their grant a ſtanding council.

The revolutions which happened in the Low Countries towards the end of the ſixteenth century, and which laid the foundation of the republic of Holland, having hindered the company from continuing their commerce with their ancient freedom; it was obliged to turn it almoſt wholly to the ſide of Hamburgh, and the cities on the German ocean; from which change, ſome people took occaſion to change its name to that of the *Hamburgh Company;* though the ancient title of *Merchant-adventurers* is ſtill retained in all their writings.

About the middle of the laſt century, the fine for admiſſion was fifty, and at one time one hundred pounds, and the conduct of the company was ſaid to be extremely oppreſſive. In 1643, in 1645, and in 1661, the clothiers and free traders of the weſt of England complained of them to parliament, as of monopoliſts who confined the trade and oppreſſed the manufactures of the country. Though thoſe complaints produced no act of parliament, they had probably intimidated the company ſo far, as to oblige them to reform their conduct. The terms of admiſſion are now ſaid to be quite eaſy; and the directors either have it not in their power to ſubject the trade to any burdenſome reſtraint or regulations, or at leaſt have not of late exerciſed that power.

2. *The Ruſſia Company* was firſt projected towards the end of the reign of King Edward VI. executed in the firſt and ſecond years of Philip and Mary; but had not its perfection till its charter was confirmed by act of parliament, under Queen Elizabeth, in 1566. It had its riſe from certain adventurers, who were ſent in three veſſels on the diſcovery of new countries; and to find out a north-eaſt paſſage to China; theſe, falling into the White ſea, and making up to the port of Archangel, were exceedingly well received by the Muſcovites; and, at their return, ſolicited letters patent to ſecure to themſelves the commerce of Ruſſia, for which they had formed an aſſociation.

By their charter, the aſſociation was declared a body politic, under the name of the *Company of Merchant-adventurers of England, for the diſcovery of lands, territories, iſlands,* &c. *unknown or unfrequented.* Their privileges were, to have a governor, four conſuls, and 24 aſſiſtants, for their commerce; for their policy, to make laws, inflict penalties, ſend out ſhips, to make diſcoveries, take poſſeſſion of them in the king's name, ſet up the banner royal of England, plant them; and laſtly, the excluſive privilege of trading to Archangel, and other ports of Muſcovy, not yet frequented by the Engliſh. Company.

This charter not being ſufficiently guarded, was confirmed by parliament in the 8th year of Queen Elizabeth; wherein it was enacted, that in regard the former name was too long, they ſhould now be called *Company of Engliſh Merchants for diſcovering new trades;* under which name, they ſhould be capable of acquiring and holding all kinds of lands, manors, rents, &c. not exceeding 100 marks per annum, and not held of her majeſty; that no part of the continent, iſland, harbour, &c. not known or frequented before the firſt enterpriſe of the merchants of their company, ſituated to the north, or north-weſt, or north-eaſt of London; nor any part of the continent, iſlands, &c. under the obedience of the emperor of Ruſſia, or in the countries of Armenia, Media, Hyrcania, Perſia, or the Caſpian ſea, ſhould be viſited by any ſubjects of England, to exerciſe any commerce, without the conſent of the ſaid company, on pain of confiſcation. The ſaid company ſhall uſe no ſhips in her new commerce but thoſe of the nation; nor tranſport any cloths, ſerges, or other woollen ſtuffs, till they have been dyed and preſſed. That in caſe the company diſcontinue of itſelf to unload commodities in the road of the abbey of S. Nicolas, in Ruſſia, or ſome other port on the north coaſts of Ruſſia, for the ſpace of three years, the other ſubjects of England ſhall be allowed to traffic to Narva, while the ſaid company diſcontinues its commerce into Ruſſia, only uſing Engliſh veſſels.

This company ſubſiſted with reputation almoſt a whole century, till the time of the civil wars. It is ſaid, the czar then reigning, hearing of the murder of King Charles I. ordered all the Engliſh in his ſtates to be expelled; which the Dutch taking the advantage of, ſettled in their room. After the reſtoration, the remains of the company re eſtabliſhed part of their commerce at Archangel, but never with the ſame ſucceſs as before; the Ruſſians being now well accuſtomed to the Dutch merchants and merchandiſe.

This company ſubſiſts ſtill, under the direction of a governor, four conſuls, and aſſiſtants. By the 10th and 11th of William III. c. 6. the fine for admiſſion was reduced to 5l.

3. *The Eaſtland Company* was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. Its charter is dated in the year 1579. By the firſt article the company is erected into a body politic under the title of the *Company of Merchants of the Eaſt;* to conſiſt of Engliſhmen, all real merchants, who have exerciſed the buſineſs thereof, and trafficked through the Sound before the year 1568, into Norway, Sweden, Poland, Livonia, Pruſſia, Pomerania, &c. as alſo Revel, Coningſberg, Dantzick, Copenhagen, &c. excepting Narva, Muſcovy, and its dependencies. Moſt of the following articles grant them the uſual prerogatives of ſuch companies, as a ſeal, governor, courts, laws, &c.

The privileges peculiar to this company are, that none ſhall be admitted a member who is already a member

Company. member of any other company; nor any retail-dealer at all. That no merchant qualified be admitted without paying ſix pounds thirteen ſhillings and ſixpence. That a member of another company deſiring to renounce the privileges thereof, and to be received into that of the Eaſt ſhall be admitted *gratis*; provided he procures the ſame favour for a merchant of the Eaſt willing to fill his place. That the merchant-adventurers who never dealt in the Eaſt, in the places expreſſed in the charter, may be received as members of the company on paying 40 marks; that, notwithſtanding this union of the adventurers of England with the company of the Eaſt, each ſhall retain its rights and privileges. That they ſhall export no cloths but what are dyed and preſſed, except a hundred pieces per annum, which are allowed them *gratis*. This charter was confirmed by Charles II. in 1629, with this addition, that no perſon, of what quality ſoever, living in London, ſhould be admitted a member, unleſs he were free of the city. This company was complained of as a monopoly, and firſt curtailed by legal authority in 1672; and ſince the declaration of rights in 1689, exiſt only in name; but ſtill continue to elect their annual officers, who are a governor, a deputy, and twenty-four aſſiſtants.

7. *The Turkey or Levant Company*, had its riſe under Queen Elizabeth, in 1581. James I. confirmed its charter in 1605, adding new privileges. During the civil wars, there happened ſome innovations in the government of the company; many perſons having been admitted members, not qualified by the charters of Queen Elizabeth and King James, or that did not conform to the regulations preſcribed. Charles II. upon his reſtoration, endeavoured to ſet it upon its ancient baſis; to which end, he gave them a charter, containing not only a confirmation of their old one, but alſo ſeveral new articles of reformation. By this, the company is erected into a body politic, capable of making laws, &c. under the title of the *Company of Merchants of England trading to the ſeas of the Levant*. The number of members is not limited, but is ordinarily about three hundred. The principal qualification required is, that the candidate be a freeman of London, and a wholeſale merchant, either by family or by ſerving an apprenticeſhip of ſeven years. Thoſe under 25 years of age pay 25l. ſtering at their admiſſion; thoſe above, twice as much. The fine was reduced by act of parliament, in 1753, to 20l. and the privilege of admiſſion extended to every Britiſh ſubject. Each makes oath at his entrance not to ſend any merchandiſe to the Levant but on his own account; and not to conſign them to any but the company's agents or factors. This reſtriction is likewiſe enlarged by the above-mentioned ſtatute.

The company has a court or board at London, which is compoſed of a governor, deputy-governor, and fifteen directors or aſſiſtants, who are all actually to live in London or the ſuburbs. They have alſo a deputy-governor in every city and port, where there are any members of the company. The aſſembly at London ſends out the veſſels, regulates the tariff for the price at which the European merchandiſes ſent to the Levant are to be ſold, and for the quality of thoſe returned. It raiſes taxes on merchandiſes, to defray impoſitions, and the common expences of the company; preſents the ambaſſador which the king is to keep at the Porte, elects two conſuls for Smyrna and Conſtantinople, &c. Company.

One of the beſt regulations of the company is, not to leave the conſuls, or even ambaſſador, to fix the impoſition on veſſels for defraying the common expences (a thing fatal to the companies of moſt other nations); but to allow a penſion to the ambaſſador and conſuls, and even to the chief officers, as ſecretary, chaplain, interpreters, and janizaries, that there may not be any pretence for their raiſing any ſum at all on the merchants or merchandiſes.

In extraordinary caſes, the conſuls, and even the ambaſſador, have recourſe to two deputies of the company, reſiding in the Levant; or, if the affair be very important, they aſſemble the whole body. Here are regulated the preſents to be given, the voyages to be made, and every thing to be deliberated; and on the reſolutions here taken, the deputies appoint the treaſurer to furniſh the moneys, &c. required.

The ordinary commerce of this company employs from 20 to 25 veſſels, carrying from 25 to 30 pieces of cannon. The merchandiſes exported thither are, cloths of all kinds and colours, pewter, lead, pepper, cochineal, and a great deal of ſilver, which they take up at Cadiz: the returns are in raw ſilk, galls, camlets, wools, cottons, Morocco leather, aſhes for making glaſs and ſoap, and ſeveral gums and medicinal drugs. The commerce to Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and Scanderoon, is not eſteemed much leſs conſiderable than that of the Eaſt India Company; but is, doubtleſs, more advantageous to Britain, becauſe it takes off much more of the Britiſh manufactures than the other, which is chiefly carried on in money. The places reſerved for the commerce of this company are, all the ſtates of Venice, in the gulf of Venice; the ſtate of Raguſa; all the ſtates of the grand ſeignior, and the ports of the Levant and Mediterranean; excepting Carthagena, Alicant, Barcelona, Valencia, Marſeilles, Toulon, Genoa, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, Palermo, Meſſina, Malta, Majorca, Minorca, and Corſica; and other places on the coaſts of France, Spain, and Italy.

5. *The Company of Merchants trading to Africa*, eſtabliſhed in 1750. Contrary to the former practice with regard to regulated companies, who were reckoned unfit for ſuch ſort of ſervice, this company was ſubjected to the obligation of maintaining forts and garriſons. It was expreſsly charged at firſt with the maintenance of all the Britiſh forts and garriſons that lie between Cape Blanc and the Cape of Good Hope, and afterwards with that of thoſe only which lie between Cape Rouge and the Cape of Good Hope. The act which eſtabliſhes this company (the 23d of George II. c. 31.) ſeems to have had two diſtinct objects in view; firſt, to reſtrain effectually the oppreſſive and monopolizing ſpirit which is natural to the directors of a regulated company; and ſecondly, to force them as much as poſſible to give an attention, which is not natural to them, towards the maintenance of forts and garriſons.

For the firſt of theſe purpoſes, the fine for admiſſion is limited to forty ſhillings. The company is prohibited from trading in their corporate capacity, or upon a joint ſtock; from borrowing money upon common

Company. mon ſeal, or from laying any reſtraints upon the trade which may be carried on freely from all places, and by all perſons being Britiſh ſubjects, and paying the fine. The government is in a committee of nine perſons who meet at London, but who are choſen annually by the freemen of the company at London, Briſtol, and Liverpool; three from each place. No committee-man can be continued in office for more than three years together. Any committee-man might be removed by the board of trade and plantations; now by a committee of council, after being heard in his own defence. The committee are forbid to export negroes from Africa, or to import any African goods into Great Britain. But, as they are charged with the maintenance of forts and garriſons, they may for that purpoſe export from Great Britain to Africa goods and ſtores of different kinds. Out of the money which they ſhall receive from the company, they are allowed a ſum not exceeding eight hundred pounds, for the ſalaries of their clerks and agents at London, Briſtol, and Liverpool; the houſe-rent of their office at London; and all other expences of management, commiſſion, and agency, in England. What remains of this ſum, after defraying thoſe different expences, they may divide among themſelves, as compenſation for their trouble, in what manner they think proper. "By this conſtitution, it might have been expected (Dr Smith obſerves), that the ſpirit of monopoly would have been effectually reſtrained, and the firſt of theſe purpoſes ſufficiently anſwered. It would ſeem, however, that it had not. Though by the 4th of George III. c. 20. the fort of Senegal, with all its dependencies, had been veſted in the company of merchants trading to Africa, yet in the year following (by the 5th of George III. c. 24.), not only Senegal and its dependencies, but the whole coaſt from the port of Sallee, in ſouth Barbary, to Cape Rouge, was exempted from the juriſdiction of that company, was veſted in the crown, and the trade to it declared free to all his majeſty's ſubjects. The company had been ſuſpected of reſtraining the trade, and of eſtabliſhing ſome ſort of improper monopoly. It is not, however, very eaſy to conceive how, under the regulations of the 23d George II. they could do ſo. From the printed debates of the houſe of commons (not always the moſt authentic records of truth), it appears, however, that they have been accuſed of this. The members of the committee of nine being all merchants, and the governors and factors, in their different forts and ſettlements, being all dependent upon them, it is not unlikely that the latter might have given peculiar attention to the conſignments and commiſſions of the former, which would eſtabliſh a real monopoly."

For the ſecond purpoſe mentioned, the maintenance of the forts and garriſons, an annual ſum has been allotted to them by parliament, generally about 13,000l. For the proper application of this ſum, the committee is obliged to account annually to the curſitor baron of exchequer; which account is afterwards to be laid before parliament. But parliament (continues our author), which gives ſo little attention to the application of millions, is not likely to give much to that of 13,000l. a-year; and the curſitor baron of exchequer, from his profeſſion and education, is not likely to be profoundly ſkilled in the proper expence of forts and garriſons. The captains of his majeſty's navy, indeed, or any other commiſſioned officers, appointed by the board of admiralty, may inquire into the condition of the forts and garriſons, and report their obſervations to that board. But that board ſeems to have no direct juriſdiction over the committee, nor any authority to correct thoſe whoſe conduct it may thus inquire into; and the captains of his majeſty's navy, beſides, are not ſuppoſed to be always deeply learned in the ſcience of fortification. Removal from an office, which can be enjoyed only for the term of three years, and of which the lawful emoluments, even during that term, are ſo very ſmall, ſeems to be the utmoſt puniſhment to which any committee-man is liable, for any fault, except direct malverſation, or embezzlement either of the public money or that of the company; and the fear of that puniſhment, can never be a motive of ſufficient weight to force a continual and careful attention to a buſineſs to which he has no other intereſt to attend. The commitee are accuſed of having ſent out bricks and ſtones from England for the reparation of Cape Coaſt Caſtle on the coaſt of Guinea, a buſineſs for which parliament had ſeveral times granted an extraordinary ſum of money. Theſe bricks and ſtones too, which had thus been ſent upon ſo long a voyage, were ſaid to have been of ſo bad a quality, that it was neceſſary to rebuild from the foundation the walls which had been repaired with them. The forts and garriſons which lie north of Cape Rouge are not only maintained at the expence of the ſtate, but are under the immediate government of the executive power; and why thoſe which lie ſouth of that cape, and which too are, in part at leaſt, maintained at the expence of the ſtate, could be under a different government, it ſeems not very eaſy even to imagine a good reaſon."

The above company ſucceeded that called *The Royal African Company*, which traded upon a joint ſtock with an excluſive privilege. Though England began to trade to Africa as early as the year 1536, and ſeveral voyages were made to Guinea in 1538, and ſome following years, for the importation of gold and elephants teeth, nothing like a company was formed till the year 1588, when Queen Elizabeth granted a patent of excluſive privilege to certain perſons for ten years. In 1618, King James I. eſtabliſhed a company by charter, which was ſoon diſſolved. Another company was erected by charter of Charles I. in 1631, which met with little ſucceſs; but the demand for negroes in the Engliſh American plantations increaſing, a third company was eſtabliſhed by a charter granted 1662, in favour of the duke of York; ſecuring to him the commerce of all the country, coaſts, iſlands, &c. belonging to the crown of England, or not poſſeſſed by any other Chriſtian prince, from Cape Blanco in 20° N. Lat. to the Cape of Good Hope, in 34° 34′ S. Lat. The charter was ſoon after returned into the king's hands by the duke, and revoked, by conſent of the parties aſſociated with him in the enterpriſe; in conſequence of which, the fourth and laſt excluſive company was eſtabliſhed and incorporated by letters patent in 1672, under the title of the *Royal African Company*. A capital was ſoon raiſed of 111,000l. and this new company improved their trade, and increaſed their forts; but after the revolution in 1689, this trade was laid open. In 1698, all private traders to Africa were obliged

Company. obliged by ſtat. 9 and 10 Will. to pay ten per cent. in order to aſſiſt the company in maintaining their forts and factories. But notwithſtanding this heavy tax, the company were ſtill unable to maintain the competition; their ſtock and credit gradually declined. In 1712, their debts had become ſo great, that a particular act of parliament was thought neceſſary, both for their ſecurity and for that of their creditors. It was enacted, that the reſolution of two-thirds of theſe creditors in number and value ſhould bind the reſt, both with regard to the time which ſhould be allowed to the company for the payment of their debts, and with regard to any other agreement which it might be thought proper to make with them concerning thoſe debts. In 1730, their affairs were in ſo great diſorder, that they were altogether incapable of maintaining their forts and garriſons; the ſole purpoſe and pretext of their inſtitution. From that year till their final diſſolution, the parliament judged it neceſſary to allow the annual ſum of ten thouſand pounds for that purpoſe. In 1732, after having been for many years loſers by the trade of carrying negroes to the Weſt Indies, they at laſt reſolved to give it up altogether; to ſell to the private traders to America the negroes which they purchaſed upon the coaſt; and to employ their ſervants in a trade to the inland parts of Africa for gold duſt, elephants teeth, dyeing drugs, &c. But their ſucceſs in this more confined trade was not greater than in their former extenſive one. Their affairs continued to go gradually to decline, till at laſt being in every reſpect a bankrupt company, they were diſſolved by act of parliament, and their forts and garriſons veſted in the preſent *Regulated Company of Merchants trading to Africa.*

II. *Joint-Stock Companies*, eſtabliſhed either by royal charter or by act of parliament, differ in ſeveral reſpects not only from regulated companies, but from private copartneries. 1. In a private copartnery, no partner, without the conſent of the company, can transfer his ſhare to another perſon, or introduce a new member into the company. Each member, however, may, upon proper warning, withdraw from the copartnery, and demand payment from them of his ſhare of the common ſtock. In a joint-ſtock company, on the contrary, no member can demand payment of his ſhare from the company: but each member can, without their conſent, transfer his ſhare to another perſon, and thereby introduce a new member. The value of a ſhare in a joint-ſtock is always the price which it will bring in the market; and this may be either greater or leſs, in any proportion, than the ſum which its owner ſtands credited for in the ſtock of the company. 2. In a private copartnery, each partner is bound for the debts contracted by the company to the whole extent of his fortune. In a joint-ſtock company, on the contrary, each partner is bound only to the extent of his ſhare.

The trade of a joint-ſtock company is always managed by a court of directors. This court indeed is frequently ſubject, in many reſpects, to the controul of a general court of proprietors. But the greater part of thoſe proprietors ſeldom pretend to underſtand any thing of the buſineſs of the company; and when the ſpirit of faction happens not to prevail among them, give themſelves no trouble about it, but receive contentedly ſuch half-yearly or yearly dividend as the directors think proper to make to them. This total exemption from trouble and from riſk, beyond a limited ſum, encourages many people to become adventurers in joint-ſtock companies, who would upon no account hazard their fortunes in any private copartnery. Such companies, therefore, commonly draw to themſelves much greater ſtocks than any private copartnery can boaſt of. The trading ſtock of the South-Sea Company, at one time, amounted to upwards of thirty-three millions eight hundred thouſand pounds. The directors of ſuch companies, however, being the managers rather of other people's money than of their own, it cannot well be expected that they ſhould watch over it with the ſame anxious vigilance with which the partners in a private copartnery frequently watch over their own. Like the ſtewards of a rich man, they are apt to conſider attention to ſmall matters as not for their maſter's honour, and very eaſily give themſelves a diſpenſation from having it. Negligence and profuſion, therefore, muſt always prevail, more or leſs, in the management of the affairs of ſuch a company. It is upon this account that joint-ſtock companies for foreign trade have ſeldom been able to maintain the competitions againſt private adventurers. They have, accordingly, very ſeldom ſucceeded without an excluſive privilege; and frequently have not ſucceeded with one. Without an excluſive privilege they have commonly miſmanaged the trade. With an excluſive privilege they have both miſmanaged and confined it.

The principal joint-ſtock companies preſently ſubſiſting in Great Britain are, the *South Sea* and the *Eaſt India* companies; to which may be added, though of very inferior magnitude, the *Hudſon's Bay* Company.

1. *The South-Sea Company.* During the long war with France in the reign of Queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, they received tickets inſtead of money, and were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40 and ſometimes 50 per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6 per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them for the purpoſe of carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery," &c.

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it ever carried into execution by this company.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of Queen Anne at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the

Company. ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that they might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge; and for enabling them to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt-mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South Sea bubble was projected. The pretence was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhowing the advantages of this deſign. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends: and actually declared that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum; which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property: ſome of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

The South-Sea Company never had any forts or garriſons to maintain, and therefore were entirely exempted from one great expence, to which other joint-ſtock companies for foreign trade are ſubject. But they had an immenſe capital divided among an immenſe number of proprietors. It was naturally to be expected, therefore, that folly, negligence, and profuſion, ſhould prevail in the whole management of their affairs.

Their ſtock-jobbing ſpeculations were ſucceeded by mercantile projects, which, Dr Smith obſerves, were not much better conducted. The firſt trade which they engaged in, was that of ſupplying the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with negroes, of which (in conſequence of what was called the Aſſiento contract granted them by the treaty of Utrecht) they had the excluſive privilege. But as it was not expected that much profit could be made by this trade, both the Portugueſe and French companies, who had enjoyed it upon the ſame terms before them, having been ruined by it, they were allowed, as compenſation, to ſend annually a ſhip of a certain burden to trade directly to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. Of the ten voyages which this annual ſhip was allowed to make, they are ſaid to have gained conſiderably by one, that of the Royal Caroline in 1731, and to have been loſers, more or leſs, by almoſt all the reſt. Their ill ſucceſs was imputed, by their factors and agents, to the extortion and oppreſſion of the Spaniſh government; but was, perhaps, principally owing to the profuſion and depredations of thoſe very factors and agents; ſome of whom are ſaid to have acquired great fortunes even in one year. In 1734, the company petitioned the king, that they might be allowed to diſpoſe of the trade and tonnage of their annual ſhip, on account of the little profit which they made by it, and to accept of ſuch equivalent as they could obtain from the king of Spain.

In 1724, this company had undertaken the whale-fiſhery. Of this, indeed, they had no monopoly; but as long as they carried it on, no other Britiſh ſubjects appear to have engaged in it. Of the eight voyages which their ſhips made to Greenland, they were gainers by one, and loſers by all the reſt. After their eighth and laſt voyage, when they had ſold their ſhips, ſtores, and utenſils, they found that their whole loſs, upon this branch, capital and intereſt included, amounted to upwards of 237,000l.

In 1722, this company petitioned the parliament to be allowed to divide their immenſe capital of more than 33,800,000l. the whole of which had been lent to government, into two equal parts: The one-half, or upwards of 16,900,000l. to be put upon the ſame footing with other government annuities, and not to be ſubject to the debts contracted, or loſſes incurred, by the directors of the company, in the proſecution of their mercantile projects; the other half to remain, as before, a trading ſtock, and to be ſubject to thoſe debts and loſſes. The petition was too reaſonable not to be granted. In 1733, they again petitioned the parliament that three-fourths of their trading ſtock might be turned into annuity ſtock, and only one-fourth remain as trading ſtock, or expoſed to the hazards ariſing from the bad management of their directors. Both their annuity and trading ſtocks had by this time, been reduced more than 2,000,000l. each, by ſeveral different payments from government; ſo that this fourth amounted only to 3,662,784l. 8s. 6d. In 1748, all the demands of the company upon the king of Spain, in conſequence of the Aſſiento contract, were by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, given up for what was ſuppoſed an equivalent. An end was put to their trade with the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, the remainder of their trading ſtock was turned into an annuity ſtock, and the company ceaſed in every reſpect to be a trading company.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and 21 directors: but no per-

Company. ſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has in his own name and right 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes; and if 5000l. four votes.

2. *The Eaſt India Company.* The firſt, or as it is called the *Old Eaſt India Company*, was eſtabliſhed by a charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600; but for ſome time the partners ſeem to have traded with ſeparate ſtocks, though only in the ſhips belonging to the whole company. In 1612, they joined their ſtocks into one common capital: and though their charter was not as yet confirmed by act of parliament, it was looked upon in that early period to be ſufficiently valid, and no body ventured to interfere with their trade. At this time their capital amounted to about 740,000l. and the ſhares were as low as 50l.: their trade was in general ſucceſsful, notwithſtanding ſome heavy loſſes, chiefly ſuſtained through the malice of the Dutch Eaſt India Company. In proceſs of time, however, it came to be underſtood that a royal charter could not by itſelf convey an excluſive privilege to traders, and the company was reduced to diſtreſs by reaſon of the multitude of interlopers who carried off the moſt of their trade. This continued during the latter part of the reign of Charles II. the whole of that of James II. and part of William III. when in 1698 a propoſal was made to parliament for advancing the ſum of 2,000,000l. to government, on condition of erecting the ſubſcribers into a new company with excluſive privileges. The old company endeavoured to prevent the appearance of ſuch a formidable rival, by offering government 700,000l. nearly the amount of their capital at that time; but ſuch were the exigencies of the ſtate, that the larger ſum, though at eight per cent. intereſt, was preferred to the ſmaller at one half the expence.

Thus were two Eaſt India Companies erected in the ſame kingdom, which could not but be very prejudicial to each other. Through the negligence of thoſe who prepared the act of parliament alſo, the new company were not obliged to unite in a joint-ſtock. The conſequence of this was, that a few private traders, whoſe ſubſcriptions ſcarce exceeded 7200l. inſiſted on a right of trading ſeparately at their own riſk. Thus a kind of third company was eſtabliſhed; and by their mutual contentions with one another, all the three were brought to the brink of ruin. Upon a ſubſequent occaſion, in 1730, a propoſal was made to parliament for putting the trade under the management of a regulated company, and thus laying it in ſome meaſure open. This, however, was oppoſed by the company, who repreſented in ſtrong terms the miſchiefs likely to ariſe from ſuch a proceeding. "In India (they ſaid), it raiſed the price of goods ſo high, that they were not worth the buying; and in England, by overſtocking the market, it ſunk the price to ſuch a degree that no profit could be made of them." Here Dr Smith remarks, that by a more plentiful ſupply, to the great advantage and conveniency of the public, it muſt have reduced very much the price of Indian goods in the Engliſh market, cannot well be doubted; but that it ſhould have raiſed very much their price in the Indian market, ſeems not very probable, as all the extraordinary demand which that competition could occaſion, muſt have been but as a drop of water in the immenſe ocean of Indian commerce. The increaſe of demand, adds he, though in the beginning it may ſometimes raiſe the price of goods, never fails to lower it in the iſſue. It encourages production, and thereby increaſes the competition of the producers, who, in order to underſell one another, have recourſe to new diviſions of labour and new improvements of art, which might never otherwiſe have been thought of. The miſerable effects of which the company complained, were the cheapneſs of conſumption and the encouragement given to production, preciſely the two effects which it is the buſineſs of political economy to promote. The competition, however, of which they gave this doleful account, had not been allowed to continue long. In 1702 the two companies were, in ſome meaſure, united by an indenture tripartite, to which the queen was the third party; and in 1708, they were, by act of parliament, perfectly conſolidated into one company by their preſent name of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." Into this act it was thought worthy to inſert a clauſe, allowing the ſeparate traders to continue their traffic till Michaelmas 1711, but at the ſame time empowering the directors, upon three years notice, to redeem their capital of 7200l. and thereby convert the whole capital of the company into a joint-ſtock. By the ſame act, the capital of the company, in conſequence of a new loan to government, was augmented from 2,000,000l. to 3,200,000l. In 1743, another million was advanced to government. But this being raiſed, not by a call upon the proprietors, but by ſelling annuities and contracting bond-debts, it did not augment the ſtock upon which the proprietors could claim a dividend. Thus, however, their trading ſtock was augmented; it being equally liable with the other 3,200,000l. to the loſſes ſuſtained, and debts contracted, by the company in the proſecution of their mercantile projects. From 1708, or at leaſt from 1711, this company being freed from all competitors, and fully eſtabliſhed in the monopoly of the Engliſh commerce to the Eaſt Indies, carried on a ſucceſsful trade; and from their profits made annually a moderate dividend to their proprietors. Unhappily, however, in a ſhort time, an inclination for war and conqueſt began to take place among their ſervants; which, though it put them in poſſeſſion of extenſive territories and vaſt nominal revenues, yet embarraſſed their affairs in ſuch a manner, that they have not to this day been able to recover themſelves. The particulars of theſe wars are given under the articles BRITAIN, and INDOSTAN. Here it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that they originated during the war in 1741 through the ambition of M. Dupleix the French governor of Pondicherry, who involved the company in the politics and diſputes of the Indian princes. After carrying on hoſtilities for ſome time with various ſucceſs, they at laſt loſt Madras, at that time the principal ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, but it was reſtored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. During the war of

Smith's Wealth of Nations, vol. iii. p. 134.

Company. of 1755, they acquired the revenues of a rich and extenſive territory, amounting, as was then ſaid, to near 3,000,000l. per annum.

For ſeveral years they remained in quiet poſſeſſion of the revenue ariſing from this territory, though it certainly never anſwered the expectations that had been formed concerning it. But in 1767 the Britiſh miniſtry laid claim to the territorial poſſeſſions of the company, and the revenue ariſing from them, as of right belonging to the crown; and the company, rather than yield up their territories in this manner, agreed to pay government a yearly ſum of 400,000l. They had before this gradually augmented their dividend from about ſix to ten per cent.; that is, on their capital of 3,200,000l. they had raiſed it from 192,000l. to 320,000l. a-year. About this time alſo they were attempting to raiſe it ſtill farther, viz. from 10 to 12½ per cent.; but from this they were prevented by two ſucceſſive acts of parliament, the deſign of which was to enable them to make a more ſpeedy payment of their debts, at this time eſtimated at more than ſix or ſeven millions ſterling. In 1769 they renewed their agreement with government for five years more, ſtipulating, that during the courſe of that period they ſhould be allowed gradually to augment their dividend to 12½ per cent.; never increaſing it, however, more than one per cent. annually. Thus their annual payments could only be augmented by 608,000l. beyond what they had been before their late territorial acquiſitions. By accounts from India in the year 1768, this revenue, clear of all deductions and military charges, was ſtated at 2,048,747l. At the ſame time they were ſaid to poſſeſs another revenue, ariſing partly from lands, but chiefly from the cuſtoms eſtabliſhed at their different ſettlements, amounting to about 439,000l. The profits of their trade, too, according to the evidence of their chairman before the houſe of commons, amounted to at leaſt 400,000l. per annum; their accountant made it 500,000l.; and the loweſt account ſtated it at leaſt equal to the higheſt dividend paid to their proprietors. Notwithſtanding this apparent wealth, however, the affairs of the company from this time fell into diſorder; inſomuch that in 1773 their debts were augmented by an arrear to the treaſury in the payment of the 400,000l. ſtipulated; by another to the cuſtomhouſe for duties unpaid; by a large ſum borrowed from the bank; and by bills drawn upon them from India to the amount of more than 1,200,000l. Thus they were not only obliged to reduce their dividend all at once to ſix per cent. but to apply to government for aſſiſtance. A particular account of this tranſaction is given under the article BRITAIN. Here it may be mentioned in general, that the event proved very unfavourable to the company, as they were now ſubjected to an interference of government altogether unknown before. Several important alterations were made in their conſtitution both at home and abroad. The ſettlements of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, which had hitherto been entirely independent of one another, were ſubjected to a governor-general; aſſiſted by a council of four aſſeſſors. The nomination of the firſt governor and council, who were to reſide at Calcutta, was aſſumed by parliament; the power of the court of Calcutta, which had gradually extended its juriſdiction over the reſt, was now reduced and confined to the trial of mercantile cauſes, the purpoſe for which it was originally inſtituted. Inſtead of it a new ſupreme court of judicature was eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three judges to be appointed by the crown. Beſides theſe alterations, the ſtock neceſſary to entitle any proprietor to vote at the general courts was raiſed from 500l. to 1000l. To vote on this qualification, too, it was neceſſary that he ſhould have poſſeſſed it, if acquired by his own purchaſe and not by inheritance, for at leaſt one year, inſtead of ſix months, the term requiſite formerly. The court of 24 directors had before been choſen annually; but it was now enacted, that each director ſhould for the future be choſen for four years; ſix of them, however, to go out of office by rotation every year, and not to be capable of being rechoſen at the election of the ſix new directors for the enſuing year. It was expected that, in conſequence of theſe alterations, the courts both of the proprietors and directors would be likely to act with more dignity and ſteadineſs than formerly. But this was far from being the caſe. The company and its ſervants ſhowed the utmoſt indifference about the happineſs or miſery of the people who had the misfortune to be ſubjected to their juriſdiction. This indifference, too, was more likely to be increaſed than diminiſhed by ſome of the new regulations. The houſe of commons, for inſtance, had reſolved, that when the 1,600,000l. lent to the company by government ſhould be paid, and their bond debts reduced to 1,500,000l. they might then, and not till then, divide eight per cent. upon their capital; and that whatever remained of their revenues and nett profits at home ſhould be divided into four parts; three of them to be paid into the exchequer for the uſe of the public, and the fourth to be reſerved as a fund, either for the further reduction of their bond debts, or for the diſcharge of other contingent exigencies which the company might labour under. But it could ſcarce be expected that, if the company were bad ſtewards and bad ſovereigns when the whole of their nett revenue and profits belonged to themſelves, they would be better when three-fourths of theſe belonged to other people. The regulations of 1773, therefore, did not put an end to the troubles of the company. Among other inſtitutions, it had been at this time enacted, that the preſidency of Bengal ſhould have a ſuperiority over the other preſidencies in the country; the ſalary of the chief juſtice was fixed at 8000l. per annum, and thoſe of the other judges at 6000l. each. In conſequence of this act, Sir Elijah Impey, who was created a baronet on the occaſion, ſet ſail with three other judges, for India, in the year 1774. The powers with which they were inveſted were very extraordinary. They had the title of his Majeſty's Supreme Court of Judicature in India. Civil law, common law, eccleſiaſtical, criminal, and admiralty juriſdiction, belonged of right to them. They were empowered to try Europeans on perſonal actions, and to aſſeſs damages without a jury. Every native, either directly or indirectly in the ſervice of the company, or in their territories, was made ſubject to their juriſdiction, with a view to prevent the Europeans from eluding juſtice under the pretence of employing

Company. ploying natives in the commiſſion of their crimes; ſo that in fact they were abſolute lords and ſovereigns of the whole country.

Such exceſſive and unlimited powers conferred on any ſmall number of men, could not but be extremely diſagreeable to the Europeans, who had been accuſtomed to enjoy a liberty almoſt equally unbounded before; nor was it to be ſuppoſed that the judges, thus ſuddenly raiſed from the rank of ſubjects to the height of deſpotiſm, would always uſe their power in an unexceptionable manner. The deſign of the eſtabliſhment was to preſerve the commerce and revenues of the company from depredation; by ſubjecting its ſervants to the controul of the court; to relieve the ſubject from oppreſſion by facilitating the means of redreſs; and to fix a regular courſe of juſtice for the ſecurity of liberty and property. Inſtead of conſidering the circumſtances of the country, however, or the manners and cuſtoms of the natives, the judges now precipitately introduced the Britiſh laws in their full extent, without the leaſt modification to render them agreeable to the Aſiatics, who had been accuſtomed to others of a quite different nature; nor did they even pay the leaſt regard to the religious inſtitutions or habits to which the Indians are ſo obſtinately attached, that they would ſooner part with life itſelf than break through an article of them.

Beſides this it was ſaid, that, on the firſt arrival of the judges, they endeavoured to extend their authority beyond even what the Britiſh legiſlature had allowed them. Hence they were frequently at variance with the council; and complaints of their conduct were repeatedly ſent to England by the ſervants of the company. Theſe produced a letter in 1777 from the directors to Lord Weymouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the ſouthern department. In this they ſtated, that the ſupreme court of India had extended its juriſdiction to thoſe whom it did not appear to have been the intention of the king or parliament to ſubject to its authority. It had alſo taken cognizance of matters which, they apprehended, belonged properly to other courts. That the judges conſidered the criminal law of England as in force, and binding on the natives of Bengal, though utterly repugnant to the laws and cuſtoms by which they had hitherto been governed; and that the juriſdiction exerciſed by the ſupreme court was incompatible with the powers given by parliament to the governor-general and council, obſtructed the adminiſtration of government, and tended to alienate the minds of the natives; all which they feared would prevent the eſtabliſhment of the government of India upon any ſettled or permanent foundation.

This letter not having produced any effect, the diſcontents of India, both in the Europeans and natives, continued and increaſed. The deciſions of the judges were ſuch as by no means did them honour. A number of adventurers had alſo emigrated along with them, in hopes of enriching themſelves under the new conſtitution. Some of theſe were of the loweſt ſort of people, who had rendered it in a manner impoſſible for them to remain in England on account of their vices or extravagance. Many ſuch perſons had enrolled themſelves among the domeſtics of the judges, or had become their immediate dependents; and ſome of theſe were permitted to aſſume the characters of attorneys, court-officers, under-ſheriffs, and bailiffs. It may eaſily be ſuppoſed, that people of ſuch characters would find it for their intereſt to promote ſuits in the ſupreme court: and in this ſome of them employed themſelves with great ſucceſs. The conſequence of all this was, that on the 4th of December 1780, a petition was preſented againſt the ſupreme court by a great number of Britiſh inhabitants in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa. In this, complaint was made of the indiſcriminate manner in which the judges of the ſupreme court attempted to exerciſe the Engliſh laws in that country, at the ſame time that they refuſed the undoubted right of every Britiſh ſubject, viz. that of trial by jury. They entreated the houſe "to reflect on the innumerable hardſhips which muſt enſue, and the univerſal confuſion which muſt be occaſioned, by giving to the voluminous laws of England a boundleſs retroſpective power in the midſt of Aſia, and by an application of thoſe laws, made for the freeſt and moſt enlightened people on earth, the principle of whoſe conſtitution was founded on virtue and liberty, to tranſactions with the natives of India, who had, from time immemorial, lived under a deſpotic government, founded on fear and reſtraint. What muſt be the terrors of individuals to find their titles to property, and their tranſactions with the natives previous to the eſtabliſhment of this court of judicature, tried by the ſtandard of the Engliſh law, and by men educated under its forms, and unavoidably imbibing its prejudices, when no ſuch law could be known to or practiſed by natives or Europeans then reſiding in the country, and that at a time when there were few perſons of legal knowledge in the country to adviſe or aſſiſt them? No tyranny could be more fatal in its conſequences, than that a court, inveſted with all the authority of one of the firſt courts in England, ſhould alſo poſſeſs undefined powers and juriſdiction, of which its judges were the ſole interpreters, and at ſuch an immenſe diſtance from the mother country. This was in truth the ſituation of the Britiſh ſubjects in India at that time; for the judges of the ſupreme court could at pleaſure determine on the denomination of a civil jury, the degree of guilt incurred by any offence, the ſtatute by which it ſhould be tried, what penalties ſhould be inflicted, as well as who were and who were not amenable to the juriſdiction of the court.

"Beſides their other powers alſo, the judges of the ſupreme court were allowed to ſit as a court of chancery, and in that capacity to reviſe, correct, reſcind, or confirm the deciſions paſſed by themſelves as a court of law; and by another part of their conſtitution, they were allowed to ſtop execution in criminal caſes until his majeſty's pleaſure was known. The petitioners conceived, that there muſt be ſome fundamental error in that conſtitution, which required a more than ordinary degree of temper, integrity, and ability, to carry its purpoſes into execution; and they did not heſitate to declare, that to adminiſter the powers appertaining to the inſtitution of the ſupreme court, without committing flagrant acts of injuſtice, and doing great detriment to the public, required more equity, moderation, diſcernment, and enlightened abilities, than they could hope to find in any ſet of men." They concluded with earneſtly ſoliciting parliament, that a trial by

Company. by jury might be granted to the British subjects in Bengal, in all cases where it was established by law in England; that the retrospective powers of the supreme court might be limited to the time of its establishment in Bengal; that it should be defined beyond the power of discretional distinction who the persons were that properly came under the jurisdiction of the court, and who did not; that it should be expresly declared what statutes should, and what should not, be in force in Bengal; that distinct and separate judges for the law and equity sides of the court should be appointed; and that a power of delaying executions in criminal cases until his majesty's pleasure was known, should be lodged in the governor and council.

This petition was soon followed by another signed by Warren Hastings, Esq. governor-general, Philip Francis and Edward Wheeler, Esqs. counsellors for the government and presidency of Fort-William in Bengal; in which they represented, "that, though the jurisdiction of the supreme court of judicature at Calcutta, as well as the powers granted to the governor-general and council, were clearly limited by parliament and the king's letters patent, yet the chief justice and judges of that court had exercised authority over persons not legally within their jurisdiction, and had illegally and improperly advised and admitted suits against the governor-general and council: that they had attempted to execute their writs upon natives of high rank in the kingdom of Bengal, who were not within their jurisdiction: the governor and council therefore had found themselves under a necessity of opposing them, and of affording protection to the country and people, who were placed under their own immediate inspection, and freeing them from the terrors of a new and usurped dominion. They had even been obliged to make use of a military force, in order to resist the proceedings of the judges and their officers: And they declared, that no other conduct could have saved those provinces, and the interests of the company, or of the British nation itself, from the ruin with which they were threatened. They also declared themselves to be of opinion, that the attempt to extend, to the inhabitants of these provinces, the jurisdiction of the supreme court of judicature, and the authority of the English law, which were still more intolerable than the law itself, would be such a restraint on the minds of the people of those provinces, by the difference of such laws and forms from their laws, that they might at last inflame them, notwithstanding their known mildness and patience, into an open rebellion." The petition was concluded, by soliciting an indemnity from the legal consequences of the resistance they had been obliged to make to that court.

While the British were thus expressing their displeasure against the conduct of these judges, the natives were thrown into the utmost consternation and despair by the acts of oppression and violence committed by them. A prosecution for forgery had been commenced against Nundcomar, a bramin of the first rank in Bengal. The crime was not capital by the laws of Indostan, and had been committed many years before; yet with the utmost cruelty and injustice was this man condemned and executed on the British statute, by which forgery is made capital; a statute which, at the commission of the crime, he had never heard of, nor could ever dream that he would be subjected to its power. What rendered this execution the more remarkable was, that, at the very time when the charge of forgery was brought against him, Nundcomar had been employed in exhibiting an accusation against Mr Hastings. This, together with the hurry in which the court were to have him put to death (for the court refused to allow him a respite till his majesty's pleasure was known), made the natives conclude that he was executed, not on account of the forgery, but for having ventured to prefer an accusation against an English governor. In other respects they were terrified to such a degree, that many of them ran into the river on seeing a bramin put to death with such circumstances of ignominy.

The alarm excited by the execution of Nundcomar was kept up by fresh decisions of the supreme court: Among those the Patna cause, as it is commonly called, was one of the most remarkable. An adventurer, named Shahaz Beg Cawn, had come from Cabul in Persia to Bengal, where he entered himself in the service of the company, and was preferred to the command of a body of horse. Having gained a competent fortune, and obtained from the Mogul a grant of lands called an *Ultumghaw* in the province of Bahar, he retired from the army, and settled in Patna. About this time, when advanced in years, he married a woman of low rank, named *Nadara Begum*, by whom he had no children. His brother, Allum Beg, came likewise to Patna; and on his leaving the place some time after, committed the care of one of his sons, named *Behader Beg*, to his brother Shahaz Beg Cawn. On the death of the latter in 1776, a dispute ensued concerning the inheritance betwixt the widow and Behader Beg. The widow having taken possession of the whole property of Shahaz, the nephew, as adopted son and heir, gave in a petition to the provincial council at Patna, on the 2d of January 1777, setting forth his claim. In this petition he stated, that the widow was removing and secreting the effects of the deceased; and concluded with a prayer, that orders should be given to prevent their removal; to recover such as had already been carried away; and that the cadi or Indian judge should be directed to ascertain his right. As the parties were Mahometans, the council of course referred the cause to the cadi and two mufties, the proper officers for determining it according to the established laws of the country. These having inquired into the matter, reported, that the title-deeds, on which the widow pretended to found her right, appeared to be forged; and that, even if they had appeared in the life-time of Shahaz, they were still informal, on account of a point of the Mahometan law, which requires, that to make deeds of gift valid, possession should be entered into at the time of executing or delivering them over; but that, as no possession of this kind had been given, the estate ought to be divided according to the Mahometan law; viz. one-fourth to the wife, and three-fourths to the nephew, as the representative of his father Allum Beg, who was considered as the more immediate heir of the deceased. This decision was confirmed by the council of Patna, with the following exception in favour of the widow, that the heir-at-law should pay her one-fourth of the rents of the ultumghaw, or royal grant;

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Company. for her ſupport during life. The widow, however, refuſed to ſubmit to the deciſion, or to deliver up the effects of her huſband; in conſequence of which compulſatory methods were uſed; when by the advice of ſome Engliſh lawyers, an action of treſpaſs was brought, according to the law of England, againſt the cadi and two mufties for their proceedings againſt her, laying the damages at about 66,000l. ſterling. This proceſs being brought before the ſupreme court, was by them conducted in ſuch a manner as muſt entail everlaſting infamy on the actors. They began with obliging the cadi and mufties to find bail in no leſs than 40,000 pounds for their appearance, which was immediately given by the council at Patna. The ſupreme court then having entered into the merits of the cauſe, and decided the matter in the moſt rigorous manner, according to all the forms of Engliſh law, aſſeſſed the cadi and mufties in damages no leſs than 30,000l. ſterling. Their houſes and effects were ſeized by the ſheriff's officers, and publicly put up to ſale; the cadi, who was upwards of 60 years of age, and had been in office for many years with great applauſe, died on his way to the common gaol at Calcutta, to which the nephew and two mufties were conveyed, being a diſtance of no leſs than 400 miles from their former reſidence at Patna. A ſuit, however, was commenced againſt the widow, on account of having forged the title-deeds by which ſhe claimed her huſband's eſtate; but it was ſuppreſſed on account of ſome informality.

Another deciſion, by which the ſupreme court likewiſe incurred much cenſure, was that againſt Jaggernaut, the principal public officer of a Mahometan court at Dacca. The action was brought at the inſtigation of an Engliſh attorney, in behalf of one Khyne, a ſervant or meſſenger, who had been fined and impriſoned for a miſdemeanor, in which Jaggernaut had concurred in virtue of his office as judge of the Nizamut (the name of the Mahometan court juſt mentioned). The ſheriff-officers attempted to arreſt the judge as he ſat on the tribunal; which could not fail to produce much diſturbance. Jaggernaut, with his officers, denied the authority of the ſupreme court over the Nizamut, and refuſed to comply with the writ. The Engliſh ſheriff-officers proceeded to force; and a violent ſcuffle enſuing, Jaggernaut's father was wounded in the head with a ſword by one of the under-ſheriff's attendants, while his brother-in-law was very dangerouſly wounded with a piſtol bullet by the under-ſheriff himſelf. The immediate conſequence of this was an abſolute refuſal of the judge to take cognizance of any criminal matter; and this was intimated in a letter from the council at Dacca to the Engliſh governor and council of India; wherein they declared that all criminal juſtice was at a ſtand.

The ſupreme court, having proceeded in this arbitrary and oppreſſive manner for ſome time, at length attempted to extend their juriſdiction over the hereditary zemindars of Bengal. Theſe are a kind of tributary lords, or great landholders, who are anſwerable to the company for the revenues or rents of the diſtricts; and excepting the circumſtances of remitting their revenues to the company, have not the leaſt connection with the Engliſh in any reſpect. At the time we ſpeak of, however, a writ upon an action of debt was iſſued out to arreſt one of theſe zemindars in his palace. Timely notice, however, was given, by one of the company's collectors, of this attempt to the governor and council, and application made to protect a man of ſuch quality from the diſgrace of an arreſt. They being unanimouſly of opinion that the zemindar was not within the juriſdiction of the court of Calcutta, deſired him to pay no regard to the writ. The court, however, determined to enforce their proceſs by a writ of ſequeſtration; upon which the natives, who are ſuperſtitiouſly attached to their zemindars, roſe in his defence, and inſulted the ſheriff's officers. The latter having obtained a reinforcement, the zemindar's palace was entered by 86 men armed with bludgeons, cutlaſſes, and muſkets; the apartment of his women, always held inviolably ſacred by the Aſiatics, was broken open; his temple profaned; and the image, which was the object of his worſhip, put into a baſket, and carried off with ſome common lumber. This rouſed the attention of the governor and council; who, from a full conviction of the ruinous tendency of theſe proceedings, determined at laſt to oppoſe it force by force. They accordingly ſent a party of military to apprehend the ſheriff's people, and they were all conducted priſoners to Calcutta. The judges ordered attachments againſt the officers who commanded the troops, and againſt two other ſervants of the company; while the governor and council endeavoured to juſtify their proceedings, by writing to England as already mentioned.

Beſides all this, the natives themſelves teſtified their diſapprobation of the conduct of the ſupreme court in very ſtrong terms. A petition to his Britannic majeſty was ſent by the natives of Patna; in which are the following remarkable paſſages: "When the ordinances of this court of judicature were iſſued, as they were all contrary to the cuſtoms, modes, uſages, and inſtitutions, of this country, they occaſioned terror in us; and day by day, as the powers of this court have become more eſtabliſhed, our ruin, uneaſineſs, diſhonour, and diſcredit, have accumulated; till at laſt we are reduced to ſuch a ſituation, that we conſider death to us as infinitely preferable to the dread we entertain of the court: for from this court no credit, no character is left to us, and we are now driven to the laſt extremity. Several who poſſeſſed means and ability deeming flight as their only ſecurity, have baniſhed themſelves from the country; but bound as we are by poverty and inability, and fettered by the deareſt ties of conſanguinity, we do not all of us poſſeſs the means of flight, nor have we power to abide the oppreſſion of this court."—"If, which God forbid! it ſhould ſo happen, that this our petition ſhould not be accepted, and ſhould be rejected at the chamber of audience, thoſe amongſt us who have power and ability, diſcarding all affection for our families, will fly to any quarter we can; whilſt the remainder, who have no means or ability, giving themſelves up with pious reſignation to their fate, will ſit down in expectation of death."

Theſe repeated complaints could not but be taken notice of in parliament. On the 12th of February 1781, General Smith made a motion in the houſe of commons, that the petition from the Britiſh inhabitants of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſhould be taken into conſideration by a ſelect committee, conſiſting of 15 perſons, choſen by ballot. In the introduction to his

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his motion, he ſtated briefly the bad conduct of the ſupreme court in the particulars already related; and concluded, that the affairs of Bengal required the immediate attention and conſideration of parliament. The matter was accordingly debated; when, after various propoſals, a motion was at length made by General Smith, for leave to bring in a bill "to explain and amend ſo much of an act paſſed in the 13th year of his preſent majeſty, for the better regulation of the Eaſt India Company, as related to the adminiſtration of juſtice in Bengal: and alſo to indemnify the governor and council of Bengal for having reſiſted by force of arms the execution of an order of the ſupreme court of judicature in that kingdom." Leave was accordingly given to bring in the bill. The houſe having reſolved itſelf into a committee, Lord North obſerved, "that it had been much his wiſh that an agreement for the renewal of the company's charter had been made in an amicable manner; and that voluntary propoſitions ſhould have come from themſelves, offering terms for the benefit of the excluſive trade and the territorial acquiſitions. No ſuch terms, however, had been propoſed, nor any agreement made. A negociation had indeed taken place between him and the chairman and deputy-chairman; but the propoſitions made by them were neither ſuch as the public might expect, nor had the company any right to them. With regard to the territorial poſſeſſions, he was clearly of opinion, that they of right belonged to the public; though how far it might be proper to allow the revenue of them to remain in the poſſeſſion of the company was quite another matter. In his opinion it would be proper to allow it to remain in their hands as long as they poſſeſſed an excluſive trade, but he never would conſent to forego the claim of the public. He made a motion, therefore, "that it was the opinion of the committee, that three-fourths of the ſurplus of the nett profits of the Eaſt India Company, ever ſince the company's bond debt was reduced to 1,500,000l. and the company's dividends had been eight per cent. per annum, belong to the public; and that 600,000l. in lieu thereof, and in diſcharge of all claims on that part of the public, be paid into his majeſty's exchequer by inſtalments, in ſuch manner, and at ſuch times, as ſhall be agreed on." This propoſal was vehemently oppoſed by the minority. Mr Burke called it the daring effort of a miniſter determined on rapine and plunder, without regard to truth, honour, or juſtice. Mr Huſſey reprobated the idea of taking 600,000l. from the company in their circumſtances at that time. He produced a paper full of arithmetical calculations, which he read to the houſe; aſſerting that they contained an exact ſtate of the amount of the company's exports and imports, the expences of their trade at home, and the balance of profit of each year, for many years paſt, diſtinguiſhing the territorial from the commercial income and expences. From theſe he ſhowed, that the commercial and territorial revenues of the company had, upon an average for 16 years, conſtituted a ſum equivalent to a proportion of 16 per cent.; that 9 per cent. of this had ariſen from the commercial profits accruing to the company; and therefore, that there had not been 8 per cent. divided upon that part of the profits to which the public had any claim or pretenſion. The acceſſion of territorial poſſeſſions, he obſerved, had brought along with it additional expences; and the public had already received a very large ſhare of the company's profits. He declared it to be his opinion, that the company ſhould always make it a rule to give as ample and full relief to the public burdens as their ſituation would allow; and if they did this, he ſaw no reaſon why the miniſter ſhould exact any more. Mr Dempſter reminded the houſe of the conſequences of violating the American charters; and added, that to tear from the company by force what was not ſtipulated in any act of parliament, would be a breach of public faith diſgraceful to the nation, and ſuch as would damp the ſpirit of enterpriſe and adventure, which had been productive of ſuch happy effects.—Notwithſtanding theſe remonſtrances, however, the bill was at laſt paſſed into a law; only with this mitigation, that the company ſhould pay only 400,000l. inſtead of 600,000l. demanded originally by the miniſter.—Another bill was alſo paſſed the ſame year, in conſequence of the motion made by General Smith. This act declared, that the governor-general and council of Bengal were not ſubject to the juriſdiction of the ſupreme court, and indemnified the former for the reſiſtance they had made to the orders of that court. It enacted alſo, that no perſon ſhould be ſubject to the juriſdiction of that court on account of his being a landholder or farmer of land in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, or Oriſſa; that no judicial officers in the country courts ſhould be liable to actions in the ſupreme court for their deciſions; and the two mufties, with Behader Beg, who were then in priſon, in conſequence of the deciſion of that court in the Patna cauſe, were ordered to be ſet at liberty.

The debates on this ſubject were attended with the moſt violent charges againſt the miniſter, and aſſertions the moſt humiliating and diſgraceful to the Britiſh nation. Mr Townſhend affirmed, that it was from the miniſter's ſcreening the delinquents who came from India that all the evils in that quarter had originated; and if matters were ſuffered to go on in that country as they had done for ſome time paſt, the conduct of the Britiſh in the Eaſt Indies muſt be viewed in a light ſtill more deteſtable than that of the Spaniards in America. It was reported, that the nabob of Arcot had ſeveral members in the houſe of commons! If it were true, that by ſending over a ſum of money to England he could ſeat eight or ten members in that houſe, then Mr Townſhend declared, that in his opinion they were the moſt abject and contemptible beings in the world.—The bill for regulating the powers of the ſupreme court, alſo, though ſo evidently founded in reaſon and juſtice, did not paſs without oppoſition, particularly from Mr Dunning; who was thought on this occaſion to have allowed his regard for his friend Sir Elijah Impey, the chief juſtice, to bias him too much.

The regulations juſt mentioned did not yet put an end to the troubles of the Eaſt India Company, nor allay the ferment which had been ſo effectually excited. Their affairs were ſtill a ſubject of parliamentary diſcuſſion; and in the month of April 1782, a motion was made by Mr Dundas, then lord advocate of Scotland, for taking into conſideration the ſeveral reports concerning affairs, which had been made by the ſecret committee appointed to inquire into them during the laſt and

preſent

present session of parliament. In his speech on this occasion, he remarked, that the opinion of Lord Clive had been against keeping too extensive a territory in that country. Instead of this he had restored Sujah Dowlah to the possession of his country; considering the British territories in Hindostan, with those on the coast of Coromandel and Bombay, as sufficient for all the purposes by which this country could be benefited; but instead of adhering to the maxims of sound policy laid down by his lordship, they had become so ambitious of extending their territories, that they had involved themselves in a war with almost all India. He then considered the finances of the company. The revenue of Bombay, he said, fell short of the necessary civil and military establishment by 200,000l. a-year, which was annually drawn from Bengal. With regard to that of Madras, it appeared on an average of 12 years, from 1767 to 1779, that there had been eight years of war and only four of peace; and that, during the whole time of war, the revenue had not been able to support the civil and military establishments; though in time of peace, it was able to do nearly one-half more. Bengal, however, was the most lucrative of all the East India settlements; but such had been the expences of the Mahratta war, that the governor-general had been obliged to contract a very large debt, insomuch, that it was doubtful whether the investments for England should be wholly or partially suspended. Mr Hastings, he said, had in many instances proved himself a very meritorious servant: but he wished that every one of their servants would consider himself as bound in the first place to prove a faithful steward to the company; not to fancy that he was an Alexander or Aurengzebe, and prefer frantic military exploits to the improvement of the trade and commerce of his country.—General Smith observed, that by the evidence produced to the committee, it appeared that there had been a variety of great abuses in India. Sir Elijah Impey, his majesty's chief justice in that country, had so far derogated from the character of a judge, as to accept of a place from the company; by which means he was brought under their controul, and consequently allowed himself to be deprived of that independence which he ought to possess as a judge. Justice had been so partially administered, that several worthy and respectable persons had been imprisoned, some had been ruined, and others died in jail. From all which considerations he moved, that the affairs of the company ought to be taken into consideration by a committee of the whole house. Some hints were thrown out by Mr Dundas, that the territorial possessions in the East ought to be taken from the company entirely, and put under the direction of the crown; but this was opposed by Mr Fox, as furnishing ministers with such ample means of corruption and undue influence, as might overthrow the constitution entirely. For this reason, he thought it would be more prudent to leave the appointment of its own servants to the company; but at the same time to keep a watchful eye over them, in order to be able to punish and remove those who should be found delinquent.

The house having resolved itself into a committee, a motion was made by General Smith, "That Warren Hastings, Esq. governor-general of Bengal, and Sir Elijah Impey, the chief justice, appear to have been concerned, the one in giving, the other in receiving, an office not agreeable to the late act for regulating the company's affairs; which unjustifiable transaction was attended with circumstances of evil tendency and example." Resolutions were also passed for ascertaining more distinctly the powers of the governor-general and council of Bengal; and votes of censure against Laurence Sullivan, Esq. chairman of the East India Company, for having neglected to transmit to India an act for explaining and amending the act for regulating the affairs of the company, and for the relief of certain persons imprisoned at Calcutta. Among the number of this gentleman's transgressions, also, was his imposing an oath of secrecy on Mr Wilkes, one of the company's clerks; and especially his restraining him from giving information to a select committee of the house of commons.

Mr Dundas having made several motions tending to criminate Sir Thomas Rumbold, formerly governor of Bengal, a bill was brought in and passed into a law, for restraining him and Peter Perring, Esq. from going out of the kingdom for the space of one year, for discovering their estates, &c. An address was also presented to the king, requesting him to recal Sir Elijah Impey from India, in order to answer for high crimes and misdemeanours. A number of other resolutions were now passed by the house, in consequence of motions by Mr Dundas, and which were founded on the reports of the secret committee. Among these it was resolved, "That the orders of the court of directors of the East India Company, which have conveyed to their servants abroad a prohibitory condemnation of all schemes of conquest and enlargement of dominion, by prescribing certain rules and boundaries for the operation of their military force, were founded no less in wisdom and policy than in justice and moderation. That every transgression of these orders, without evident necessity, by any of the several governments in India, has been highly reprehensible, and tended in a great degree to weaken the force and influence, and to diminish the influence of the company in those parts. That every interference of the company as a party in the domestic or national quarrels of the country powers, and all new engagements with them in offensive alliance, have been wisely and providentially forbidden by the company in their commands to their administrations in India. That every unnecessary deviation from these rules should be severely reproved and punished. That the maintenance of an inviolable character for moderation, good faith, and scrupulous regard to treaty, ought to have been the simple grounds on which the British government should have endeavoured to establish an extensive influence, superior to that of other Europeans; and that the danger and discredit arising from the forfeiture of this pre-eminence, could not be compensated by the temporary success of any plan of violence and injustice. That should any relaxation take place, without sufficient cause, in those principles of good government on the part of the directors themselves, it would bring upon them, in a heavier degree, the resentment of the legislative power of their country. That the conduct of the company, and their servants in India, in various instances specified, was contrary to

Company. to policy and good faith; the company's ſervants, in their preſidency of Bombay, had been guilty of notorious inſtances of diſobedience to the orders of their employers, particularly in forming an alliance with Ragobah, or Ragonaut Row: that they had undertaken, without any adequate military force, or certainty of a ſufficient revenue, and without proper communication with the ſuperior government upon which they were to depend for ſanction and ſupport, to reinſtate the uſurper above mentioned, and thereby to involve themſelves in a war with the ruling miniſters of the Mahratta ſtate, while Ragobah himſelf was not in the mean time able to give the company any ſecure poſſeſſion of the grants he had made to them for the purchaſe of their aſſiſtance. That it was the opinion of the houſe, that all the diſaſters in which the Britiſh empire in the Eaſt was involved had proceeded from the unjuſtifiable manner in which the Mahrattas had been treated, and the conduct of the Madras preſidency in other reſpects ſpecified. That it is the opinion of this houſe, that it muſt be reckoned among the additional miſchiefs ariſing chiefly from the improvident war with the Mahrattas, that the military force of the Carnatic had been weakened by reinforcements ſent to the Malabar coaſt: that the Bengal government had been under a neceſſity of ſupporting, on their confines, the army of a power confederated againſt them (A): that they had been under the neceſſity of ſuing for the mediation of the ſame power: and ſubmitted to a refuſal, and purchaſed at laſt an uncertain, becauſe apparently an unauthorized, treaty, on moſt extravagant and diſhonourable conditions, with Chimnagee the rajah of Berar's ſon: and finally, that being burdened with the expences of a variety of diſtant expeditions, while their allies were in diſtreſs, and their tributaries under oppreſſion, there was alſo an alarming deficiency in the reſources of revenue and commerce, by the accumulation of their debt, and the reduction of their infeftment. That it was the opinion of the houſe, that an attempt made by the governor-general, in the beginning of January 1781, to form an engagement of alliance, offenſive and defenſive, with the Dutch Eaſt India Company, in the manner ſtated by the proceedings of their council, was unwarranted, impolitic, extravagant, and unjuſt."

Theſe ſevere cenſures extended even to the directors themſelves, whoſe conduct on ſome occaſions was declared to be indefenſible, as well as that of their ſervants and agents. It was alſo reſolved, "That Warren Haſtings, Eſq. governor-general of Bengal, and William Hornſby, Eſq. preſident of the council of Bombay, having, in ſundry inſtances, acted in a manner repugnant to the honour and policy of this nation, and thereby brought great calamities on India, and enormous expences on the India company, it was the duty of the directors to purſue all legal and effectual means for the removal of the ſaid governor general and preſident from their offices, and to recal them to Britain."

The commons having thus ſeriouſly entered into a conſideration of Eaſt India affairs, ſoon found ſtill more abundant reaſon for cenſure. It was diſcovered, that corruption, fraud, and injuſtice had pervaded every department. It had become an object with the ſervants of the company to oppreſs the natives by every poſſible method. They monopoliſed every article of trade, and ſeemed to have no other principle of commerce but lawleſs violence: the court of directors ſent out inſtructions; but for the moſt part without any effect. Though the delegated adminiſtration of India ought to have preſerved the ſtricteſt obedience to that of Britain; yet, being at ſo great a diſtance from the ſeat of ſupreme authority, and being poſſeſſed of endleſs means of abuſe, it had become corrupt in an extreme degree. Inſtead of being ſubſervient to government at home, the adminiſtration of India affected independence. The maxims of Mr Haſtings were arbitrary; and he ſeemed to have no inclination to obey. He treated with ſovereign contempt the authority of the court of directors: and the confuſion produced by the diſputes between them were foſtered by the body of India proprietors, who were diſpoſed to act as a check upon the directors. The neceſſity of new regulations in the government of India was univerſally admitted; and a bill for this purpoſe was accordingly brought in by Mr Dundas. His propoſitions were, that the governor and council of Bengal ſhould have a controuling power and juriſdiction over the inferior preſidencies of India; and he was of opinion that the governor-general ſhould be inveſted with a power to act even againſt the will and opinion of the council, whenever he ſhould imagine that, by ſo doing, he could contribute to the public good; though, in theſe caſes, he alone ſhould be reſponſible for the event. With regard to the inferior governors, though he did not think it proper that they ſhould be authorized to act contrary to the advice of the council, he was of opinion, that they ought to have a right of negativing every propoſition, until application was made to the governor-general and council of Bengal. With regard to the zemindaries and other tenures of land, he obſerved, that when Hindoſtan had been conquered by the Moguls, a tribute was impoſed upon the zemindars; and while they continued to pay this tribute, they accounted themſelves to be the real proprietors and maſters of the lands they poſſeſſed. The people called *ryots*, to whom theſe zemindaries were lent out, conſidered themſelves likewiſe as ſecure in their poſſeſſions while they performed the articles of their reſpective contracts. Of late, however, theſe rights had been infringed; and the Mogul came to conſider himſelf as the abſolute maſter of all the ſoil of Indoſtan; which maxim he was inclined to deſtroy, and erect upon it another, that might ſecure the landholders in their property. He propoſed to ſecure the nabob of Arcot and rajah of Tanjore in their territories, by making an act of parliament in favour of the latter; but was of opinion, that the debts of theſe princes ought not to be too nicely inquired into, as the greateſt part of them originated in corruption. He was clearly of opinion, however, that Governor Haſtings ought to be recall-

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(A) The power here alluded to was Movedajee Boofla, rajah of Berar. See INDOSTAN.

Company. ed; and that ſteps ought to be taken to prevent the court of proprietors from preſuming to act in contradiſtinction to parliament. Lord Cornwallis appeared to be the moſt proper ſucceſſor to Mr Haſtings. His perſonal honour, and that of his anceſtors, were pledges for his good behaviour; and being independent in his fortune, he could have no view of repairing his eſtate out of the ſpoils of India; and from his profeſſion, he could add to the character of governor that of commander in chief; he would not, however, inſiſt on his name being filled up in the bill, as that would reſt more properly with government.

Mr Haſtings was defended by Governor Johnſtone, who endeavoured to ridicule the arguments and propoſals of Mr Dundas. He obſerved, to the honour of the former, that he had been able to conclude a peace with the Mahrattas; and while he enlarged on his talents for negociation, he admired the reſources with which he had ſupplied the expences of the war. It ought to be conſidered that Mr Haſtings was in a ſituation the moſt difficult, and that no man could have ſuſtained it with more fortitude and ability. His enemies had dealt in inſinuation and invective; but when the hour of trial came, they would find that their charges would be refuted with equal eaſe. He was defended alſo by Mr Dempſter, who adviſed the houſe ſeriouſly to think before they paſſed a vote for the removal of Mr Haſtings. His exertions had been extraordinary; and it would then be as ridiculous to ſuperſede him, as it would have been to recal General Elliot, when the Spaniſh batteries were playing againſt Gibraltar. He was not, however, an advocate for all the meaſures of Mr Haſtings; his errors might be numerous; but no cenſure of him ſhould be eſtabliſhed before they were pointed out and explained.

Mr Dundas having now obtained leave to bring in his bill, another was moved for by Sir Henry Fletcher, "That leave be given to bring in a bill to diſcharge and indemnify the united company of merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies, from all damages, intereſts, and loſſes, in reſpect to their not making regular payment of certain ſums due to the public, and to allow farther time to ſuch payment; to enable the company alſo to borrow a certain ſum of money, and to make a dividend for the proprietors of four per cent. at midſummer 1783." He endeavoured to ſhow, that the public had derived very conſiderable advantages from the company; that their dividend had been 8l. 4s. annually during the time of peace, and 7l. 15s. per cent. during war; they were by no means in a ſtate of inſolvency, as ſome members had endeavoured to prove, their preſent application proceeding only from a temporary embarraſſment. A new diſpute took place concerning Mr Haſtings, who was warmly attacked by Mr Burke, and defended by Governor Johnſtone. The former enlarged on the bloodſhed, ravages, and rapacity, which had taken place in India. The eſtabliſhed ſyſtem of the ſervants of the company, he ſaid, was rapine and robbery. The Mahratta war was occaſioned by their refuſal to be robbed; the famine at Madras was occaſioned by the miſconduct of the Engliſh government in India; and he ſet forth in ſtrong colours the manner in which the Indian princes and princeſſes had been plundered. He inſtanced, that Mr Haſtings had raiſed 800,000l. in Bengal by private loan; and uſed it as an argument that the company had ceaſed to exiſt, and that their commerce was nothing more than an inſtrument for procuring immenſe fortunes to individuals, totally deſtitute of conſcience or principle.

All this was excuſed by Governor Johnſtone. He regarded the ſum of 800,000l. as merely trifling, when the number of civil and military ſervants on the Bengal government was conſidered. The famine at Madras was owing to the modes of war which prevailed in the Eaſt; as the enemy there marked their courſe by deſolation. He concluded with cenſuring the manner in which Mr Haſtings had been ſpoken of; and inſiſted that his high reputation ought to have guarded him from ſuch inſults. Mr Burke replied by an intimation of his deſign to impeach Mr Haſtings on his return; whom he called the greateſt delinquent that had ever violated in India the rights of humanity and juſtice.

It was obſerved by Lord John Cavendiſh, that the territorial acquiſitions of the company were a fruitful ſource of grievance; and it would have been more for their advantage to have confined themſelves to their original character of merchants. However, as the territorial acquiſitions had been obtained, it was proper to take means for their preſervation; as otherwiſe they would not revert to the natives, but fall into the hands of our natural enemies the French.

In the houſe of peers the cauſe of the company was ably defended by Earl Fitzwilliam. He maintained, that their ſituation was deſperate, and bankruptcy inevitable, unleſs relief was inſtantly afforded. A report of their being in an inſolvent ſtate had gone abroad, and nothing was better calculated to preſerve and ſupport their credit than a large dividend ſanctioned by act of parliament. The expenditure on their ſettlements had far exceeded their revenue; of conſequence their ſervants had drawn bills, which they were unable to anſwer without a temporary ſupply. Thus the exiſtence of the company might be ſaid to depend on the bill; and he hoped no objections could be raiſed ſtrong enough to deſtroy it.

On the 18th of November 1783, Mr Fox propoſed his celebrated Eaſt India bill, which for ſome time attracted the attention of the nation at large in a very conſiderable degree. By this it was intended to take from the India proprietors and directors the entire adminiſtration of their territorial and commercial affairs. It took from them alſo their houſe in Leadenhall-ſtreet, together with all books, papers, and documents; veſting the entire management, the appointment of all officers and ſervants, the rights of peace and war, and the diſpoſal of the whole revenue, in the hands of certain commiſſioners. Theſe were, in the firſt inſtance, to be appointed by the whole legiſlature, but afterwards by the crown; and were to hold their offices by the ſame tenure as the judges in England, viz. during their good behaviour; and could be removed only by an addreſs from one of the houſes of parliament. They were required to come to a deciſion upon every queſtion within a limited time, or to aſſign a ſpecific reaſon for their delay. They were never to vote by ballot; and, almoſt in every caſe, were to enter the reaſon of their vote in their journals. They were alſo to ſubmit, once every ſix months, an exact ſtate of their accounts

Company. accounts to the court of proprietors; and at the beginning of every ſeſſion, a ſtate of their accounts and eſtabliſhments to both houſes of parliament. Their number was limited to ſeven; but they were to be aſſiſted by a board of nine perſons, each of them poſſeſſed of 2000l. company's ſtock; who, as well as the commiſſioners, were to be appointed in the firſt inſtance by parliament, and ever afterwards by the court of proprietors. They were alſo to be removeable at the pleaſure of any five commiſſioners, and were diſqualified from ſitting in the houſe of commons. The whole ſyſtem of government thus propoſed, was to continue for the ſpace of three or five years.

This was accompani d with another bill, the profeſſed deſign of which was to preclude all arbitrary and deſpotic proceedings from the adminiſtration of the company's territorial poſſeſſions. By this the powers of the governor-general and ſupreme council were aſcertained more exactly than had hitherto been done: it deprived the governor-general of all power of acting independent of his council; proſcribed the delegation of any truſt; and declared every Britiſh power in the Eaſt incompetent to the acquiſition or exchange of any territory in behalf of the company, to the acceding to any treaty of partition, the hiring out of the company's troops, the appointing to office any perſon removed for miſdemeanour, or to the hiring out any property to a civil ſervant of the company. By this alſo monopolies were entirely aboliſhed; and illegal preſents recoverable by any perſon for his ſole benefit. The principal part of the bill, however, related to the zemindars, or native landholders, who were now to be ſecured by every poſſible means in the poſſeſſion of their reſpective inheritances, and defended in all caſes from oppreſſion. Laſtly, a mode was preſented for terminating the diſputes between the nabob of Arcot and the rajah of Tanjore; diſqualifying every perſon in the ſervice of the company from ſitting in the houſe of commons during his continuance in their ſervice, and for a certain ſpecified time after his demiſſion.

During the courſe of the debates on this bill, Mr Fox ſet forth the affairs of the company as in the moſt deſperate ſituation. They had aſked leave, he ſaid, the year before, to borrow 500,000l. upon bonds; had petitioned for 300,000l. in exchequer bills; and for the ſuſpenſion of a demand of 700,000l. due to government for cuſtoms. He took notice alſo, that, according to an act of parliament ſtill in force, the directors could not, by their own authority, accept bills to the amount of more than 300,000l.; under which circumſtances it would no doubt ſurpriſe the houſe to be informed, that bills were now coming over for acceptance to the amount of 2.000,000l. It was evidently, therefore, and indiſpenſably neceſſary, that government ſhould interfere in the affairs of the company to ſave them from certain bankruptcy. He ſtated their actual debt at no leſs than 11,200,000l. while their ſtock in hand did not exceed 3,200,000l. There was therefore a deficiency of 8,000,000l.; a moſt alarming ſum when compared with the company's capital. Unleſs ſpeedily aſſiſted, therefore, they muſt inevitably be ruined; and the ruin of a company of merchants ſo extenſive in their concerns, and of ſuch importance in the eyes of all Europe, could not but give a very ſevere blow to the national credit. On the other hand, the requiſite aſſiſtance was a matter of very extenſive conſideration. It would be abſolutely neceſſary to permit the acceptance of the bills to the above-mentioned amount; and to do this without regulating their affairs, and reforming the abuſes of their government, would only be to throw away the public money. Company.

The conduct of the company's ſervants, and of the company itſelf, was now arraigned by Mr Fox in the moſt ſevere terms; and their miſconducts were pointed out under their following heads:

1. With regard to Mr Haſtings.—The chairman of the committee had moved in the houſe of commons, that it was the duty of the company to recal that gentleman; to which motion the houſe had agreed. In obedience to this reſolution, the directors had agreed that Mr Haſtings ſhould be recalled; but ſuppoſing this to be a matter rather beyond their juriſdiction, they had ſubmitted their determination to a court of proprietors, who reſcinded the reſolution of the directors; and after this the whole affair came to be laid before the houſe of commons. In the mean time every thing was anarchy and confuſion in the Eaſt, owing to this unſettled conduct with regard to the governor; as the whole continent had been made acquainted with the reſolution of the houſe for recalling him, while that of the proprietors for continuing him in his office was kept a ſecret. The proprietors had alſo been guilty of another contradiction in this reſpect, as they had voted their thanks to Mr Haſtings for his conduct in India. Hence Mr Fox was led to comment on the nature of the company's connexions with their ſervants abroad, as well as on the character of the company themſelves. Among the former, he ſaid, there were a few, who, being proprietors themſelves, endeavoured to promote the trade of the company, and increaſe its revenues. The views of the reſt were otherwiſe directed; and from the difference in ſpeculation between the two parties, the former were inclined to ſupport that governor who enabled them to make large dividends; and who, for that reaſon, after having peculated for his own advantage, was obliged to do the ſame for the benefit of the proprietors. The latter, therefore, could not better gratify their wiſhes, than by ſupporting a governor who had in his power ſo many opportunities of providing for his friends.

2. The next charge was againſt the ſervants of the company, whom he accuſed of a regular and ſyſtematic diſobedience to the orders of the proprietors.—The ſupreme council of Bengal, he ſaid, had reſolved, in oppoſition to Mr Haſtings, to ſend two gentlemen, Mr Fowke and Mr Briſtow, the one to reſide with the nabob of Oude, the other at Benares. Mr Haſtings, however, refuſed to ſend them; the directors tranſmitted the moſt poſitive orders to carry the vote of the ſupreme council into execution; but ſtill Mr Haſtings diſobeyed; alleging in his defence, that he could not employ perſons in whom he had no confidence. Afterwards, however, Mr Haſtings ſeemed to contradict himſelf in a very curious manner. He granted Mr Fowke a contract, with a commiſſion of 5 per cent.; which, he obſerved, was a great ſum, and might operate as a temptation to prolong the war.

"But

Company. "But (added he) the entire confidence I have in the integrity and honour of Mr Fowke, amounts to a full and perfect ſecurity on that head."

To this Mr Fox added ſome other inſtances of a ſimilar kind; but though he ſupported theſe and the projected bill with all the argument and eloquence for which he was ſo remarkable, he found it impoſſible to make his ſcheme agreeable to the majority of the houſe. The ſtrongeſt opponent was Mr William Pitt, who inſiſted chiefly on the two following topics. 1. Its infringement, or rather annihilation of the company's charter; and, 2. The new and unconſtitutional influence it tended to create. He owned, indeed, that India ſtood in need of a reform, but not ſuch a one as broke through every principle of juſtice and reaſon. The charter of the company was a fair purchaſe from the public, and an equal compact for reciprocal advantages between the proprietors and the nation at large; but if it was infringed in the manner propoſed by the bill, what ſecurity could other trading companies have that they ſhould not be treated in the ſame manner? nay, what ſecurity could there be for Magna Charta itſelf? The bill, he ſaid, amounted to a confiſcation of property. It had been ſuggeſted, indeed, that it was not a bill of diſfranchiſement, becauſe it did not take from the proprietors their right to an excluſive trade; but this was not the only franchiſe of the proprietors. A freehold might have a franchiſe annexed to it, the latter of which might be taken away, and yet the property of the former remain; in which caſe it could not be denied that the freeholders would have great cauſe to complain. The caſe was exactly parallel with the India ſtock. Perſons poſſeſſed of this to a certain amount, were entitled to a vote upon every important queſtion of the company's affairs; and on this account the purchaſe-money was more conſiderable. But, by the bill in queſtion, this privilege was to be taken away; which plainly amounted to a diſfranchiſement.

The great objection to this bill, however, ſeemed to be a ſuſpicion that it was a ſcheme of Mr Fox to gratify his own perſonal ambition as a miniſter, he being at that time ſecretary of ſtate. On this account he was deſerted even by the patriotic members, who, upon former occaſions, had ſo ſtrenuouſly ſupported his cauſe.—Mr Dundas accuſed him of attempting to create a fourth eſtate in the kingdom, the power and influence of which might overturn the crown and ſubvert the conſtitution of Britain. A petition was preſented from the proprietors, and another from the directors of the company, repreſenting the bill as ſubverſive of their charter, and confiſcating their property, without either charge of delinquency, trial, or conviction. They prayed, therefore, that the acts of delinquency preſumed againſt them might be ſtated in writing, and a reaſonable time allowed them to deliver in their anſwer; and that they might be heard by counſel againſt the bill. About the ſame time the directors gave in a ſtate of the company's affairs, differing in the moſt extraordinary manner from that given by Mr Fox. In this they repreſented the creditor ſide of the account as amounting to 14,311,173l. and they brought themſelves in debtors to the amount of 10,342,692l.; ſo that of conſequence there was a balance in their favour of 3,968,481l. This was vehemently conteſted by the ſecretary, who ſaid he could bring objections to the ſtatement of the directors to the amount of more than 12,000,000l. ſterling. He then entered into a particular diſcuſſion of the articles ſtated in the directors account, and made good his aſſertion. Objections to this method of calculation, however, were made on the part of the company; ſo that nothing could certainly appear to the public but that the company were at that time much diſtreſſed, and would fail entirely unleſs powerfully ſupported by government.

Mr Fox now proceeded to a particular refutation of the arguments brought againſt the bill; in which indeed he diſplayed an aſtoniſhing force of argument and acuteneſs of reaſoning. The objection drawn from the validity of the company's charter, he ſet aſide, by ſhowing that the company had abuſed their power, and that it was therefore neceſſary to take it from them. This he ſaid always had been the caſe, and muſt be the caſe in a free nation; and he brought the example of James II. who, on account of the abuſe of his power, had been deprived of it by the nation at large. The caſe was the ſame with the company. They had made a bad uſe of their power, and therefore the nation at large ought to deprive them of it. It had been objected by the country gentlemen, that the bill augmented the influence of the crown too much; and by Mr Dundas, that it reduced it to nothing. Both theſe objections, he ſaid, were overturned by the circumſtance of making the commiſſioners hold their office only during good behaviour. Thus, when conſcious that they were liable to puniſhment if guilty, but ſecure in caſe they faithfully diſcharged their truſt, they would be liable to no ſeduction, but would execute their functions with glory to themſelves, and for the common good of their country and of mankind. He then drew a compariſon betwixt his own bill and that of Mr Dundas's already mentioned. The bill of the latter, he ſaid, had created a deſpotic authority in one man over ſome millions of his fellow-creatures; not indeed in England, where the remedy againſt oppreſſion was always at hand; but in the Eaſt Indies, where violence, fraud, and miſchief, everywhere prevailed. Thus the bill propoſed by Mr Dundas afforded the moſt extenſive latitude for malverſation, while his own guarded againſt it with every poſſible care; as was inſtanced in its confiding in no integrity; truſting in no character; and annexing reſponſibility not only to every action, but even to the *inaction* of the powers it created.

After having expatiated for a conſiderable time, the ſecretary was ſeconded by Mr Burke, whoſe force of oratory was chiefly directed, as indeed it uſually was when ſpeaking of India affairs, on the monſtrous abuſe of the company's power in that quarter. He affirmed that there was not in India a ſingle prince, ſtate, or potentate, with whom the company had *come into contact*, whom they had not ſold; and there was not a ſingle treaty they had ever made which they had not broken; and that there was not a ſingle prince or ſtate that had ever put any confidence in the company who had not been ruined. With regard to the firſt article, Mr Burke inſtanced the ſale of the Great Mogul himſelf; of the Rohillas; the nabob of Bengal; the polygars of the Mahratta empire; Ragobah, the pretender

Company. tender to that empire; and the ſubah of Decan.—The ſecond article was proved by a review of the tranſactions from the beginning to the end of the Mahratta war. With regard to the third, viz. the ruin of ſuch princes as put any confidence in the company or their ſervants, he deſired them to look into the hiſtory and ſituation of the nabob of Oude. In the year 1779, this country had been viſited by a famine; a calamity which had been known to relax the ſeverity even of the moſt rigorous government; yet in this ſituation the preſident of Bengal had put an abſolute negative upon the repreſentation of the prince; adding, that perhaps expedients might be found for affording him a gradual relief; but their effects muſt be diſtant. This diſtant relief, however, never arrived, and the country was ruined.

Our limits will not allow a particular detail of the charges againſt the company on the one hand, or the defences on the other. In general, it muſt appear, that ſuch ſevere and heavy charges could not be advanced without ſome foundation, though perhaps they may have been conſiderably exaggerated by the orators who brought them. The picture drawn by Mr Burke on this occaſion indeed was ſhocking. "The Arabs, Tartars, and Perſians, had conquered Indoſtan with vaſt effuſion of blood; while the conqueſts of the Engliſh had been acquired by artifice and fraud, rather than by open force. The Aſiatic conquerors, however, had ſoon abated of their ferocity; and the ſhort life of man had been ſufficient to repair the waſte they had occaſioned. But with the Engliſh the caſe had been entirely different. Their conqueſts were ſtill in the ſame ſtate they had been 20 years ago. They had no more ſociety with the people than if they ſtill reſided in England; but, with the view of making fortunes, rolled in one after another, wave after wave; ſo that there was nothing before the eyes of the natives but an endleſs proſpect of new flights of birds of prey and paſſage, with appetites continually renewing for a food that was continually waſting. Every rupee gained by an Engliſhman in India was for ever loſt to that country. With us there were no retributory ſuperſtitions, by which a foundation of charity compenſated, for ages, to the poor, for the injuſtice and rapine of a day. With us no pride erected ſtately monuments, which repaired the miſchiefs pride had occaſioned, and adorned a country out of its own ſpoils. England had erected no churches, no hoſpitals, no palaces, no ſchools (the trifling foundation at Calcutta excepted); England had built no bridges, made no high-roads, cut no navigations, dug no reſervoirs. Every other conqueror of every other deſcription had left ſome monument either of ſtate or beneficence behind him; but were we to be driven out of India this day, nothing would remain to tell that it had been poſſeſſed, during the inglorious period of our dominion, by any thing better than the oran-outang or the tiger!"

All this eloquence, however, was at preſent entirely ineffectual, and the bill was finally rejected: much confuſion and altercation enſued, which terminated in a change of miniſtry and diſſolution of parliament. On the 26th of May 1784 a petition from the company was preſented to the houſe of commons, praying for ſuch relief as the nature of their affairs might ſeem to demand. This was followed on the 24th of June by a bill for allowing the company to divide four per cent. for the half year concluding with midſummer 1784. This having paſſed, after ſome debate, a new bill was propoſed by Mr Pitt for relieving the company in the mean time, and regulating their affairs in time to come. A bill to this purpoſe had been brought in during the laſt ſeſſion of the former parliament by the ſame gentleman, which he wiſhed to bring to a compariſon with that of Mr Fox, of which an account has already been given. In this bill he began with laying it down as a principle, that "the civil and military government of India, or, in other words, the imperial dominion of our territories in the Eaſt, ought to be placed under other controul than that of the merchants in Leadenhall ſtreet; and this controul could be no other than the executive branch of the conſtitution. The commerce of the company, however, ought to be left as free from reſtrictions as poſſible; and, laſtly, capricious effects from the government of India upon the conſtitution of Britain were to be carefully avoided. A controul in the executive branch of the legiſlature over the government of India had indeed been eſtabliſhed by the regulation bill of 1773; but the former interference of miniſters had not been beneficial, becauſe it had not been active and vigilant. He now propoſed, therefore, that a board ſhould be inſtituted expreſsly for the purpoſe. This board was to be appointed by the king, and to conſiſt of the ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, the chancellor of the exchequer, and a certain number of the privy council. To this board the diſpatches of the company were to be ſubmitted, and were not to be ſent to India until they were counterſigned by them. To prevent queſtions concerning the commercial and political concerns of the company, it was propoſed, that the diſpatches upon the former ſubject ſhould be ſubmitted to the board; and that, in caſe of any difference, an appeal ſhould be made to the king in council. Though he (Mr Pitt) had not thought proper to accept of the propoſal of the company to yield the appointment of foreign councils to the crown, he was nevertheleſs clearly of opinion, that the commander in chief ought to be appointed by the king. He propoſed alſo that this commander ſhould have a vote in council next to the preſident; that the king ſhould be empowered to beſtow the reverſion of his office; that the king might recal the governor-general, the preſidents, and any members of their councils. He yielded the appointment of all officers, with the ſingle exception he had ſtated, to the court of directors, ſubject, however, to the approbation of the king; and that, in caſe of a negative, the directors ſhould proceed to a ſecond choice, and ſo on. He deprived the court of proprietors of the privilege of reſcinding or altering the proceedings of the court of directors: and with reſpect to the foreign government, he was of opinion, that their authority ſhould compriſe in it a conſiderable diſcretion, accompanied with the reſtraint of reſponſibility. He propoſed, that there ſhould be a reviſion of the eſtabliſhment in India with a view to retrenchments; that appointments ſhould take place by gradation; and that a new and ſummary tribunal ſhould be erected for the trial of offences committed in that country. With regard to the zemindaries, though

Company. though he could not help paying a compliment to Mr Fox, on his intention of restoring them to their proper owners, he yet thought that a general and indiscriminate restitution was as bad as an indiscriminate confiscation. He therefore proposed that an inquiry should be instituted for the purpose of restoring such as had been irregularly and unjustly deprived, and that they should in time to come be secured against violence.

In the bill of 1784 few alterations were made; and these uniformly tended to enlarge the powers of the board of controul. They were permitted, in cases of emergency, to concert original measures, as well as to revise, correct, and alter those of the directors. In matters relative to peace or war, where secrecy was a principal object, they were allowed to send their orders directly to India, without any communication with the directors; to the commander in chief without any communication with the presidencies; and the number of persons constituting the different councils of Bengal, Fort St George, and Bombay, was determined.—The governor-general and council of Bengal were to have an absolute power to issue orders to the inferior presidencies, in such cases as did not interfere with the directions already received from Britain; adding a power of suspension in case of disobedience. The supreme council were forbidden, unless any of the Indian princes should have first commenced or meditated hostilities, to enter upon war, or form an offensive treaty, without orders from home. The inferior councils were forbidden in all cases to form alliances; and in cases of urgency, were commanded to insert a provisional clause, rendering the permanency of the alliance dependent on the confirmation of the governor-general.

Various salutary regulations were proposed concerning the behaviour of the company's servants, against whom so great complaints had been made. Inquiry was ordered to be made by the different presidencies into the expulsions that might have been made of any of the hereditary farmers, and of the oppressive rents and contributions that might have been extorted from them; and measures were directed to be taken for their relief and future tranquillity. A similar examination was ordered into the different establishments in the Indian settlements; a report of which was to be laid annually before parliament. The company were prohibited from sending out a greater number of cadets or writers than what were absolutely necessary; and it was likewise provided, that the age of such as were sent out, should not be less than 15, nor more than 22 years. It was likewise provided, that promotions should be made in the order of seniority, unless in extraordinary cases; for which the presidencies should make themselves specifically responsible. Crimes committed by English subjects in any part of India, were made amenable to every British court of justice, in the same manner as if they had been committed in Britain. Presents, unless such as were absolutely ceremonial, or given to a counsellor at law, a physician, a surgeon, or a chaplain, were absolutely prohibited, under the penalty of confiscation of the present, and an additional fine at the discretion of the court. Disobedience of orders, unless absolutely necessary, and pecuniary transactions prejudicial to the interests of the company, were declared to be high crimes and misdemeanors. The company were forbidden to interfere in favour of any person legally convicted of any of the above crimes, or to employ him in their service for ever. The governors of the different presidencies were also permitted to imprison any person suspected of illicit correspondence, and were ordered to send them to England with all convenient speed. Every person serving, or who should hereafter serve in India, was also required, on his return to England, to give an exact account, upon oath, to the court of exchequer, of his property, within two months after his arrival; one copy of which was to be kept in the court of exchequer, and the other at the India-house. The board of controul, the court of directors, or any three of the proprietors whose stock should amount together to 1000l. were allowed to move the court of exchequer to examine the validity of the account. In case of an apparently well-founded accusation, the court of exchequer were allowed to examine the party upon oath, and even to imprison him until the interrogatories proposed to him should be answered. The whole property of a person who should neglect to give in such an account within the time limited, or who should have been guilty of a misrepresentation in that account to the amount of 2000l. sterling, was ordered to be confiscated; ten per cent. to be paid to the accuser, and the remainder to be equally divided between the public and the company. Every person who had once been employed in India, but had afterwards resided in Europe for five years, unless such residence had been expressly on account of his health, was declared incapable of ever being sent out to India again.

As a farther curb on the company's servants, the attorney-general or court of directors was authorized to file an information in the court of king's bench against any person for crimes committed in India. That court was empowered also to imprison or admit the accused to bail immediately. It was then ordered, that within 30 days a certain number of peers should be chosen by the house of lords, and of the members of the house of commons by that house, to constitute a court for the trial of the accused. The court was finally to consist of three judges appointed by the crown, four peers, and six members of the house of commons; and the accused had a right to a peremptory challenge. From this court there was no appeal; and it was empowered to adjudge the party incapable of ever serving the company; to punish by fine or imprisonment; and in order to proportion the fine to the property of the convict, the court of exchequer might at the requisition of the attorney-general, or of the company, examine him upon oath concerning the sum he was worth. A refusal to answer was to be punished with confiscation of property, and imprisonment during pleasure.

With regard to the treatment of delinquents in India, Mr Pitt observed, that at that time we had it not in our power to punish them. Either a new process must therefore be instituted, or offences, equally shocking to humanity, and contrary to every principle of religion and justice, must be permitted to continue unchecked. Every person therefore who went hereafter, would know the predicament in which he stood; and would understand, that by so doing he agreed to give up some of the most valuable privileges of an Englishman:

man: yet in this he would do no more than a very numerous and honourable body of men, the military, did daily, without the leaſt heſitation, or the ſmalleſt impeachment of their character.

This bill, ſo tremendous in its appearance to the company's ſervants, was vehemently oppoſed by the minority. Mr Francis obſerved, that it went upon two principles, viz. the abuſe of power abroad, and the want of it at home. To remedy theſe, Mr Pitt had propoſed to augment the power abroad, and to diminiſh that at home. He condemned the unlimited power of the commiſſioners, and even pretended to ſuppoſe that there muſt have been ſome miſtake in the ſtructure of the clauſe; it being impoſſible to think that it was intended to ſet aſide the directors at home and the government abroad, in order to throw the whole power into the hands of a military commander. Though he approved of the clauſe by which ſchemes of conqueſt and extenſion of territory were condemned, he remarked, that it was eſſentially defective in other reſpects; as alluding to facts and offences which were not deſcribed, and to criminals whom, ſo far from puniſhing, it did not venture to deſcribe. With reſpect to the affair of preſents, he confeſſed that his opinion was rather ſingular. He was for an unlimited prohibition to men in high ſtations; but in the ordinary tranſactions of buſineſs, he was of opinion that they were uſeful, without giving room for any juſt apprehenſions. The government of India, as it was now conſtituted, was a government of favour, and not of juſtice; and nothing would be done for the natives unleſs the perſons who forward their affairs were gratified. In the mean time, however, the exception in favour of preſents of ceremony was founded upon ideas which he knew to be fallacious, and was even calculated to render the prohibition itſelf uſeleſs and ineffectual. For the purpoſe of receiving preſents of ceremony, all occaſions would be ſufficiently ſolemn. He warmly cenſured alſo the power of impriſonment given to the reſpective preſidencies, and he condemned the inſtitution of the new court of judicature as unneceſſary, arbitrary, and dangerous.

By Mr Fox the bill was ſo highly diſapproved of, that he objected to the houſe going into a committee upon it. He endeavoured to ſhow, that inſtead of diminiſhing, it was calculated to increaſe the calamities of the Eaſt; and inſtead of reforming, to perpetuate the abuſes ſo much complained of. The board of controul, he ſaid, provided for a weak government at home by a diviſion of power; and if there were a receipt or a noſtrum for making a weak government, it was by giving the power of contriving meaſures to one, and the nomination of the perſons who were to execute them to another. The negative given to the commiſſioners operated as a complete annihilation of the company, and the chartered rights ſo much vaunted of. The bill was a ſcheme of dark and deluſive art, and took away the rights of the company by ſlow and gradual ſap. The firſt ſtep was originally to contrive meaſures without the knowledge of the company; and the next, to convey orders ſecretly to India, at the very time perhaps that the commiſſioners were openly giving countenance to orders of a quite different tendency ſent from the directors. With regard to the new tribunal, he conſidered it as in truth a ſcreen for delinquents; ſince no man was to be tried but on the accuſation of the company or of the attorney-general; in which caſe he had only to conciliate government in order to remain in perfect ſecurity.

The oppoſition of Mr Fox's party againſt this bill proved as fruitleſs as their efforts had been in favour of the other. The houſe divided on the ſpeaker's leaving the chair; when the motion was carried by a majority of 215. Still, however, all parts of the bill were warmly debated. In the courſe of converſation upon this ſubject, Mr Dempſter expreſſed a wiſh that the king could be requeſted to ſend over one of his ſons to become ſovereign of that country. We might then enter into a federal union, and enjoy all the benefits that could be derived from the inhabitants of the Eaſt by Europeans, viz. thoſe of commerce. The clauſes relative to the native princes and hereditary farmers were all withdrawn at the motion of Mr Dundas; and under the head of preſents, the exception in favour of thoſe of ceremony was withdrawn. That clauſe, which inſiſted on all perſons returning from India to give an account of the value of their eſtates upon oath, was ſeverely cenſured by Mr Dempſter and Mr Eden; and after ſome debate was entirely withdrawn, as was alſo the idea of making the perſon take the oath when required by the board of controul. Mr Pitt then propoſed, that perſons who had paſſed five years in India, and accumulated no more than 5000l. for that time, or double that ſum for the next five years, ſhould be exempted from all proſecutions on the ſcore of their fortunes. But on a ſuggeſtion by Mr Atkinſon, that, in caſe of ſickneſs, it might not be practicable for a perſon arriving from India to give in an account upon oath in the ſpace of two months; on which ſuggeſtion a power was granted to the court of exchequer for extending the term from time to time as they ſhould think proper. It had been the original idea of the chancellor, that this juriſdiction ſhould take place in twelve months; and it had been objected, that thus perſons would be deprived of the trial by jury, without time being granted them to chooſe whether they would ſubmit to the condition. Mr Pitt now moved, that no account upon oath ſhould be required of any perſon who ſhould arrive from India before the firſt of January 1787. This amendment was likewiſe cenſured by oppoſition, as holding out an indemnity to peculators, and a warning for them to return within the aſſigned period. It was remarked by Mr Sheridan, that by the bill before the houſe, a perſon who took the oath would be liable all his lifetime to a proſecution for perjury. He could therefore make no ſettlement of his fortune; he could not ſell or mortgage his eſtate, as nobody would have any thing to do with a property which was ſtill liable to conteſt and forfeiture. This repreſentation produced another amendment, limiting the commencement of a proſecution to the period of three years. The clauſe prohibiting the return of any perſon to India under certain conditions, was alſo mitigated by two amendments from the chancellor; one of them exempting the officers of the king from its operation; and the other permitting the reſtoration of any perſon with the conſent of the directors, and three-fourths of the court of proprietors.

With theſe amendments, the bill finally paſſed the houſe

Company. house of commons on the 28th of July. On being carried up to the house of lords, it met with a very vigorous opposition; the principal speakers against it being Lord Stormont and the Earl of Carlisle. The former animadverted upon the principle of seniority established by it; which he said was particularly ill-suited to the critical posture of affairs and our present situation in India; and he asserted, that had such a clause been in effect at the time that Lord Clive first entered into the company's service, there would not have been an inch of the territorial possessions at present belonging to this country. It would damp the ardour of emulation, check the rising spirit of the youth now in Asia, and that at a time when the most extraordinary talents were necessary to raise us from our inauspicious and ruined condition. He objected also to the power of recal in the board of controul; which, he said, was by no means a sufficient check upon the company's servants in India. The distance of time and place, he said, were so great, that a recal from India could not have the least effect. But these remonstrances had very little weight with the house: the bill being finally passed on the 9th of August.

Some years after this, however, a declaratory law was found necessary, in consequence of a controversy which had arisen between the board of controul and the company. It had been resolved, in the month of October 1787, when his majesty had reason to be alarmed, and to look with more than common anxiety to the safety and preservation of every part of the British dominions, to send out four additional regiments for the better protection of our Indian possessions; nor was the design taken up as a temporary, but with a view to a permanent, establishment of his majesty's troops in India. At that time, no unwillingness to receive the regiments on board the company's ships, and provide for their support in India, had been intimated by the court of directors; but, on the contrary, the measure had been considered as a wise one, and the suggestion of it had given universal satisfaction. Since, however, the threatening storm had been dispersed, far different sentiments prevailed. Some of the directors, at least, were of opinion, that unless they made a requisition to government for further military assistance, they had it in their option to bear, or to refuse to bear, the expence of any additional regiments of his majesty's army which might be sent to India; and this opinion seemed to be, in a great measure, grounded on the act of 1781, by which the East India Company were bound to pay for such of his majesty's troops, as had, by their requisition, been sent to India. This idea had been much agitated without doors, and the directors had thought proper to consult different counsel of eminence on the subject.

In this business two questions naturally arose:—First, Whether the king had a right to send his troops to any part of his dominions? and, secondly, If he sent them to India, who ought to defray the expence? That his majesty had an undoubted right, by his royal prerogative, to direct the distribution of his army, no one could, with any colour of reason, dispute. The only point, therefore, which offered itself for discussion was, whether, if his majesty, by virtue of his prerogative, thought proper to send four additional regiments to India, the expence of sending them, and their support, ought to be provided for out of the revenues of India, which they protected? It was certainly the opinion of ministers, that by the act of 1784, the authority and power of the court of directors, touching the military and political concerns of India, and also the collection, management, and application of the revenues of the territorial possessions, was transferred to the board of controul, which might direct the appropriation of these revenues in the manner that to them should appear to be most for the public advantage; but as doubts had been entertained by others, and the opinions of counsel, confirming those doubts, had been taken, all of which had gone abroad into the world, it was considered as a necessary measure to call upon the different branches of the legislature to remove those doubts in the most effectual way by a bill. It was certainly very evident, that, on the present occasion, the four regiments might, on board the company's ships, be sent out to India at a very inconsiderable expence; whereas, if transports had been specially provided for that purpose, the expence must have been enormous. To oblige the company, therefore, to pay the expence out of their Indian revenues, as had already been intimated to them by the commissioners of controul, the chancellor of the exchequer moved, on the 5th of February 1788, "That leave be given to bring in a bill for removing any doubts respecting the power of the commissioners for the affairs of India."

In explanation of this bill, and in answer to the remarks of opposition, Mr Pitt desired to remind the house that he had provoked the discussion of the bill, and had earnestly solicited them to bring it to the test of the most severe and scrupulous investigation. He found that it would be disputed, whether by the act of 1784, the board of controul had any right of superintendence over the revenue. Would it be contended that parliament meant to leave the finances in the hands of the company, who had been declared unfit to be trusted with them? Was it likely, that, when they provided for the better management of the political and military concerns, they had paid no attention to the circumstance upon which these concerns inseparably depended? The board of controul had already proceeded to reduce the enormous establishments in India; their right of interference in that respect had never been questioned; and what indeed would be the consequence of denying this right? The court of directors, if they had it in their power, as the expiration of their charter drew near, and it was doubtful whether their monopoly would be renewed, would certainly make it their first object to swell the amount of their imports, and would neglect the care of the territorial and political state of India. The duty of administration was to look, first, to the prosperity and happiness of the natives; secondly, to the security of the territorial possessions; thirdly, to the discharge of the debts due to the persons who had advanced their money, and enabled the company to struggle with their late difficulties; and, in the last place, to the commercial benefit of the proprietors. Was it probable that the court of directors would act upon that scale? Could it have been intended to confide in their discretion? It had been said, that the powers attributed to the

the board of controul were the ſame in ſubſtance as had before been given to the ſecretaries of ſtate and the lords of the treaſury. But the fact was otherwiſe. The court of directors had been obliged to communicate their diſpatches previous to their going to India; but there was no obligation upon the ſecretary of ſtate to give any directions concerning them. The reſponſibility had ordinarily reſted, under the former government, with the court of directors; under the preſent it was wholly veſted with the board of controul.

An objection had been ſtated, that the declaratory bill conveyed to the king the power of maintaining an army without the conſent of parliament. No propoſition (Mr Pitt obſerved) could be more adverſe to his intentions than that which was thus imputed to him. But in reality the troops in queſtion had already been recogniſed by parliament when they voted the eſtimate for raiſing them; and the number of king's regiments ſerving in India would always be to be aſcertained by the company belonging to each, which remained in England for the purpoſe of recruiting, and the expence of which would be to be provided for by parliament.

Mr Pitt acknowledged that it had been the object of the act of 1784 to aſſume the power of ſuperintendence and controul, without aſſuming the power of patronage. In the preſent bill he declared that every thing had been done which his underſtanding had ſuggeſted for the diminution of patronage. The regiments in queſtion belonged to the crown; and of courſe it could not be ſuppoſed that the ſovereign could entirely depart from his prerogative of naming his own officers. But the king had acted with the moſt gracious attention to the company, and to the merits of the officers who had grown gray in their ſervice; having relinquiſhed nearly half the patronage of the regiments, and leaving the diſpoſal of theſe commiſſions to the court of directors. The company indeed alleged that they had 600 officers unemployed; but the king could not forget that he had 2800 officers upon half-pay, not perhaps more meritorious, but certainly not leſs ſo, than thoſe in the company's ſervice, and many of whom had actually ſerved with diſtinction in India. Such had been the forbearance he had thought it proper to exerciſe upon the ſubject of patronage. But if, by the objection that had been ſtated, it was intended to refer to the great political patronage, this he did not deny that he had at all times intended to aſſume. Men who were reſponſible for the government of a country, ought undoubtedly to have the appointment of thoſe whom they were to entruſt with the execution of their orders. But it would be admitted that the patronage left to the company was very conſiderable, when the great extent of their military eſtabliſhment was properly recollected. Mr Pitt added, that the objections that were ſtated on this head would poſſibly throw difficulties in the way of the conſolidation of the two armies in India; an object on many accounts deſirable, and which in ſome way or other muſt be attempted. If it ſhould be thought adviſable to make the whole army royal, then undoubtedly the patronage of the crown would be greatly increaſed. He believed, however, that the meaſure was neceſſary; and there was ſcarcely any thing to which he would not aſſent, to remove the apprehenſions of the nation reſpecting the undue uſe of this patronage. For the bill now before the houſe, Mr Pitt profeſſed himſelf ready to propoſe clauſes that ſhould annihilate every ſuſpicion of danger.

The ſpeech of Mr Pitt produced a favourable effect upon the country gentlemen; and the clauſes which he had alluded to being moved, were received without any debate. Theſe provided, That no king's troops, beyond the number which was now propoſed, ſhould be ſent to India under the authority of any exiſting law: That no increaſe of ſalary ſhould be given to any of the ſervants of the company, without the diſpatches for that purpoſe being laid before both houſes of parliament thirty days previous to their being ſent; and that no gratuity ſhould be given, the propoſal for which did not originate with the court of directors. A further clauſe was added to theſe by the miniſter, which had not preciſely the ſame object: it directed, that an account of the revenues and diſburſements of the company ſhould be laid before parliament at a certain aſſigned period in the courſe of every year.

The bill was carried up to the houſe of lords on the 14th of March, read a firſt time on the following day, which was Saturday, and propoſed for a ſecond reading on the enſuing Monday. This precipitation was made the ſubject of a petition, offered by certain proprietors, and preſented to the houſe by the duke of Norfolk, in which they requeſted a delay of three days, till a general meeting could be held of the proprietors of the Eaſt India Company. To this ſuggeſtion it was objected by Lord Thurlow and Lord Hawkeſbury, that the ſhips of the Eaſt India Company were now detained in port at the enormous expence of three or four hundred pounds per diem. By Lord Stormont and Lord Loughborough it was replied, that no expence, however great, ought to weigh in conſideration of the preſent queſtion. The bill decided upon a matter of private right, and parliament could not juſtly refuſe to hear the petitioners. The houſe divided upon the queſtion, contents 32, not-contents 75. A motion of Lord Porcheſter was rejected by a ſimilar majority, for referring a queſtion to the twelve judges reſpecting the true meaning and intent of the act of 1784.

The duke of Richmond ſaid, that he was peculiarly circumſtanced on the preſent occaſion, ſince he had never been pleaſed with any of the bills for the government of India that had yet been brought into parliament. He had ever been of opinion, that the concerns of the Eaſt were truſted in the beſt hands when they were veſted in the company itſelf. He had oppoſed the bill of 1783, becauſe it flagrantly violated the charter of the company, and placed an immenſe power in the hands of a commiſſion, that was not reſponſible, ſo far as he could find, either to the king or the parliament. He had oppoſed the act of 1784, becauſe it gave to the crown an enormous addition of power. But he could not admit that the act was in any degree ſo violent and deſpotical as the bill which preceded it. The declaratory meaſure now under conſideration muſt neceſſarily have his complete approbation. It conſiſted of two diſtinct parts; its expoſition of the act of 1784, and certain enacting clauſes

Company. containing checks and restraints upon the extensive patronage that the government of the East naturally gave. To the former part he must inevitably agree. That the act of 1784 gave to the board of controul complete authority, had always been his opinion. For that reason he had opposed it; but entertaining that opinion, he must justify the present bill, which in his mind was a true declaration of the fact. He could not but equally approve of the restraints that were proposed upon the exercise of patronage. Patronage was inseparable from power. But when he saw the industry with which it was limited, and ministers were tied down from the abuse of it; when he saw that it was not to be used otherwise than for the good of the service, he could not view the present measure with the same jealousy with which he was accustomed to regard propositions for extending the power of the crown.

The bill, however, underwent a severe discussion in this as it had done in the other house; but at length passed.

In May following a petition was presented to the house of commons by the company, stating certain pecuniary embarrassments which they apprehended to take place on the 1st of March 1790, owing to the arrears of the war, to the government claim of 500,000l. to the debt incurred in China, and to the advances necessary to be made for the purposes of the China trade. In compliance with their petition Mr Pitt moved on the following day that they should be empowered to borrow a sum not exceeding 1,200,000l. He at the same time observed, that in all probability the company in 1791 would have upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling more than sufficient to discharge their debts. The measure was carried through both houses without opposition.

3. *Hudson's Bay Company.* The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay abound with animals whose furs and skins are excellent, being far superior in quality to those found in less northerly regions. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to themselves. The company employ four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French, in May 1782, took and destroyed these forts, and the settlements, &c. valued at 500,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3734l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent of which we have the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship too happens to be in many respects so deficient that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage. These circumstances tend to prove incontestably the immense benefit that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade so advantageous now as it was before we got possession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador has been directed towards the fishery, the annual produce of which exceeds 49,000l.

The above are the principal trading companies presently subsisting in Great Britain; but to the number might have been added one of vast importance, the *Scotch Darien Company*, had it not been for the crooked and pusillanimous policy of the English ministry at the time. For an account of which, see the article DARIEN.

Greenland COMPANY. See GREENLAND.

Banking COMPANIES. See BANK.

Of establishments similar to the above in other countries, the following belonging to the Dutch and French, may be mentioned as the most important.

I. DUTCH Companies. 1. Their East India company had its rise in the midst of the struggle which that people had for their liberty: for the Spaniards having forbidden all commerce with them, and shut up all their ports, necessity inspired some Zealanders to seek a north-east passage to China.

This enterprise proving unsuccessful to three several armaments in 1594, 1595, and 1596, a second company was formed, under the name of the *Company of Remote Parts;* which, in 1597, took the ordinary route of the Portuguese to the Indies, and returned in two years and a half's time with little gain but good hopes.

This company, and a new one just established at Amsterdam, being united, equipped other fleets; and these occasioned other companies at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, in Zealand, &c. insomuch that the states soon began to apprehend they might be prejudicial to each other. Under this concern, they called all the directors of the several companies together, who all consented to an union, the treaty whereof was confirmed by the states in 1602; a very remarkable epocha, as being that of the most solid and celebrated establishment of commerce that ever was in the world.

Its first capital was six million six hundred thousand guilders. It had sixty directors, divided into several chambers; twenty in that of Amsterdam, twelve in that of Zealand, fourteen in that of Delft and Rotterdam, and a like number in those at Sluys and Horn. As each grant expires, the company is obliged to procure a new one, which it has already done five times since the first, paying a considerable sum each time. The last application was in 1773, when the company, after stating that its trade had declined, solicited the states-general to grant a diminution of the sum formerly paid for the renewal of the charter. Upon this representation their high mightinesses, in order to have time to inquire into the matter, prolonged the charter

charter for three years, upon the old eſtabliſhment; and finding, upon examination, that the company had really ſuſtained great loſſes, and its trade conſiderably declined, they acted with the ſpirit of a wiſe commercial commonwealth, by complying with the company's requeſt. They, therefore, in 1776, granted them a new charter for 30 years, on the ſame terms as the former, on the immediate payment of 2,000,000 of florins, inſtead of 3,000,000 which they paid before, and the ſum of 360,000 florins yearly; which annual payment they were allowed to make either in money or merchandiſe. In conſequence of this indulgence, the ſtock of the company roſe in a ſhort time no leſs than 19 per cent.

Their factories, reſidences, &c. in the Eaſt Indies, are very numerous; reaching from the Perſian gulf to the coaſt of China: the principal is that of Batavia, the centre of their commerce; here reſides their general, with the ſtate and ſplendour of a ſovereign prince; making war and peace with the eaſtern kings and emperors at pleaſure.

The other more conſiderable factories are, Taiouam on the coaſt of China, Nangiſac in Japan, Malacca, Surat, Amboyna, Banda, Siam, Moluccas, &c. ſeveral on the coaſt of Coromandel, and at Iſpahan, Cape of Good Hope, &c.: in all, they number 40 factories and 25 fortreſſes. But the whole are now in the hands of the Britiſh.

2. Their *Weſt India Company* was eſtabliſhed in 1621, with an excluſive privilege to trade 24 years along the coaſts of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; and in America from the ſouth point of Newfoundland, through the ſtraits of Magellan, that of Le Maire, or others, to the ſtraits of Anian, both in the North and South ſea. The directors are divided into five chambers (as in the Eaſt India Company), out of which 19 are choſen for the general direction of affairs. In 1647, the company renewed its grant for 25 years; but it was ſcarce able to hold out the term, on account of its great loſſes and expences in taking the bay of Todos los Santos, Fernambuc, and the greateſt part of Braſil, from the Portugueſe. The weakneſs of this company, which had ſeveral times in vain attempted to be joined to that of the Eaſt Indies, occaſioned its diſſolution at the expiration of its grant.

In 1674, a new company, compoſed of the ancient proprietors and their creditors, was ſettled in the ſame rights and eſtabliſhment with the former; and ſtill ſubſiſts, though conſiderably decayed. Their firſt capital was about ſix millions of florins. Its principal eſtabliſhments are, one at Cape Verd, another on the Gold Coaſt of Africa, at Tobago, Curaſſao, &c. in America.

II. French Companies. 1. Their *Eaſt India Company* was eſtabliſhed in 1664, with an excluſive privilege to trade for 50 years in all the ſeas of the Eaſt Indies and South ſea. No adventurer to be admitted without 1000 livres in ſtock; and foreigners who have 20,000 livres in ſtock to be reputed regnicoles.

The patent grants them the iſland of Madagaſcar; and the king to be at one-fifth of the expence of the three firſt armaments, without intereſt; the principal to be refunded in ten years; or, if the company find it loſes on the whole, the loſs to fall on the king's ſide.

The capital fund of the company, which was moſtly furniſhed by the king, was ſeven or eight millions of livres, but was to have been fifteen millions.

In effect, though no means were wanting to ſupport the company, yet it ſtill drooped and ſtill ſtruggled; till having ſubſiſted ten years without any change in its form, and being no longer able to diſcharge its engagements, there were new regulations concerted, but to little purpoſe. At length, things not being diſpoſed for a new Eaſt India Company, nor much good to be expected from the old one, in 1708 the miniſter allowed the directors to treat with the rich traders of St Malo, and reſign to them their privileges under certain conditions. In the hands of theſe laſt, the company began to flouriſh. See *India Company*, below.

Its chief factory was at Pondicherry, on the coaſt of Coromandel. This was the reſidence of the director-general. The other factories were inconſiderable. The merchandiſes which the company brought into France were, ſilks, cottons, ſpices, coffee, rice, ſaltpetre; ſeveral kinds of gums and drugs, woods, wax, printed calicoes, muſlins, &c.

2. Their *Weſt India Company* was eſtabliſhed in 1664. Their charter gave them the property and ſeignory of Canada, Acadia, the Antilles iſlands, iſle of Cayenne, and the Terra Firma of America, from the river of the Amazons to that of Oroonoko; with an excluſive privilege for the commerce of thoſe places, as alſo of Senegal and the coaſts of Guinea, for 40 years, only paying half the duties. The ſtock of the company was ſo conſiderable, that in leſs than ſix months 45 veſſels were equipped; with which they took poſſeſſion of all the places in their grant, and ſettled a commerce: yet this only ſubſiſted nine years. In 1674, the grant was revoked, and the countries above reunited to the king's dominions as before: the king reimburſing the actions of the adventurers. This revocation was owing partly to the poverty of the company, occaſioned by its loſſes in the wars with England, which had neceſſitated it to borrow above a million, and even to alienate its excluſive privilege for the coaſts of Guinea: and partly to its having in good meaſure anſwered its end: which was to recover the commerce of the Weſt Indies from the Dutch, who had torn it from them: for the French merchants, being now accuſtomed to traffic to the Antilles, by permiſſion of the company, were ſo attached to it, that it was not doubted they would ſupport the commerce after the diſſolution of the company.

3. Their *Miſſiſſippi Company* was firſt eſtabliſhed in 1684 in favour of the Chevalier de la Salle; who having projected it in 1660, and being appointed governor of the fort of Frontignac at the mouth of that river, travelled over the country in the year 1683, and returned to France to ſolicit the eſtabliſhment. This obtained, he ſet ſail for his new colony with four veſſels laden with inhabitants, &c. but entering the gulf of Mexico, he did not, it ſeems, know the river that had coſt him ſo much fatigue, but ſettled on another river unknown, where his colony periſhed by degrees; ſo that in 1685 there were not 100 perſons remaining. Making ſeveral expeditions to find the Miſ-

ſiſſippi,

Company. ſiſſippi, he was killed in one of them by a party who mutinied againſt him; whereupon the colony was diſperſed and loſt. M. Hiberville afterwards ſucceeded better. He found the Miſſiſſippi, built a fort, and ſettled a French colony there; but he being poiſoned, it is ſaid, by the intrigues of the Spaniards, who feared ſuch a neighbour, in 1712 M. Crozat had the whole property of trading to the French territories called *Louiſiana* granted him for 15 years.

4. *Company of the Weſt.* In 1717, the Sieur Crozat ſurrendered this grant; and in the ſame year a new company was erected under the title of *Company of the Weſt:* to which, beſides every thing granted to the former company, was added the commerce of beaver, enjoyed by the Canada company from the year 1706, but expiring in 1717. In this eſtabliſhment, an equal view was had to the finances and the commerce of the nation; and, accordingly, part of the conditions of its eſtabliſhment regarded the ſettling a colony, a trade, &c.; the other the vending part of the bills, called *bills of ſtate*, which could no longer ſubſiſt on their preſent footing. The former are no more than are uſual in ſuch eſtabliſhments: for the latter, the actions are fixed at 500 livres, each payable in bills of ſtate; the actions to be eſteemed as merchandiſe, and in that quality to be bought, ſold, and trafficked. The bills of ſtate, which make the fund of the actions, to be converted into yearly revenue. To put the finiſhing hand to the company, in 1717, its fund was fixed at an hundred millions of livres; which being filled, the caſh was ſhut up.

5. *India Company.* The junction of the former company with that of Canada was immediately followed by its union with that of Senegal, both in the year 1718, by an arret of council: which at the ſame time granted the new company the commerce of beavers, and made it miſtreſs of the negro or Guinea trade to the French colonies in America.

Nothing was now wanting to its perfection but an union with the Eaſt India company, and with thoſe of China and St Domingo; which was effected, with the two firſt in 1719, and with the third in 1720. This union of the Eaſt India and China company with the company of the Weſt, occaſioned an alteration of the name; and it was henceforth called the *India Company.*

The reaſons of the union were, the inability of the two former to carry on their commerce; the immenſe debts they had contracted in the Indies, eſpecially the Eaſt Company, complaints whereof had been ſent to court by the Indians, which diſcredited the company ſo that they durſt not appear any longer at Surat; the little care they took to diſcharge their engagements; and their having transferred their privilege to the private traders of St Malo, in conſideration of a tenth in the profits of the returns of their ſhips.

The ancient actions of the company of the Weſt, which were not at par when this engraftment was projected, before it was completed, were riſen to 300 per cent.; which unexpected ſucceſs gave occaſion to conclude the new actions of the united companies would not bear leſs credit. The concourſe of ſubſcribers was ſo great, that in a month's time there were above fifty millions ſubſcribed for; the firſt twenty-five million actions which were granted to the India company, beyond the hundred millions of ſtock allowed the company of the Weſt, being filled as ſoon as the books were opened; to ſatisfy the earneſtneſs of the ſubſcribers, the ſtock was increaſed by ſeveral arrets to three hundred millions. Credit ſtill increaſing, the new actions roſe to 1200 per cent. and thoſe of the ancient company of the Weſt to 1900 per cent.; an exorbitant price, to which no other company ever roſe. Its condition was now ſo flouriſhing, that in 1719 it offered the king to take a leaſe of all his farms for nine years at the rate of three millions five hundred thouſand livres per annum more than had been given before; and alſo to lend his majeſty twelve hundred millions of livres to pay the debts of the ſtate. Theſe offers were accepted; and the king, in conſideration hereof, granted them all the privileges of the ſeveral grants of the companies united to that company to the year 1770; on condition, however, of diſcharging all the debts of the Old Eaſt India Company, without any deduction at all. The loan of twelve hundred millions not being ſufficient for the occaſion of the ſtate, was augmented, three months afterwards, with three hundred millions more; which, with the former loan, and another of one hundred millions before, made ſixteen hundred millions, for which the king was to pay intereſt at the rate of three per cent.

The duke of Orleans, in February 1720, did the company the honour to preſide in their aſſembly, where he made ſeveral propoſals to them on the part of the king: the principal of theſe was, that they ſhould take on them the charge and adminiſtration of the royal bank. This was accepted of: and Mr Law, comptroller-general of the finances, was named by the king inſpector-general of the India Company and bank united.

This union, which, it was propoſed, ſhould have been a mutual help to both thoſe famous eſtabliſhments, proved the fatal point from whence the fall of both commenced: from this time, both the bank bills and the actions of the company began to fall. In effect, the firſt periſhed abſolutely, and the other had been drawn along with it but for the prudent precautions taken for its ſupport.

The firſt precaution was the revoking the office of inſpector-general, and the obliging Mr Law to quit the kingdom; the ancient directors were diſcarded, and new ones ſubſtituted; and to find the bottom of the company's affairs, it was ordered they ſhould give an account of what they had received and diſburſed, both on the account of the company and of the bank, which they had had the management of near a year. Another precaution to come at the ſtate of the company was, by endeavouring to diſtinguiſh the lawful actionaries from the Miſſiſſippi extortioners; whoſe immenſe riches, as well as their criminal addreſs in realizing their actions either into ſpecie or merchandiſe, were become ſo fatal to the ſtate, in order, if poſſible, to ſecure the honeſt adventurers in their ſtock. To this end, an inquiſition was made into their books, &c. by perſons appointed by the king; and the new directors, or as they were called, *regiſſeurs*, began ſeriouſly to look about for their commerce abroad. Their affairs, however, declined, and at length ſunk into a ruined and bankrupt ſtate about the year 1769. The king

Company. king immediately suspended their exclusive privileges, and laid the trade to the East open to all his subjects; consigning, at the same time, the affairs of the company to the care of the ministry to adjust and settle. But the various schemes which were then formed for the restoration of the old company, and the establishment of a new one, were accompanied with such insurmountable difficulties, as to prove wholly ineffectual. Nor was the laying open of the trade attended immediately with the success that was expected; the merchants being very slow in engaging in it, though the king, by way of encouragement, lent them some of his own ships to convey their commodities to the East; and the garrison and civil establishments continued to be supported in their existing form by the crown. The measure, however, proved in time successful; so that for a course of years previous to 1785, the annual importation from India was considerably greater than during any former period. But whether it was that they regarded this prosperity as precarious; or aimed at a more extensive success; or that they wished, in imitation of Britain, for territorial acquisitions in that climate, and believed an incorporated society the best instrument of obtaining them; the French court was induced to listen to proposals for establishing a new East India Company. Their privilege was for seven years, with the special proviso, that years of war which might occur in the interim should be excluded from the computation.

In the preamble of the act of the 14th April 1785, by which the scheme was adopted, it was alleged, "that the commodities of Europe not having of late years been regulated by any common standard, or proportioned to the demands of India, had on the one hand sold at a low price; while, on the other, the competition of the subjects of France had raised the price of the objects of importation: that, upon their return home, a want of system and assortment had been universally complained of, the market being overstocked with one species of goods, and totally destitute of another; that these defects must necessarily continue as long as the trade remained in private hands; and that, on their account, as well as that of the capital required, the establishment of a new company was absolutely necessary.

These reasonings did not appear altogether satisfactory to the persons principally interested. France has been so far enlightened by the discussions of the excellent writers she has produced upon questions of politics and commerce, as not to be prepared to behold the introduction of monopolies with a very favourable eye. By many persons it was remarked, that the arguments of the preamble did not apply more to the trade of India than to any other trade; and that, if they were admitted in their entire force, they were calculated to give a finishing blow to the freedom of commerce. The capital of the new company, which amounted to 830,000l. was ridiculed as altogether inadequate to the magnitude of the undertaking. The privileges with which it was indulged were treated as enormous. The monopoly of East India goods imported into France from any part of Europe, was granted to them for two years, as well as the monopoly of East India goods imported from the place of their growth. It was said, that during that period they would fit out no adventures for India; that they hoped to obtain a prolongation of this injurious indulgence; and that, of consequence, their incorporation was in reality a conspiracy to prevent all future communication between France and the sources of commerce in Asia. A provision in the act, directing that the prices of East India goods in the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon should be regulated by a tariff to be fixed by the court of Versailles, excited still louder exclamations. In this instance, it was said, the first principles of commerce were trampled upon in a manner the most wanton and absurd. Instead of suffering it to find its own level by the mutual collision of the wants of one party and the labour of another, it was arbitrarily to be fashioned by a power whose extreme distance must necessarily render its decisions ill-timed and inapplicable. The very mode in which the monopoly was introduced was a subject of complaint. It was determined by a resolution of the king in council; a proceeding totally inadequate to the importance of the subject, and which was to be regarded as clandestine and surreptitious. In all former instances such measures assumed the form of edicts, and were registered in the parliaments. It was the prerogative of these courts to verify them; that is, to inquire into the facts which had led to their adoption. The injured parties had an opportunity of being heard before the privilege assumed the form of a law; not privately by the ministers of the sovereign, but publicly by the most considerable bodies in the kingdom, and in the face of the nation.

The act of council establishing a new East India Company, was followed on the tenth of June by another declaration, intended still farther to promote their interest; by which it was expresly forbidden to import cottons, printed linens, and muslins, except through the medium of the company. The arret proceeds upon the same principles of monopoly as in the former instance. It sets out indeed with a declaration, "that nothing can appear more desirable to the king, or better accord with the sentiments of his heart, than a general liberty, that freeing at once the circulation of commodities from every species of restraint, should seem to make of all the people of the world but one nation with respect to commerce." But it adds, "that the period of this liberty is not yet arrived; that it must either be, with respect to the nations of Europe, unlimited and reciprocal, or that it cannot be admitted: that the revocation of the former indulgence respecting cottons and linens was become necessary on account of the opportunities it created for contraband trade; and because the competition of the East India Company and private traders would occasion a surplus in the market, and the admission of foreign manufactures would decrease and annihilate the national industry."

The provisions that were made for carrying this law into effect were considered as unjust and severe. The merchants possessing any of the prohibited commodities were allowed twelve months to dispose of them; but upon the express condition, that the commodities were to bear a stamp, importing that they were vendible only to a certain period; a circumstance that must necessarily depreciate their value. It was also enacted, that the house of any trader might be entered by day

or

or by night, at the ſolicitation of the directors, to ſearch for prohibited goods, which were to be confiſcated to the uſe of the company. Theſe kinds of viſits of the officers of revenue, hitherto unauthorized in France, were repreſented as peculiarly obnoxious, when they were made for the ſole benefit of a privileged monopoly.

COMPANY, in military affairs, a ſmall body of foot, commanded by a captain, who has under him a lieutenant and enſign.

The number of ſentinels or private ſoldiers in a company is from 50 to 100; and a battalion or regiment conſiſts of 9, 10, or 11, ſuch companies, one of which is always grenadiers, and poſted on the right; next them ſtands the colonel's company, and on the left the light infantry company. Companies not incorporated into regiments are called *irregulars*, or *independent companies*.

Artillery COMPANY. See ARTILLERY.

COMPANY of Ships, a fleet of merchantmen, who make a charter-party among themſelves; the principal conditions whereof uſually are, that certain veſſels ſhall be acknowledged admiral, vice-admiral, and rear-admiral; that ſuch and ſuch ſignals ſhall be obſerved; that thoſe which bear no guns ſhall pay ſo much per cent. of their cargo; and in caſe they be attacked, that what damages are ſuſtained ſhall be reimburſed by the company in general. In the Mediterranean ſuch companies are called *conſerves*.

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY, is that branch of anatomy which conſiders the ſecondary objects, or the bodies of other animals; ſerving for the more accurate diſtinctions of ſeveral parts, and ſupplying the defect of human ſubjects.

It is otherwiſe called *the anatomy of beaſts*, and ſometimes *zootomy*; and ſtands in contradiſtinction to human anatomy, or that branch of the art which conſiders the human body the primary object of anatomy. See ANATOMY.

COMPARATIVE Degree, among grammarians, that between the poſitive and ſuperlative degrees, expreſſive of any particular quality above or below the level of another.

COMPARISON, in a general ſenſe, the conſideration of the relation between two perſons or things, when oppoſed to each other, by which we judge of their agreement or difference.

COMPARISON of Ideas, an act of the mind, whereby it compares its ideas one with another, in reſpect of extent, degree, time, place, or any other circumſtances. See IDEA.

Brutes ſeem not to have this faculty in any great degree: they have, probably, ſeveral ideas diſtinct enough; but cannot compare them farther than as to ſome ſenſible circumſtances annexed to the objects themſelves; the power of comparing general ideas, which we obſerve in men, we may probably conjecture they have not at all.

COMPARISON, in *Grammar*, the inflection of the comparative degree. See GRAMMAR.

COMPARISON, in *Rhetoric*, is a figure whereby two things are conſidered with regard to ſome third, which is common to them both.

Inſtruction is the principal, but not the only end of compariſon. It may be employed with ſucceſs in putting a ſubject in a ſtrong point of view. A lively idea is formed of a man's courage by likening it to that of a lion; and eloquence is exalted in our imagination by comparing it to a river overflowing its banks, and involving all in its impetuous courſe. The ſame effect is produced by contraſt: a man in proſperity becomes more ſenſible of his happineſs, by comparing his condition with that of a perſon in want of bread. Thus compariſon is ſubſervient to poetry as well as to philoſophy.

Compariſons ſerve two purpoſes: when addreſſed to the underſtanding, their purpoſe is to inſtruct; when to the heart, their purpoſe is to pleaſe. Various means contribute to the latter: 1ſt, The ſuggeſting ſome unuſual reſemblance or contraſt *; 2d, The ſetting an object in the ſtrongeſt light; 3d, The aſſociating an object with others that are agreeable; 4th, The elevating an object; and 5th, The depreſſing it. And that compariſons may give pleaſure by theſe various means, will be made evident by examples which ſhall be given, after premiſing ſome general obſervations.

* See the article RESEMBLANCE and Diſſimilitude.

Objects of different ſenſes cannot be compared together; for ſuch objects are totally ſeparated from each other, and have no circumſtance in common to admit either reſemblance or contraſt. Objects of hearing may be compared together, as alſo of taſte, of ſmell, and of touch; but the chief fund of compariſon are objects of ſight; becauſe in writing or ſpeaking, things can only be compared in idea, and the ideas of ſight are more diſtinct and lively than thoſe of any other ſenſe.

When a nation emerging out of barbarity begins to think of the fine arts, the beauties of language cannot long lie concealed; and when diſcovered, they are generally, by the force of novelty, carried beyond all bounds of moderation. Thus, in the earlieſt poems of every nation, we find metaphors and ſimiles founded on the ſlighteſt and moſt diſtant reſemblances, which, loſing their grace with their novelty, wear gradually out of repute; and now, by the improvement of taſte, no metaphor nor ſimile is admitted into any polite compoſition but of the moſt ſtriking kind. To illuſtrate this obſervation, a ſpecimen ſhall be given afterward of ſuch metaphors as we have been deſcribing: with reſpect to ſimiles take the following ſpecimen:

"Behold, thou art fair, my love: thy hair is as "a flock of goats that appear from Mount Gilead: "thy teeth are like a flock of ſheep from the waſh-"ing, every one bearing twins: thy lips are like "a thread of ſcarlet: thy neck like the tower of "David built for an armoury, whereon hang a "thouſand ſhields of mighty men: thy two breaſts "like two young roes that are twins, which feed "among the lilies: thy eyes like the fiſh-pools in "Heſbon, by the gate of Bath-rabbim: thy noſe "like the tower of Lebanon, looking toward Da-"maſcus." *Song of Solomon.*

"Thou art like ſnow on the heath; thy hair like "the miſt of Cromla, when it curls on the rocks "and ſhines to the beam of the weſt: thy breaſts "are

Comparison.

"are like two ſmooth rocks ſeen from Branno of "the ſtreams: thy arms like two white pillars in "the hall of the mighty Fingal." *Fingal.*

It has no good effect to compare things by way of ſimile that are of the ſame kind; nor to contraſt things of different kinds. The reaſon is given in the article above cited on the margin, and ſhall be here illuſtrated by examples. The firſt is a compariſon built upon a reſemblance ſo obvious as to make little or no impreſſion. Speaking of the fallen angels ſearching for mines of gold:

A numerous brigade haſten'd: as when bands
Of pioneers with ſpade and pickaxe arm'd,
Forerun the royal camp to trench a field
Or caſt a rampart. *Milton.*

The next is of things contraſted that are of different kinds.

Queen. What, is my Richard both in ſhape and mind
Transform'd and weak? Hath Bolingbroke depos'd
Thine intellect? Hath he been in thy heart?
The lion, dying, thruſteth forth his paw,
And wounds the earth, if nothing elſe, with rage
To be o'erpower'd: and wilt thou, pupil like,
Take thy correction mildly, kiſs the rod,
And fawn on rage with baſe humility?
Richard II. Act v. ſc. 1.

This compariſon has ſcarce any force: a man and a lion are of different ſpecies, and therefore are proper ſubjects for a ſimile; but there is no ſuch reſemblance between them in general, as to produce any ſtrong effect by contraſting particular attributes or circumſtances.

A third general obſervation is, That abſtract terms can never be the ſubject of compariſon, otherwiſe than by being perſonified. Shakeſpeare compares adverſity to a toad, and ſlander to the bite of a crocodile; but in ſuch compariſons theſe abſtract terms muſt be imagined ſenſible beings.

To have a juſt notion of compariſons, they muſt be diſtinguiſhed into two kinds; one common and familiar, as where a man is compared to a lion in courage, or to a horſe in ſpeed; the other more diſtant and refined, where two things that have in themſelves no reſemblance or oppoſition, are compared with reſpect to their effects. There is no reſemblance between a flower-pot and a cheerful ſong; and yet they may be compared with reſpect to their effects, the emotions they produce in the mind being extremely ſimilar. There is as little reſemblance between fraternal concord and precious ointment; and yet obſerve how ſucceſſfully they are compared with reſpect to the impreſſions they make.

"Behold, how good and how pleaſant it is for "brethren to dwell together in unity. It is like "the precious ointment upon the head, that ran "down upon Aaron's beard, and deſcended to the "ſkirts of his garment." *Pſalm* 133.

For illuſtrating this ſort of compariſon, we ſhall add ſome more examples:

"Delightful is thy preſence, O Fingal! it is like "the ſun on Cromla, when the hunter mourns his "abſence for a ſeaſon, and ſees him between the "clouds.

"Did not Oſſian hear a voice? or is it the ſound "of days that are no more? Often, like the evening "ſun, comes the memory of former times on my "ſoul.

"His countenance is ſettled from war; and is "calm as the evening-beam, that from the cloud of "the weſt looks on Cona's ſilent vale." *Fingal.*

We now proceed to illuſtrate, by particular inſtances, the different means by which compariſons, whether of the one ſort or the other, can afford pleaſure; and, in the order above eſtabliſhed, we ſhall begin with ſuch inſtances as are agreeable, by ſuggeſting ſome unuſual reſemblance or contraſt.

Sweet are the uſes of Adverſity,
Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in her head.
As you like it, Act ii. ſc. 1.

See, how the morning opes her golden gates,
And takes her farewel of the glorious ſun;
How well reſembles it the prime of youth,
Trimm'd like a yonker prancing to his love.
Second Part Henry VI. Act ii. ſc. 1.

Thus they their doubtful conſultations dark
Ended, rejoicing in their matchleſs chief:
As when from mountain tops, the duſky clouds
Aſcending, while the North-wind ſleeps, o'erſpread
Heav'n's cheerful face, the lowering element
Scowls o'er the darken'd landſcape, ſnow, and ſhower;
If chance the radiant ſun with farewel ſweet
Extends his ev'ning-beam, the fields revive,
The birds their notes renew, and bleating herds
Atteſt their joy, that hill and valley rings.
Paradiſe Loſt, Book ii.

None of the foregoing ſimiles tend to illuſtrate the principal ſubject, and therefore the chief pleaſure they afford muſt ariſe from ſuggeſting reſemblances that are not obvious; for undoubtedly a beautiful ſubject introduced to form the ſimile affords a ſeparate pleaſure, which is felt in the ſimiles mentioned, particularly in that cited from Milton.

The next effect of a compariſon in the order mentioned, is to place an object in a ſtrong point of view; which effect is remarkable in the following ſimiles.

As when two ſcales are charg'd with doubtful loads,
From ſide to ſide the trembling balance nods,
(While ſome laborious matron, juſt and poor,
With nice exactneſs weighs her woolly ſtore),
Till pois'd aloft, the reſting beam ſuſpends
Each equal weight; nor this nor that deſcends;
So ſtood the war, till Hector's matchleſs might,
With fates prevailing, turn'd the ſcale of fight.
Fierce as a whirlwind up the wall he flies,
And fires his hoſt with loud repeated cries.
Iliad, Book xii. 521.

——— She never told her love;
But let concealment, like a worm i' th' bud,
Feed

Comparison.

Feed on her damaſk cheek: ſhe pin'd in thought;
And with a green and yellow melancholy,
She ſat like Patience on a monument,
Smiling at grief. *Twelfth Night*, Act. ii. ſc. 6.

"There is a joy in grief when peace dwells with "the ſorrowful. But they are waſted with mourning, O daughter of Toſcar, and their days are "few. They fall away like the flower on which "the ſun looks in his ſtrength, after the mildew has "paſſed over it, and its head is heavy with the drops "of night." *Fingal.*

——— Out, out, brief candle!
Life's but a walking ſhadow, a poor player,
That ſtruts and frets his hour upon the ſtage,
And then is heard no more.
Macbeth, Act v. ſc. 5.

O thou goodneſs,
Thou divine nature! how thyſelf thou blazon'ſt
In theſe two princely boys! they are as gentle
As zephyrs blowing below the violet,
Not wagging his ſweet head; and yet as rough
(Their royal blood inchaf'd) as the rudeſt wind,
That by the top doth take the mountain-pine,
And make him ſtoop to the vale.
Cymbeline, Act iv. ſc. 4.

"Why did not I paſs away in ſecret, like the "flower of the rock that lifts its fair head unſeen, "and ſtrows its withered leaves on the blaſt?" *Fingal.*

As words convey but a faint and obſcure notion of great numbers, a poet, to give a lively notion of the object he deſcribes with regard to number, does well to compare it to what is familiar and commonly known. Thus Homer compares the Grecian army in point of number to a ſwarm of bees; in another paſſage he compares it to that profuſion of leaves and flowers which appear in the ſpring, or of inſects in a ſummer's evening: And Milton,

——— As when the potent rod
Of Amram's ſon in Egypt's evil day
Wav'd round the coaſt, up call'd a pitchy cloud
Of locuſts, warping on the eaſtern wind,
That o'er the realm of impious Pharaoh hung
Like night, and darken'd all the land of Nile;
So numberleſs were thoſe bad angels ſeen,
Hov'ring on wing under the cope of hell,
'Twixt upper, nether, and ſurrounding fires.
Paradiſe Loſt, Book i.

Such compariſons have, by ſome writers, been condemned for the lowneſs of the images introduced, but ſurely without reaſon; for, with regard to numbers, they put the principal ſubject in a ſtrong light.

The foregoing compariſons operate by reſemblance; others have the ſame effect by contraſt.

York. I am the laſt of noble Edward's ſons,
Of whom thy father, prince of Wales, was firſt;
In war, was never lion rag'd more fierce;
In peace, was never gentle lamb more mild,
Than was that young and princely gentleman.
His face thou haſt, for even ſo look'd he,
Accompliſh'd with the number of thy hours,
But when he frown'd, it was againſt the French,
And not againſt his friends. His noble hand
Did win what he did ſpend; and ſpent not that
Which his triumphant father's hand had won.
His hands were guilty of no kindred's blood,
But bloody with the enemies of his kin.
Oh Richard, York is too far gone with grief,
Or elſe he never would compare between.
Richard II. Act ii. ſc. 3.

Milton has a peculiar talent in embelliſhing the principal ſubject, by aſſociating it with others that are agreeable; which is the third end of a compariſon. Similes of this kind have, beſide, a ſeparate effect: they diverſify the narration by new images that are not ſtrictly neceſſary to the compariſon; they are ſhort epiſodes, which, without drawing us from the principal ſubject, afford great delight by their beauty and variety.

He ſcarce had ceas'd, when the ſuperior fiend
Was moving toward the ſhore; his pond'rous ſhield,
Ethereal temper, maſſy, large, and round,
Behind him caſt: the broad circumference
Hung on his ſhoulders like the moon, whoſe orb
Through optic glaſs the Tuſcan artiſt views
At evening from the top of Feſole.
Or in Valdarno, to deſcry new lands,
Rivers, or mountains, in her ſpotty globe.
Milton, Book i.

——— Thus far theſe beyond
Compare of mortal proweſs, yet obſerv'd
Their dread commander. He, above the reſt,
In ſhape and ſtature proudly eminent,
Stood like a tow'r; his form had not yet loſt
All her original brightneſs, nor appear'd
Leſs than archangel ruin'd, and th' exceſs
Of glory obſcur'd: as when the ſun new-riſen
Looks through the horizontal miſty air
Shorn of his beams; or, from behind the moon,
In dim eclipſe, diſaſtrous twilight ſheds
On half the nations, and with fear of change
Perplexes monarchs. *Milton*, Book i.

As when a vulture on Imaus bred,
Whoſe ſnowy ridge the roving Tartar bounds,
Diſlodging from a region ſcarce of prey
To gorge the fleſh of lambs, or yeanling kids,
On hills where flocks are fed, flies toward the ſprings
Of Ganges or Hydaſpes, Indian ſtreams,
But in his way lights on the barren plains
Of Sericana, where Chineſes drive
With ſails and wind their cany waggons light:
So on this windy ſea of land, the fiend
Walk'd up and down alone, bent on his prey.
Milton, Book iii.

Next of compariſons that aggrandiſe or elevate. Theſe affect us more than any other ſort; the reaſon of which will be evident from the following inſtances:

As when a flame the winding valley fills,
And runs on crackling ſhrubs between the hills,
Then o'er the ſtubble up the mountain flies,
Fires the high woods, and blazes to the ſkies,

This

Comparison.

This way and that, the ſpreading torrent roars;
So ſweeps the hero through the waſted ſhores.
Around him wide, immenſe deſtruction pours,
And earth is delug'd with the ſanguine ſhow'rs.
Iliad, xx. 569.

Methinks, King Richard and myſelf ſhould meet
With no leſs terror than the elements
Of fire and water, when their thund'ring ſhock,
At meeting, tears the cloudy cheeks of heaven.
Richard II. Act iii. ſc. 5.

"As ruſhetl. a foamy ſtream from the dark ſhady "ſteep of Cromla, when thunder is rolling above, and "dark brown night reſts on the hill; ſo fierce, ſo vaſt, "ſo terrible, ruſh forward the ſons of Erin. The "chief, like a whale of ocean followed by all its bil-"lows, pours valour forth as a ſtream, rolling its might "along the ſhore." *Fingal*, Book i.

"As roll a thouſand waves to a rock, ſo Swaran's "hoſt came on; as meets a rock a thouſand waves, ſo "Inisfail met Swaran." *Ibid.*

The laſt article mentioned, is that of leſſening or depreſſing a hated or diſagreeable object; which is effectually done by reſembling it to any thing low or deſpicable.

Thus Milton, in his deſcription of the rout of the rebel-angels, happily expreſſes their terror and diſmay in the following ſimile:

——————— As a herd
Of goats or timorous flock together throng'd,
Drove them before him thunder-ſtruck, purſu'd
With terrors and with furies to the bounds
And cryſtal wall of heav'n, which op'ning wide,
Roll'd inward, and a ſpacious gap diſclos'd
Into the waſteful deep; the monſtrous ſight
Struck them with horror backward, but far worſe
Urg'd them behind; headlong themſelves they threw
Down from the verge of heav'n. *Milton*, Book vi.

By this time the different purpoſes of compariſon, and the various impreſſions it makes on the mind, are ſufficiently illuſtrated by proper examples. This was an eaſy work. It is more difficult to lay down rules about the propriety or impropriety of compariſons; in what circumſtances they may be introduced, and in what circumſtances they are out of place. It is evident, that a compariſon is not proper upon every occaſion; a man in his cool and ſedate moments is not diſpoſed to poetical flights, nor to ſacrifice truth and reality to the deluſive operations of the imagination; far leſs is he ſo diſpoſed when oppreſſed with care, or intereſted in ſome important tranſaction that occupies him totally. On the other hand it is obſerved, that a man when elevated or animated by any paſſion, is diſpoſed to elevate or animate all his ſubjects; he avoids familiar names, exalts objects by circumlocution and metaphor, and gives even life and voluntary action to inanimate beings. In this warmth of mind, the higheſt poetical flights are indulged, and the boldeſt ſimiles and metaphors reliſhed. But without ſoaring ſo high, the mind is frequently in a tone to reliſh chaſte and moderate ornament; ſuch as compariſons that ſet the principal object in a ſtrong point of view, or that embelliſh and diverſify the narration.

In general, when by any animating paſſion, whether pleaſant or painful, an impulſe is given to the imagination; we are in that condition diſpoſed to every ſort of figurative expreſſion, and in particular to compariſons. This in a great meaſure is evident from the compariſons already mentioned; and ſhall be further illuſtrated by other inſtances. Love, for example, in its infancy, rouſing the imagination, prompts the heart to diſplay itſelf in figurative language, and in ſimiles:

Troilus. Tell me, Apollo, for thy Daphne's love,
What Creſſida is, what Pandar, and what we?
Her bed is India, there ſhe lies a pearl:
Between our Ilium and where ſhe reſides,
Let it be call'd the wild and wand'ring flood;
Ourſelf the merchant, and this ſailing Pandar
Our doubtful hope, our convoy, and our bark.
Troilus and Creſſida, Act i. ſc. 1.

Again:

Come, gentle night; come, loving black-brow'd night!
Give me my Romeo: and when he ſhall die,
Take him and cut him out in little ſtars,
And he will make the face of heav'n ſo fine,
That all the world ſhall be in love with night,
And pay no worſhip to the gariſh ſun.
Romeo and Juliet, Act iii. ſc. 4.

But it will be a better illuſtration of the preſent head, to give examples where compariſons are improperly introduced. Similes are not the language of a man in his ordinary ſtate of mind, diſpatching his daily and uſual work: for that reaſon the following ſpeech of a gardener to his ſervant is extremely improper:

Go, bind thou up yon dangling apricots,
Which, like unruly children make their ſire
Stoop with oppreſſion of their prodigal weight:
Give ſome ſupportances to the bending twigs.
Go thou, and, like an executioner,
Cut off the heads of two faſt growing ſprays,
That look too lofty in our commonwealth:
All muſt be even in our government.
Richard II. Act iii. ſc. 7.

The fertility of Shakeſpeare's vein betrays him frequently into this error.

Rooted grief, deep anguiſh, terror, remorſe, deſpair, and all the ſevere diſpiriting paſſions, are declared enemies, perhaps not to figurative language in general, but undoubtedly to the pomp and ſolemnity of compariſon. Upon this account, the ſimile pronounced by young Rutland, under terror of death from an inveterate enemy, and praying mercy, is unnatural:

So looks the pent-up lion o'er the wretch
That trembles under his devouring paws;
And ſo he walks inſulting o'er his prey,
And ſo he comes to rend his limbs aſunder.
Ah, gentle Clifford, kill me with thy ſword,
And not with ſuch a cruel threat'ning look.
Third Part Henry VI. Act i. ſc. 5.

A man ſpent and diſpirited after loſing a battle is not diſpoſed to heighten or illuſtrate his diſcourſe by ſimiles.

Comparison.

York. With this we charg'd again: but out! alas,
We bodg'd again; as I have seen a swan
With bootless labour swim against the tide,
And spend her strength with over-matching waves.
Ah! hark, the fatal-followers do pursue,
And I am faint and cannot fly their fury.
The sands are number'd that make up my life;
Here must I stay, and here my life must end.
Third Part Henry VI. Act i. sc. 6.

Similes thus unseasonably introduced are finely ridiculed in the Rehearsal.

"*Bayes.* Now here she must make a simile.
"*Smith.* Where's the necessity of that, Mr Bayes?
"*Bayes.* Because she's surprised; that's a general "rule; you must ever make a simile when you are sur-"prised; 'tis a new way of writing."

A comparison is not always faultless, even where it is properly introduced. A comparison, like other human productions, may fall short of its end; of which defect instances are not rare even among good writers: and to complete the present subject, it will be necessary to make some observations upon such faulty comparisons. Nothing can be more erroneous than to institute a comparison too faint: a distant resemblance or contrast fatigues the mind with its obscurity, instead of amusing it; and tends not to fulfil any one end of a comparison. The following similes seem to labour under this defect.

K. Rich. Give me the crown.—Here, cousin, seize the crown,
Here on this side, my hand; on that side, thine.
Now is this golden crown like a deep well,
That owes two buckets, filling one another;
The emptier ever dancing in the air,
The other down, unseen, and full of water;
That bucket down, and full of tears, am I,
Drinking my griefs, whilst you mount up on high.
Richard II. Act iv. sc. 3.

K. John Oh! cousin, thou art come to set mine eye;
The tackle of my heart is crack'd and burnt;
And all the shrouds wherewith my life should sail,
Are turned to one thread, one little hair:
My heart hath one poor string to stay it by,
Which holds but till thy news be uttered.
K. John, Act iv. sc. 10.

York. My uncles both are slain in rescuing me:
And all my followers to the eager foe
Turn back, and fly like ships before the wind,
Or lambs pursu'd by hunger-starved wolves.
Third Part Henry VI. Act i. sc. 6.

The latter of the two similes is good: the former, because of the faintness of the resemblance, produces no good effect, and crowds the narration with an useless image.

In an epic poem, or in any elevated subject, a writer ought to avoid raising a simile upon a low image, which never fails to bring down the principal subject. In general, it is a rule, that a grand object ought never to be resembled to one that is diminutive, however delicate the resemblance may be: for it is the peculiar character of a grand object to fix the attention, and swell the mind; in which state, it is disagreeable to contract the mind to a minute object, however elegant. The resembling an object to one that is greater, has, on the contrary, a good effect, by raising or swelling the mind; for one passes with satisfaction from a small to a great object; but cannot be drawn down, without reluctance, from great to small. Hence the following similes are faulty.

Meanwhile the troops beneath Patroclus' care,
Invade the Trojans, and commence the war.
As wasps, provok'd by children in their play,
Pour from their mansions by the broad highway,
In swarms the guiltless traveller engage,
Whet all their stings, and call forth all their rage;
All rise in arms, and with a general cry
Affert their waxen domes and buzzing progeny:
Thus from their tents the fervent legion swarms,
So loud their clamours, and so keen their arms.
Iliad, xvi. 312.

So burns the vengeful hornet (soul all o'er)
Repuls'd in vain, and thirsty still of gore;
(Bold son of air and heat) on angry wings
Untam'd, untir'd he turns, attacks, and stings.
Fir'd with like ardour, fierce Atrides flew,
And sent his soul with every lance he threw.
Iliad, xvii. 642.

An error opposite to the former, is the introducing a resembling image, so elevated or great as to bear no proportion to the principal subject. Their remarkable disparity, being the most striking circumstance, seizes the mind, and never fails to depress the principal subject by contrast, instead of raising it by resemblance: and if the disparity be exceeding great, the simile takes on an air of burlesque: nothing being more ridiculous than to force an object out of its proper rank in nature, by equalling it with one greatly superior or greatly inferior. This will be evident from the following comparison.

Loud as a bull makes hill and valley ring,
So roar'd the lock when it releas'd the spring.
Odyssey, xxi. 51.

Such a simile upon the simplest of all actions, that of opening a lock, is pure burlesque.

A writer of delicacy will avoid drawing his comparisons from any image that is nauseous, ugly, or remarkably disagreeable; for however strong the resemblance may be, more will be lost than gained by such comparison. Therefore we cannot help condemning, though with some reluctancy, the following simile, or rather metaphor.

O thou fond many! with what loud applause
Didst thou beat heaven with blessing Bolingbroke
Before he was what thou would'st have him be?
And now being trimm'd up in thine own desires,
Thou, beastly feeder, are so full of him,
That thou provok'st thyself to cast him up.
And so, thou common dog, didst thou disgorge
Thy glutton bosom of the royal Richard,
And now thou wouldst eat thy dead vomit up,
And howl'st to find it.
Second Part Henry IV. Act i. sc. 6.

The

Comparison.

The ſtrongeſt objection that can lie againſt a compariſon is, that it conſiſts in words only, not in ſenſe. Such falſe coin, or baſtard-wit, does extremely well in burleſque; but it is far below the dignity of the epic, or of any ſerious compoſition.

The noble ſiſter of Poplicola,
The moon of Rome; chaſte as the icicle
That's curdl'd by the froſt from pureſt ſnow,
And hangs on Dian's temple.
Coriolanus, Act v. ſc. 3.

There is evidently no reſemblance between an icicle and a woman, chaſte or unchaſte: but chaſtity is cold in a metaphorical ſenſe; and an icicle is cold in a proper ſenſe; and this verbal reſemblance, in the hurry and glow of compoſing, has been thought a ſufficient foundation for the ſimile. Such phantom ſimiles are mere witticiſms, which ought to have no quarter, except where purpoſely introduced to provoke laughter. Lucian, in his diſſertation upon hiſtory, talking of a certain author, makes the following compariſon, which is verbal merely.

"This author's deſcriptions are ſo cold, that they "ſurpaſs the Caſpian ſnow, and all the ice of the "north."

——But for their ſpirits and ſouls
This word *rebellion* had froze them up
As fiſh are in a pond.
Second Part Henry IV. Act i. ſc. 3.

Pope has ſeveral ſimiles of the ſame ſtamp.

And hence one maſter paſſion in the breaſt,
Like Aaron's ſerpent, ſwallows up the reſt.
Epiſt. ii. 131.

And again talking of this ſame ruling or maſter paſſion;

Nature its mother, habit is its nurſe:
Wit, ſpirit, faculties, but make it worſe;
Reaſon itſelf but gives it edge and pow'r;
As heaven's bleſt beam turns vinegar more ſour.
Ibid. 145.

Where the ſubject is burleſque or ludicrous, ſuch ſimiles are far from being improper. Horace ſays pleaſantly,

Quanquam tu levior cortice. Lib. iii. od. 9.

And Shakeſpeare.

In breaking oaths he's ſtronger than Hercules.

And this leads to obſerve, that beſides the foregoing compariſons, which are all ſerious, there is a ſpecies, the end and purpoſe of which is to excite gaiety or mirth. Take the following examples.

Falſtaff ſpeaking to his page:

"I do here walk before thee, like a ſow that hath "overwhelmed all her litter but one."
Second Part Henry IV. Act i. ſc. 10.

"I think he is not a pick-purſe, nor a horſe-"ſtealer; but for his verity in love, I do think him "as concave as a covered goblet, or a worm-eaten "nut." *As you like it*, Act iii. ſc. 10.

This ſword a dagger had his page,
That was but little for his age;
And therefore waited on him ſo,
As dwarfs upon knight-errants do.
Hudibras, canto 1.

Compariſon || Compaſs.

"Books, like men, their authors, have but one way "of coming into the world; but there are ten thou-"ſand to go out of it, and return no more."
Tale of a Tub.

"The moſt accompliſhed way of uſing books at pre-"ſent is, to ſerve them as ſome do lords, learn their "*titles*, and then brag of their acquaintance."
Ibid.

"He does not conſider, that ſincerity in love is as "much out of faſhion as ſweet ſnuff; nobody takes it "now." *Careleſs Huſband.*

COMPARTITION, in *Architecture*, denotes the uſeful and graceful diſpoſition of the whole ground-plot of an edifice, into rooms of office, and of reception or entertainment.

COMPARTMENT, in general, is a deſign compoſed of ſeveral different figures, diſpoſed with ſymmetry, to adorn a parterre, a ceiling, &c.

A compartment of tiles or bricks, is an arrangement of them, of different colours, and varniſhed, for the decoration of a building. Compartments in gardening, are an aſſemblage of beds, plots, borders, walks, &c. diſpoſed in the moſt advantageous manner that the ground will admit of. Compartments in heraldry, are otherwiſe called *partitions*.

COMPASS, or *Mariner's Steering* COMPASS, is an inſtrument uſed at ſea by pilots to direct and aſcertain the courſe of their ſhips. It conſiſts of a circular braſs box, which contains a paper card with the 32 points of the compaſs, fixed on a magnetic needle that always turns to the north, excepting a ſmall declination variable at different places. See VARIATION.

The needle with the card turns on an upright pin fixed in the centre of the box. In the centre of the needle is fixed a braſs conical ſocket or cap, whereby the card hanging on the pin turns freely round the centre.

The top of the box is covered with a glaſs that the card's motion may not be diſturbed by the wind. The whole is encloſed in another box of wood, where it is ſuſpended by braſs hoops or gimbals, to preſerve the card horizontal. The compaſs-box is to be ſo placed in the ſhip, that the middle ſection of the box, parallel to its ſides, may be parallel to the middle ſection of the ſhip along its keel.

The compaſs being of the utmoſt conſequence to navigation, it is reaſonable to expect that the greateſt attention ſhould be paid to its conſtruction, and every attempt to improve it carefully examined, and if proper, adopted. But ſo careleſs are the generality of commanders of this moſt uſeful inſtrument, that almoſt all the compaſſes uſed on board merchant-ſhips have their needles formed of two pieces of ſteel wire, each of which is bent in the middle, ſo as to form an obtuſe angle; and their ends being applied together, make an acute one; ſo that the whole repreſents the form of a lozenge; in the centre of which, and of the cards, is placed the braſs cap. Now, if we examine

Compaſs. mine a number of theſe cards, we ſhall rarely, if ever, find them all in the ſame direction, but they will all vary more or leſs, not only with regard to the true direction, but from one another.

Theſe irregularities are owing to the ſtructure of the needle; for the wires of which it is compoſed are only hardened at the ends; now, if theſe ends are not equally hard, or if one end be hardened up higher than the other, when they come to be put together, in fixing them to the card, that end which is hardeſt will deſtroy much of the virtue of the other; by which means the hardeſt end will have the moſt power in directing the card, and conſequently make it vary towards its own direction: and, as the wires are diſpoſed in the form of a lozenge, theſe cards can have but little force, ſo that they will often, when drawn aſide, ſtand at the diſtance of ſeveral degrees on either ſide the point from whence they are drawn: for all magnetical bodies receive an additional ſtrength by being placed in the direction of the earth's magnetiſm, and act proportionably leſs vigorouſly when turned out of it; wherefore, when theſe kind of needles are drawn aſide from their true point, two of the parallel ſides of the lozenge will conſpire, more directly than before, with the earth's magnetiſm; and the other two will be leſs in that direction; by which means the two ſides will very much impede its return; and the two latter will have that impediment to overcome, as well as the friction, by their own force alone.

To remove theſe inconveniences, ſome needles are made of one piece of ſteel of a ſpring temper, and broad towards the ends, but tapering towards the middle, where a hole is made to receive the cap. At the ends they terminate in an angle, greater or leſs according to the ſkill or fancy of the workman. Theſe needles, though infinitely preferable to the other, are, however, far from being perfect; for every needle of this form hath ſix poles inſtead of two, one at each end, two where it becomes tapering, and two at the hole in the middle: this is owing to their ſhape; for the middle part being very ſlender, it has not ſubſtance enough to conduct the magnetic ſtream quite through from one end to the other: all theſe poles appear very diſtinctly, when examined with a glaſs that is ſprinkled over with magnetic ſand. This circumſtance, however, does not hinder the needle from pointing true; but as it has leſs force to move the card than when the magnetic ſtream moves in large curves from one end to the other, it is certainly an imperfection.

Theſe inconveniences induced the ingenious Dr Knight to contrive a new ſea-compaſs, which came into uſe on board all the ſhips of war. The needle in this inſtrument is quite ſtraight, and ſquare at the ends; and conſequently has only two poles, though about the hole in the middle the curves are a little confuſed. Needles of this conſtruction, after vibrating a long time, will always point exactly in the ſame direction; and if drawn ever ſo little on one ſide, will return to it again, without any ſenſible difference. We may therefore conclude, that a regular parallelopiped is the beſt form for a needle, as well as the ſimpleſt, the holes for the caps being as ſmall as poſſible.

And as the weight ſhould be removed to the greateſt diſtance from the centre of motion, a circle of braſs, of the ſame diameter of the card, may be added, which will ſerve alſo to ſupport the card, which may then be made of thin paper, without any thing to ſtiffen it. This ring being fixed below the card, and the needle above it, the centre of gravity is placed low enough to admit of the cap being put under the needle, whereby the hole in the needle becomes unneceſſary.

The above obſervations will be eaſily underſtood from viewing the ſeveral parts of the inſtrument as repreſented on Plate CL. where fig. 6. is the card with the needle KL, and its cap M, fixed upon it, being one-third of the diameter of the real card. Fig. 8. is a perſpective view of the backſide of the card, where AB repreſents the turning down of the braſs edge, C the under part of the cap, D and E two ſliding weights to balance the card, and F, G, two ſcrews that fix the braſs edge, &c. to the needle. Fig. 7. is the pedeſtal that ſupports the card, containing a ſcrewing needle, fixed in two ſmall grooves to receive it, by means of the collet C, in the manner of a port-crayon. D, the ſtem, is filed into an octagon, that it may be the more eaſily unſcrewed. For its further illuſtration and application to uſe, ſee NAVIGATION.

The invention of the compaſs is uſually aſcribed to Flavio da Melfi, or Flavio Gioia, a Neapolitan, about the year 1302; and hence it is, that the territory of Principato, which makes part of the kingdom of Naples, where he was born, has a compaſs for its arms. Others ſay that Marcus Paulus, a Venetian, making a journey to China, brought back the invention with him in 1260. What confirms this conjecture is, that at firſt they uſed the compaſs in the ſame manner as the Chineſe ſtill do; i. e. they let it float on a little piece of cork, inſtead of ſuſpending it on a pivot. It is added, that their emperor Chimingus, a celebrated aſtrologer, had a knowledge of it 1120 years before Chriſt. The Chineſe only divide their compaſs into 24 points. Fauchette relates ſome verſes of Guoyot de Provence, who lived in France about the year 1200, which ſeem to make mention of the compaſs under the name of *marinette*, or *mariner's ſtone*; which ſhow it to have been uſed in France near 100 years before either the Melfite or Venetian. The French even lay claim to the invention, from the *fleur de lys* wherewith all nations ſtill diſtinguiſh the north point of the card. With as much reaſon Dr Wallis aſcribes it to the Engliſh, from its name *compaſs*, by which name moſt nations call it, and which he obſerves is uſed in many parts of England to ſignify a circle.

Though the mariner's compaſs has been long in uſe, the beſt conſtruction of it was attended with many inconveniences, till the improvements which it received from the invention and experiments of Dr Knight, and the farther emendation of Mr Smeaton.

The compaſs is ſometimes obſerved to be diſturbed by the electricity of its glaſs cover; and this from ſo ſlight an application of the finger as was barely neceſſary to wipe off a little duſt. The ſame glaſs, rubbed a little more with the finger, a bit of muſlin, or paper, would attract either end of the needle ſo as to hold it to the glaſs for ſeveral minutes, far out of

Compaſs. of the due direction, according to that part of the glaſs which was moſt excited. And when the needle, after adhering to the glaſs, has dropped looſe, and made vibrations, thoſe would not be biſected as uſual by that point where the needle ſhould reſt, but would either be made all on one ſide, or be very unequally divided, by means of ſome remains of electrical virtue in that part of the glaſs which had attracted the needle, until at length, after 15 minutes or more, all the electricity being diſcharged, the magnetical power took place. The remedy for this inconvenience is to moiſten the ſurface of the glaſs; a wet finger will do it immediately and effectually. The mariner's compaſs with a chart is much leſs dangerouſly moved than the common compaſs with a bare needle; and the deeper, or farther diſtant, the needle hangs below the glaſs, the leſs diſturbance it is likely to receive.

Improved ſea-compaſſes have lately been conſtructed by Mr M'Culloch of London, for which he obtained a patent. The particulars are as follows.

Plate CLI fig. 1. Fig. 1. is a ſection of the ſteering compaſs. *a a a a a*, The common wooden box, with its lid. *b b*, The braſs compaſs-box. *c c*, The glaſs cover to ditto. *d d*, The hollow conical bottom. *e*, The prop upon which the compaſs is ſupported inſtead of gimbals; the ſpherical top of which is finely poliſhed, and the apex of the hollow cone is fitted in a peculiar manner to receive it. *f f*, A quantity of lead run round the bottom and cone of the compaſs-box, to balance and keep it ſteadily horizontal. *g g*, The card and the magnetical needle, bent in ſuch a manner that the point of the conical pivot on which it moves and is ſupported, may be brought very near to the centre of gravity, as well as to the centre of motion. *h h*, Two guards, which by means of two pins *i i*, affixed to the compaſs-box, prevent it from turning round and deceiving the ſteerſman.

Fig. 2. Fig. 2. a perſpective view of the ſteering compaſs, with the lid off and the front laid open. *h h*, The guards. *b*, The compaſs-box. *e*, The prop, &c. as in fig. 1.

Fig. 3. Fig. 3. a view of the azimuth compaſs. *b*, The compaſs-box. *h*, One of the guards. *e*, The prop, as in fig. 1. and 2, with this difference, that in an azimuth compaſs, inſtead of being ſcrewed to the bottom of the wood-box, it ſtands in a braſs ſocket, and may be turned round at pleaſure. 1. A braſs bar upon which the ſight-vanes are fixed. 2. A dark glaſs, which moves up and down on 3. the ſight-vane. 4. A magnifying glaſs, which is alſo moveable on the other vane. 5. The nonius or vernier. 6. A ſlide for moving the vernier ſo as to ſtop the card in taking the azimuth. 7. A double convex-glaſs, by which the diviſion on the vernier may be read with accuracy.

Fig. 4. Fig. 4. is a ſection repreſenting another application of the magnetic needle and card, conſtructed by Mr M'Culloch. *a a a a*, The common wood-box. *b b*, The braſs compaſs-box. *c c*, The braſs ſupport for the circle and pendulum. *d*, The pendulum. *e*, The agate. *f f*, The magnetic needle and card. *g g*, The braſs circle. *h h*, The glaſs cover and braſs ring. *i*, The lead weight. *N. B.* All the centres of motion are in the ſame plane.

"In one particular this patent compaſs is conſidered as an improvement on the common compaſſes, in as far as the needle is both longer and broader; hence its magnetiſm muſt be ſtronger, and of courſe the line of its magnetic direction correſpondent with the card. In another particular, in order to prevent the motions of the veſſel from affecting the needle, which is the moſt deſirable object, the patent compaſs-box, inſtead of ſwinging in gimbals at right angles to each other, is ſupported in its very centre upon a prop; and whatever motion the other parts of the box may have, this centre being in the vertex of the hollow cone, may be conſidered as relatively at reſt; and therefore gives little or no diſturbance to the needle. Again, the pivot or centre upon which the needle turns, is ſo contrived as to ſtand always perpendicular over the centre of the compaſs-box, or apex of the hollow cone, as upon a fixed point; and is therefore ſtill leſs affected by the motions of the veſſel. Thus the centres of motion, gravity, and of magnetiſm, are brought almoſt all to the ſame point; the advantages of which will be readily perceived by any perſon acquainted with mechanical principles." *M'Culloch's Account.*

The following is a deſcription of Dr Knight's azimuth compaſs, with the improvements of Mr Smeaton. Plate CLI. fig. 6. is a perſpective view of the compaſs, when in order for obſervation; the point of view being the centre of the card, and the diſtance of the eye two feet. AB is the wooden box. C and D are two milled nuts; by means whereof the axes of the inner box and ring are taken from their edges on which they move, and the friction increaſed, when neceſſary. EF is the ring that ſupports the inner box. GH is the inner box; and I is one of its axes, by which it is ſuſpended on the ring EF. The magnet or needle appears paſſing through the centre together with a ſmall brace of ivory, that confines the cap to its place. The card is a ſingle varniſhed paper, reaching as far as the outer circle of figures, which is a circle of thin braſs; the edge whereof is turned down at right angles to the plane of the card, to make it grow ſtiff. O is a catgut line, drawn down the inſide of the box, for determining the degree upon a braſs edge. PQRS is the index bar, with its two ſtiles and catgut threads; which being taken off from the top of the box, is placed in two pieces, T and V, notched properly to receive it. W is a place cut out in the wood, ſerving as a handle.

The uſe of the azimuth compaſs is for finding the ſun's magnetical azimuth, or amplitude; and thence the variation of the compaſs. If the obſervation be for an amplitude at ſun-riſing, or for an azimuth before noon, apply the centre of the index on the weſt point of the card, within the box; ſo that the four lines on the edge of the card, and thoſe on the inſide of the box, may meet. If the obſervation be for the ſun's amplitude ſetting, or an azimuth in the afternoon, turn the centre of the index right againſt the eaſt point of the card, and make the lines within the box concur with thoſe on the card: the inſtrument thus fitted for obſervation, turn the index *b c* towards the ſun, till the ſhadow of the thread *a e* fall directly on the ſlit of the ſight, and on the line that is along the middle of the index: then will the inner edge of the index cut the degree and minute of the ſun's magnetical azimuth from the north or ſouth. But note, that if, when the compaſs is thus placed, the azimuth is leſs than 54° from

Compaſs. from the ſouth, and the index turned towards the ſun, it will paſs off the diviſions of the limb: the inſtrument therefore in this caſe muſt be turned juſt a quarter of the compaſs, i. e. the centre of the index muſt be placed on the north or ſouth point of the card, according as the ſun is from you; and then the edge will cut the degree of the magnetic azimuth, or the ſun's azimuth, from the north as before.

The ſun's magnetical amplitude thus found, the variation of the needle is thus determined. Being out at ſea the 15th of May, 1717, in 45° north latitude, the tables gave me the ſun's latitude 19° north, and his eaſt amplitude, 27° 25′ north; by the azimuth compaſs, I find the ſun's magnetical amplitude at his riſing and ſetting; and find he riſes, *e. gr.* between the 62d and 63d degree, reckoning from the north towards the eaſt point of the compaſs, i. e. between the 27th and 28th degree, reckoning from the eaſt. The magnetical amplitude, therefore, being here equal to the true one, the needle has no variation; but if the ſun at his riſing ſhould have appeared between the 52d and 53d degree from the north towards the eaſt, his magnetical amplitude would then have been between 37 and 38 degrees, i. e. about ten degrees greater than the true amplitude: therefore the needle would vary about 10 degrees north-eaſterly. If the magnetical eaſt amplitude found by the inſtrument ſhould be leſs than the true amplitude, their difference would ſhow the variation of the needle eaſterly. If the true eaſt amplitude be ſouthward, as alſo the magnetical amplitude, and this laſt be the greater; the variation of the needle will be north-weſt; and *vice verſa*.

What has been ſaid of north-eaſt amplitudes holds alſo of ſouth-weſt; and what of ſouth-eaſt amplitudes holds of north-weſt. Laſtly, if amplitudes be found of different denominations, *e. gr.* if the true amplitude be ſix degrees north, and the magnetical amplitude be ſix degrees ſouth; the variation, which in this caſe is north-weſt, will be equal to the ſum of the magnetical and true amplitudes; underſtand the ſame for weſt amplitudes.

The variation may likewiſe be found from the azimuth: but in that caſe the ſun's declination, latitude of the place, and his altitude, muſt be given, that his true azimuth may be found.

This inſtrument is alſo uſeful for ſettling the ſhip's wake, in order to find the leeway; and alſo to find the bearings of headlands and other objects.

Experience evinces, that the needle of a compaſs, like every other magnet, whether natural or artificial, continually loſes ſomething of its magnetic powers, which frequently produces a difference of more than a point; and we may venture to aſſert, that the great errors in ſhips reckonings more commonly originate from the incorrectneſs of the compaſs than from any other cauſe.

Steel cannot be too highly tempered for the needle of a ſea-compaſs, as the more it is hardened, the more permanent is the magnetiſm it receives; but to preſerve the magnetiſm, and of courſe the polarity of the needle, it ſhould be caſed with thin, well-poliſhed, ſoft iron. It has been found by repeated experiments, that the caſed needle preſerves its magnetiſm in a more perfect degree than a needle not caſed; and perhaps the magnetic power of the caſed needle may increaſe, while that of the uncaſed needle loſes of its polarity.

This is not an opinion haſtily adopted, but the reſult of a fair and judicious trial, as the gentleman from whom the above obſervations were in ſubſtance taken, placed a caſed and uncaſed needle in a room for three months, having at firſt exactly the ſame direction, and about the ſame degree of force. At the end of this period it was found that the caſed needle had not in the leaſt changed its direction, while the uncaſed had varied two degrees, and its magnetic power was conſiderably diminiſhed.

Theſe remarks have the air of novelty, and may perhaps contribute to the improvement of the compaſs. But the defects of this inſtrument are not confined to the needle. The heavieſt braſs compaſſes are not to be implicitly truſted in a hollow or high ſea, as they have the box hanging in two braſs rings, thus allowing it to have only two motions, both vertical and at right angles with each other; by which confinement of the box, upon any ſuccuſſion, particularly ſudden ones, the card is always too much agitated, and before it can recover itſelf, another jerk prevents it from pointing to the pole. It is even not uncommon to ſee the card unſhipped by the violence of the ſhip's pitching.

All theſe defects are abundantly ſupplied by giving the box a vertical motion at every degree and minute of the circle, and combining theſe motions with a horizontal one of the box as well as of the card. By this diſpoſition of the box, the effects of the jerks on the card are avoided, and it will always with ſteadineſs point to the pole. Mr Bernard Romans found by experience, that the card not only is not in the ſmalleſt degree affected by the hollow ſea, but that, in all the violent ſhocks and whirlings which it is poſſible for the box to receive, the card lies as ſtill as in a room unaffected by the leaſt motion.

A compaſs was recently invented and made in Holland having all theſe motions. It is about the ſize of the braſs compaſs commonly uſed. The bottom of the braſs box, inſtead of being ſhaped like a bowl, muſt be a hollow cone reſembling the bottom of a common glaſs bottle; the vertex of it muſt be raiſed ſo high as to leave only one inch between the card and the glaſs; the box muſt be of the uſual depth, and a quantity of lead muſt be poured in the bottom of the box, round the baſe of the cone, which ſecures it on the ſtile whereon it traverſes.

This ſtile is firmly fixed in the centre of a ſquare wooden box, like the common compaſs, but with a thicker bottom. The ſtile is made of braſs about ſix inches long, round, and one-third of an inch thick, having its head blunt like that of a ſewing thimble, and of a fine poliſh, and placed perpendicular. The inner vertex of the cone muſt likewiſe be well poliſhed. The vertical part of the cone ought to be ſufficiently thick to allow a well-poliſhed cavity for holding a ſhort ſtile, proceeding from the centre of the card on which it traverſes. "The compaſs I ſaw, (ſays Mr Romans), was ſo conſtructed; but I ſee no reaſon why the ſtyle might not proceed from the centre of the vertex of the cone, and ſo be received by the card the common way. The needle muſt be a magnetic

Compaſs. netic bar, blunt at each end; the glaſs and cover are put on in the common way."

The above gentleman informs us, that a ſimilar compaſs was ſubmitted to his inſpection by the captain of a ſloop of war, who declared, that during a hard gale of ſome days continuance, he had no other compaſs that was of the ſmalleſt uſe. In the opinion of Mr Romans the account was not exaggerated; in which concluſion we are diſpoſed to join iſſue with him.

Yet Mr Nicholſon in his intereſting journal is of an oppoſite ſentiment, who believes that the compaſs is very little diſturbed by tilting the box on one ſide, but very much by ſudden changes of place in a horizontal direction; that proviſion made againſt the latter in a ſcientific manner is the chief requiſite in a well conſtructed inſtrument of this nature; and that no other proviſion is neceſſary than good workmanſhip agreeably to the common conſtruction, and properly adjuſting the weight reſpecting the centres and axes of ſuſpenſion. He conceives it will improve the compaſs very much to make the needle flat and thin, and to ſuſpend it, not in the common way, with its flat ſide, but with its edge uppermoſt; for, as it is known that hard ſteel retains its magnetiſm longer than ſoft, it follows that, except both ſides of a needle be equally hard, the magnetic virtue will incline towards the harder ſide in proceſs of time.

The Chineſe compaſs has ſome advantages over the European, from which it differs in the length of the needle, and the manner of its ſuſpenſion. The needle of the Chineſe ſeldom exceeds an inch in length, and is ſcarcely a line in thickneſs. It is poiſed with great nicety, and is remarkably ſenſible. This is effected by the following contrivance.

A piece of thin copper is ſtrapped round the centre of the needle. This copper is rivetted by its edges to the upper part of a ſmall hemiſpherical cup of the ſame metal, turned downwards. The cup thus inverted ſerves as a ſocket to receive a ſteel pivot riſing from a cavity made in a round piece of light wood or cork, which forms the compaſs-box. The ſurfaces of the ſocket and pivot, intended to coincide, are highly poliſhed, to prevent friction as much as poſſible. The cup has a proportionably broad margin, which not only adds to its weight, but from its horizontal poſition tends to keep the centre of gravity, in every ſituation of the compaſs, nearly coinciding with the centre of ſuſpenſion. The cavity in which the needle is ſuſpended, is circular, and little more than capable to remove the needle, cup and pivot. A thin piece of tranſparent talc is placed over the cavity, which hinders the needle from being affected by the motion of the external air; but allows the apparent motion of the former to be eaſily obſerved. The ſmall ſhort needle of the Chineſe has a ſingular advantage over thoſe commonly uſed in Europe, in reſpect of the dip towards the horizon; which, in the latter, requires that one extremity of the needle ſhould be made ſo much heavier than the other as will ſufficiently counteract the magnetic attraction. This being different in different parts of the world, the needle can only be accurately true at the place for which it has been conſtructed. But in ſhort and light needles, ſuſpended after the Chineſe manner, the weight below the point of ſuſpenſion is more than ſufficient to overcome the magnetic dip in all ſituations of the globe; and conſequently ſuch needles will never deviate from their horizontal poſition. Compaſs.

Compass is alſo an inſtrument of conſiderable uſe in ſurveying land, dialing, &c.

Its ſtructure, in the main, is the ſame with that of the mariner's compaſs; conſiſting like that of a box and needle: the principal difference conſiſts in this, that inſtead of the needle's being fitted into the card, and playing with it on a pivot, it here plays alone; the card being drawn on the bottom of the box, and a circle divided into 360 degrees on the limb. See fig. 5. This inſtrument is of obvious uſe to travellers, to direct them in their road; and to miners, to ſhow them what way to dig, with other conſiderable uſes. Plate CL. fig. 5.

1. *To take the declination of a wall by the Compaſs.* Apply that ſide of the compaſs whereon the north is marked along the ſide of the wall; the number of degrees over which the north end of the needle fixes will be the declination of the wall, and on that ſide; e. gr. if the north point of the needle tends towards the north, that wall may be ſhone on by the ſun at noon; if it fix over fifty degrees, counting from the north towards the eaſt, the declination is ſo many degrees from north towards eaſt.

But ſince the needle itſelf declines from the north towards the weſt, with us, 13°; it muſt be noted, that to retrieve the irregularity, 13° are always to be added to the degrees ſhown by the needle, when the declination of the wall is towards the eaſt; on the contrary, when the declination is towards the weſt, the declination of the needle is to be ſubtracted.

2. *To take an angle with the Compaſs.* Suppoſe the angle required be DAE, fig. 4. apply that ſide of the compaſs whereon the north is marked to one of the lines AD: when the needle reſts, obſerve the degrees at which its north point ſtands, which ſuppoſe 80: ſo many degrees does the line decline from the meridian. In the ſame manner take the declination of the line AE, which ſuppoſe 215°; ſubtract 80° from 215°, the remainder is 135°; which ſubtracted from 180°, there will remain 45°; the quantity of the angle required. But if the difference between the declination of the two lines exceed 180°; in that caſe, 180° muſt be ſubtracted from that difference; the remainder then is the angle required. Fig. 4.

In meaſuring angles by the compaſs, there needs not any regard be had to the variation; that being ſuppoſed the ſame in all the lines of the angles.

3. *To take a plot of a field by the Compaſs.* Suppoſe the field A, B, C, D, E, fig. 10. for the greater accuracy let there be two ſights fitted to the meridian line of the compaſs; place it horizontally, and through the ſights look along the ſide AB, or a line parallel to it; applying the eye to the ſight at the ſouth point of the compaſs. Draw a rough ſketch of the field by the eye, and on the correſponding line enter down the degree to which the needle points, which ſuppoſe 90°; meaſure the length of the ſide, and enter that too, which ſuppoſe 10 chains. Fig. 10.

In this manner proceed with all the reſt of the ſides and angles of the field; the ſides, which ſuppoſe 70, 65, 70, 44, 50 fathom; and the angles, which ſuppoſe 30, 100, 130, 240, 300 degrees. To protract the field, ſet down the ſeveral angles obſerved, one after

Compaſs, Compaſſes.

after another, and ſubtract the leſſer from the next greater: thus will you have the quantity of the ſeveral angles, and the length of the lines that include them. For the reſt, ſee GEOMETRY.

Note. All the angles of the figure taken together, muſt make twice as many right angles; abating two if no miſtake has been committed.

Azimuth COMPASS. See AZIMUTH.

COMPASS-Dials, are ſmall horizontal dials, fitted in braſs or ſilver boxes, for the pocket, to ſhow the hour of the day, by the direction of a needle that indicates how to place them right, by turning the dial about till the cock or ſtyle ſtands directly over the needle; but theſe can never be very exact, becauſe of the variation of the needle itſelf. See COMPASS and DIALING.

COMPASSES, or *Pair of* COMPASSES, a mathematical inſtrument for deſcribing circles, meaſuring figures, &c.

The common compaſſes conſiſt of two ſharp-pointed branches or legs of iron, ſteel, braſs, or other metal, joined together at the top by a rivet, whereon they move as on a centre. Thoſe compaſſes are of the beſt ſort in which the pin or axle on which the joint turns, and alſo half the joint itſelf, is made of ſteel, as the oppoſite metals wear more equably. The perfection of them may be known by the eaſy and uniform opening and ſhutting of their legs; one of which is ſometimes made to take in and out, in order to make room for two other points to deſcribe with ink, black-lead or other materials.

There are now uſed compaſſes of various kinds and contrivances, accommodated to the various uſes they are intended for; as,

COMPASSES of three legs, or *Triangular Compaſſes*, are, ſetting aſide the exceſs of a leg, of the ſame ſtructure with the common ones; their uſe being to take three points at once, and ſo to form triangles; to lay down three poſitions of a map, to be copied at once, &c.

Beam-COMPASSES conſiſt of a long branch, or beam, made of braſs or wood, carrying two braſs curſors, the one fixed at one end, the other ſliding along the beam, with a ſcrew to faſten it occaſionally. To the curſors may be ſcrewed points of any kind, whether ſteel for pencils, or the like. It is uſed to draw large circles, to take great extents, &c. To the fixed curſor is ſometimes applied an adjuſting or micrometer ſcrew, by which an extent is obtained to extreme nicety. Mr Jones of Holborn has made beam-compaſſes to adjuſt to the $\frac{1}{1000}$dth of an inch.

Calibre-COMPASSES. See CALIBER.

Clockmaker's COMPASSES are joined like the common compaſſes, with a quadrant, or bow, like the ſpring compaſſes; only of different uſe, ſerving here to keep the inſtrument firm at any opening. They are made very ſtrong, with the points of their legs of well tempered ſteel, as being uſed to draw lines on paſteboard or copper.

Cylindrical and Spherical COMPASSES, conſiſt of four branches, joined in a centre, two of which are circular, and two flat, a little bent on the ends: their uſe is to take the diameter, thickneſs, or caliber of round or cylindric bodies; ſuch as cannons, pipes, &c.

Plate CL. fig. 9.

Elliptic COMPASSES. Their uſe is to draw ellipſes, or ovals of any kind: they conſiſt of a beam AB about a foot long, bearing three curſors; to one of which may be ſcrewed points of any kind: to the bottom of the other two are rivetted two ſliding dove-tails, adjuſted in grooves made in the croſs branches of the beam. The dove-tails having a motion every way by turning about the long branch, go backwards and forwards along the croſs; ſo that when the beam has gone half-way about, one of theſe will have moved the whole length of one of the branches; and when the beam has got quite round, the ſame dove-tail has got back the whole length of the branch. Underſtand the ſame of the other dove-tail.

Note. The diſtance between the two ſliding dove-tails is the diſtance between the two foci of the ellipſis; ſo that by changing that diſtance, the ellipſis will be rounder or ſlender. Under the ends of the branches of the croſs are placed four ſteel points to keep it faſt.

The uſe of this compaſs is eaſy; by turning round the long branch, the ink, pencil, or other point, will draw the ellipſis required. Its figure ſhows both its uſe and conſtruction.

German COMPASSES have their legs a little bent outwards, towards the top; ſo that when ſhut, the points only meet.

Hair COMPASSES are ſo contrived within ſide, by a ſmall adjuſting ſcrew to one of the legs, as to take an extent to a hair's breadth.

Lapidary's COMPASSES are a piece of wood, in form of the ſhaft of a plane, cleft at top, as far as half its length; with this they meaſure the angles, &c. of jewels and precious ſtones, as they cut them. There is in the cleft a little braſs rule, faſtened there at one end by a pin; but ſo that it may be moved in the manner of a braſs level: with this kind of ſquare they take the angles of the ſtones, laying them on the ſhaft as they cut them.

Proportional COMPASSES are thoſe whoſe joint lies between the points terminating each leg: they are either ſimple or compound. In the former ſort the centre is fixed, ſo that one pair of theſe ſerves only for one proportion.

Plate CLI. fig. 6.

Compound proportional COMPASSES conſiſt of two parts or ſides of braſs, which lie upon each other ſo nicely as to appear but one when they are ſhut. Theſe ſides eaſily open, and move about a centre, which is itſelf moveable in a hollow canal cut through the greateſt part of their length. To this centre on each ſide is affixed a ſliding piece A of a ſmall length, with a fine line drawn on it ſerving as an index, to be ſet againſt other lines or diviſions placed upon the compaſſes on both ſides. Theſe lines are, 1. A line of lines. 2. A line of ſuperfices, areas, or planes. 3. A line of ſolids. 4. A line of circles, or rather of polygons to be inſcribed in circles. Theſe lines are all unequally divided; the three firſt from 1 to 20, the laſt from 6 to 20. Their uſes are as follow:

By the line of lines you divide a given line into any number of equal parts; for by placing the index A againſt 1, and ſcrewing it faſt, if you open the compaſſes, then the diſtance between the points at each end will be equal. If you place the index againſt 2, and open the compaſſes, the diſtance between the points of the longer legs BB, will be twice the diſtance between the ſhorter ones CC; and thus a line is biſected, or divided into two equal parts. If the index be placed

COINING.

PLATE CL.

Fig. 1.

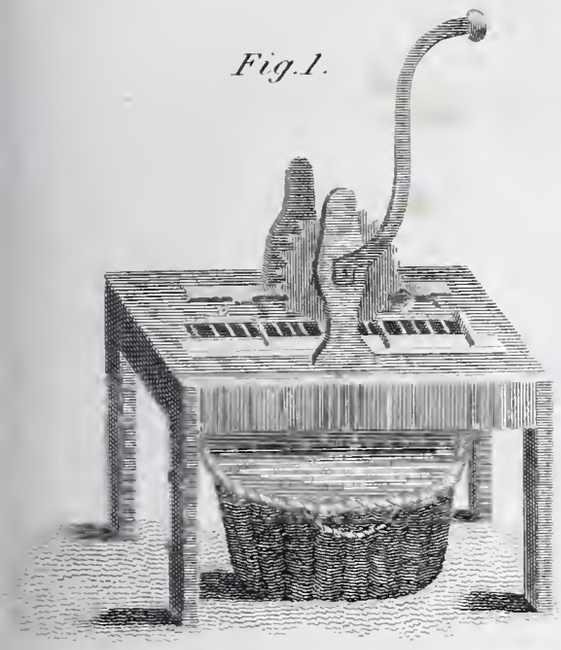


Fig. 2.

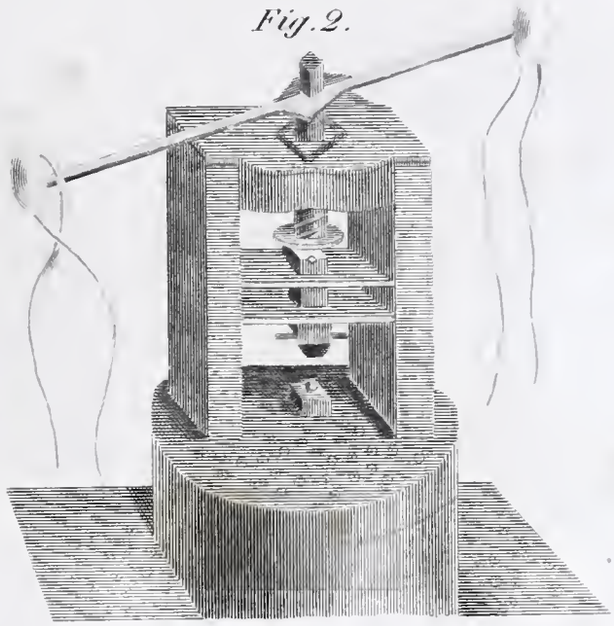
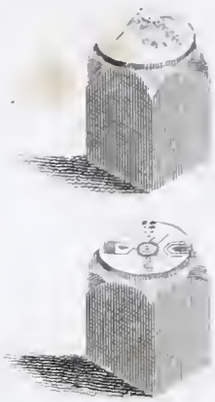


Fig. 3.



COMPASS.

Fig. 4.

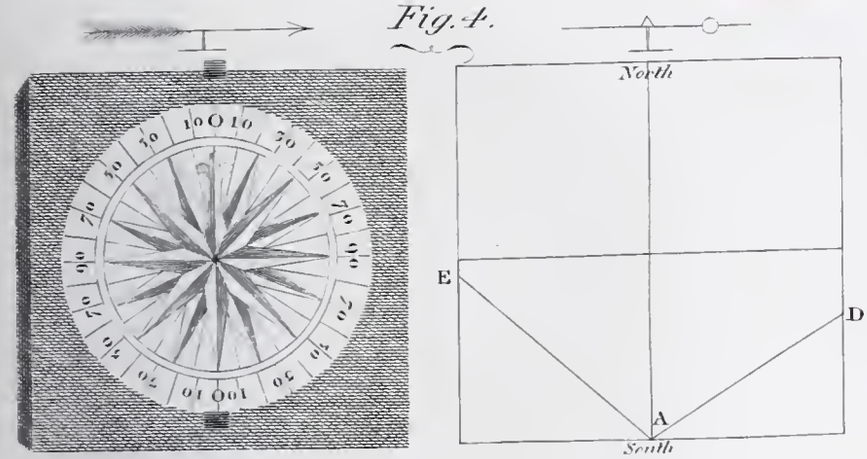


Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

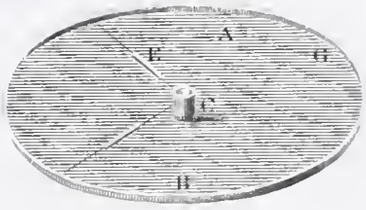


Fig. 9.

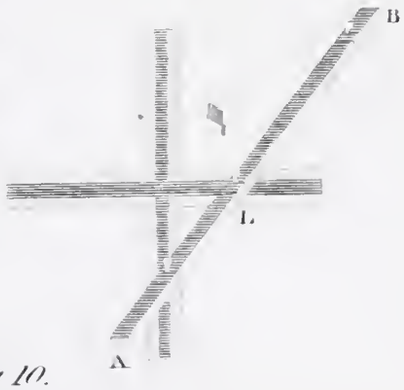


Fig. 5.

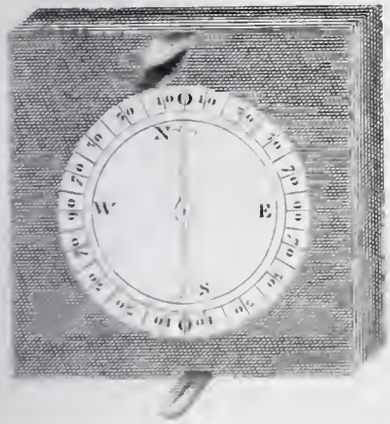


Fig. 6.

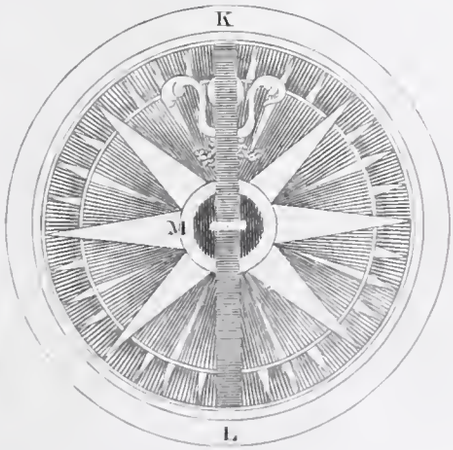


Fig. 10.

Fig. 1.

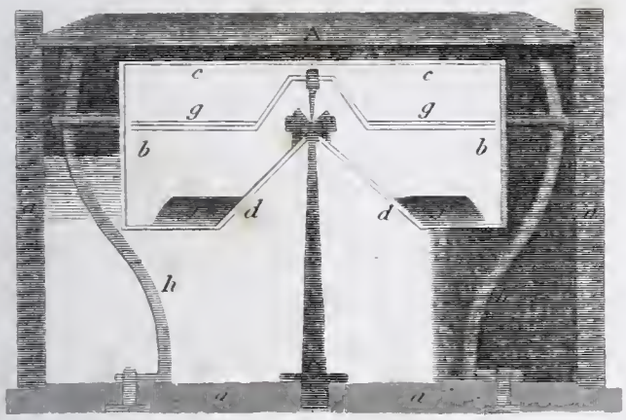


Fig. 2.

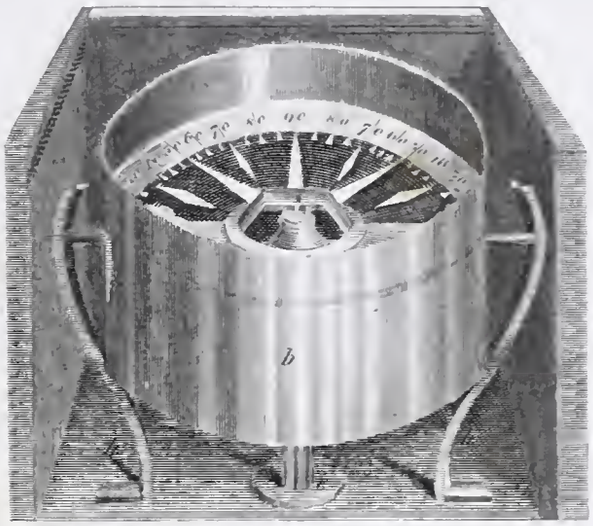


Fig. 3.

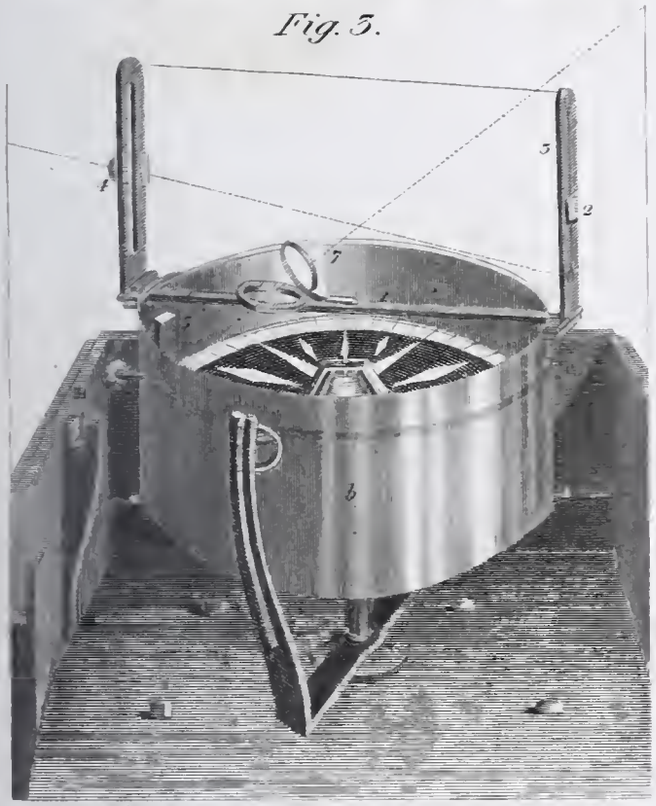


Fig. 4.

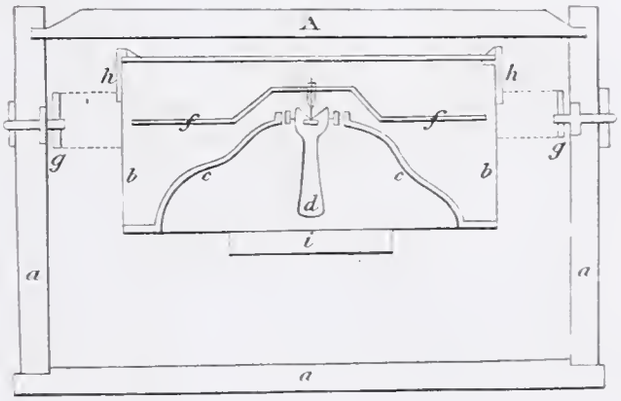


Fig. 5.

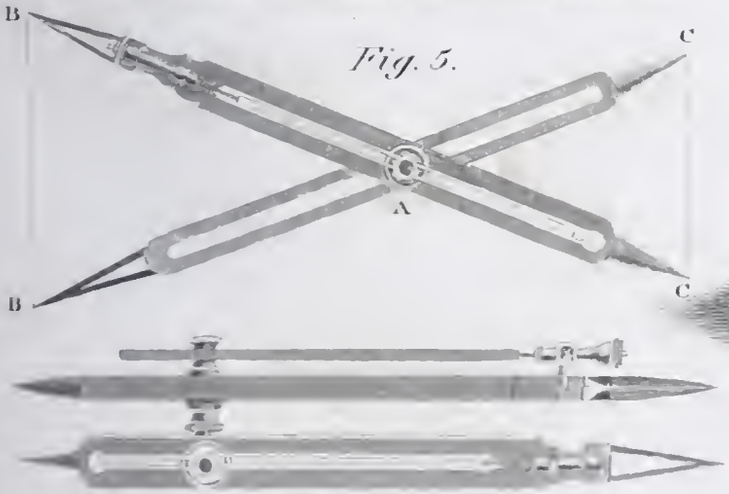
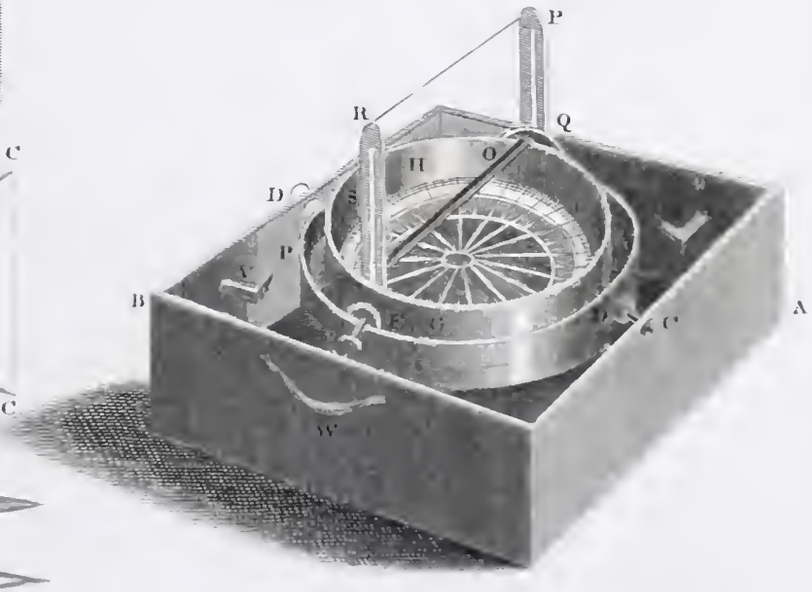


Fig. 6.



Compasses. against 3, and the compasses opened; the distance between the points will be as 3 to 1, and so a line is divided into 3 equal parts; and so you proceed for any other number of parts under 10.

The numbers of the line of planes answer to the squares of those in the line of lines; for because superfices or planes are to each other as the squares of their like sides; therefore, if the index be placed against 2 in the line of planes, the distance between the small point will be the side of a plane whose area is one; but the distance of the larger points will be the like side of a plane whose area is two; or twice as large. If the index be placed at 3, and the compasses opened, the distances between the points at each end will be the like side of planes whose areas are as 1 to 3; and so of others.

The numbers of the line of solids answer to the cubes of those of the line of lines; because all solids are to each other as the cubes of their sides or diameters; therefore, if the index be placed to number 2, 3, 4, &c. in the line of solids, the distance between the lesser and larger points will be the like sides of solids, which are to each other as 1 to 2, 1 to 3, 1 to 4, &c. For example; If the index be placed at 10, and the compasses be opened so that the small points may take the diameter of a bullet whose weight is one ounce, the distance between the large points will be the diameter of a bullet or globe of 10 ounces, or which is 10 times as large.

Lastly, The numbers in the line of circles are the sides of polygons to be inscribed in a given circle, or by which a circle may be divided into the equal parts, from 6 to 20. Thus, if the index be placed at 6, the points of the compasses at either end, when opened to the radius of a given circle, will contain the side of a hexagon, or divide the circle into six equal parts. If the index be placed against 7, and the compasses opened so that the larger points may take in the radius of the circle, then the shorter points will divide the circle into seven equal parts for inscribing a heptagon. Again, placing the index to 8, and opening the compasses, the larger points will contain the radius, and the lesser points divide the circle into eight equal parts for inscribing an octagon or square. And thus you may proceed for others.

Proportional COMPASSES *with the sector lines.* The structure of these is so like that of the common proportional compasses, only a little nicer, that it needs no particular description. The lines on the first face are the line of lines, marked *lines;* it is divided into 100 equal parts, every tenth numbered; and the line of chords, which goes to 60°, is marked *chords.* On the other face are a line of sines to 90°, and a line of tangents to 45°. On one side are the tangents from 45° to 71° 34′; on the other, secants from 0° to 70° 30′.

For the use of these compasses: 1. To divide a line into any number of equal parts less than 100: divide 100 by the number of parts required; slip the cursor till the line on the sliding dove-tail be against the quotient on the line of lines: then, the whole line being taken between the points of the compasses most remote from the centre, the aperture of the other will show the division required. 2. A right line given, supposed to be divided into 100 parts, to take any number of those parts; slip the line on the sliding dove-tail to the number of parts required: the whole line being taken between the points farthest from the centre, the aperture of the other two will include the number of divisions required. 3. The radius being given, to find the chord of any other under 60°; slip the line on the sliding dove-tail to the degrees required on the line of chords: the radius being taken between the points farthest from the centre of the cursor; the aperture of the other line will be the chord required, provided the number of degrees be greater than 29: if it be less, the aperture taken from the radius will leave the chord required. 4. If the chord of an arch under 60° be given, and the radius required; slip the line on the dove-tail to the degrees given on the line of chords: the given chord being taken between the two points next the cursor, the aperture of the other will be the radius required. 5. The radius being given, to find the sine of any number of degrees; slip the line on the dove-tail to the degree on the line of sines whose sine is required: the radius taken between the points furthest from the cursor, the aperture of the other will give the sine of the angle required. But if the sine sought be less than 30°, the difference of the apertures of the opposite points will be the sine required. 6. The radius being given, to find the tangent of any number of degrees under 71; if the tangent required be under 26° 30′, then slip the line on the dove-tail to the degree proposed on the tangent line; the radius taken between the points farthest from the cursor, the aperture of the others will be the tangent of the degrees required; if the tangent required be above 26° 30′, but under 45°, the line on the cursor must be slipped to the degrees given on the tangent line; then the radius being taken between the points furthest from the cursor, the aperture of the others will be the tangent. If the tangent required be greater than 45°, but less than 56° 20′, slip the notch on the tangent side of the turned-cheek to the degree 0 in the tangent line on the side of the compass; the radius taken between the points furthest from the cursor; the difference between the aperture of the other and these, added together, will be the tangent required. Thus, for the tangents of the degrees under 71. After the like manner may the secant of any number of degrees under 71 be found.

Mr Heath, a mathematical instrument-maker in London, constructed a pair of proportional compasses, in 1746, with a curious and useful contrivance for preventing the shorter legs from changing their position, when these compasses were used. It consisted of a small beam soldered to a screw, and running parallel to the leg of the compasses nearly of the length of the groove; in this beam a slit was made, which admitted of a sliding-nut, the other end of which fell into a hole in the bottom of the screw, belonging to the great nut of the compasses. The screw-pin of the beam passed through an adjuster, by means of which the mark on the slider might be brought exactly to any division. But the proportional compasses have been much out of use since the invention of the sector.

Spring COMPASSES, or dividers; those with an arched head, which by its spring opens the legs; the opening being directed by a circular screw fastened to one of the legs and let through the other, worked with

Compasses || Competition.

with a nut. These compasses are made of hardened steel.

Trisecting COMPASSES consist of two central rules, and an arch of circles of 120 degrees, immoveable, with its radius, which is fastened with one of the central rules like the two legs of a sector, that the central rule may be carried through all the points of the circumference or the arch. The radius and rule should be as thin as possible: and the rule fastened to the radius should be hammered cold, to attain the greater elasticity; and the breadth of the central rule should be triple that of the radius; there must also be a groove in this rule, with a dove-tail fastened on it for its motion, and a hole in the centre of each rule. The use of this instrument is to facilitate the trisection of angles geometrically; and it is said to have been invented by M. Targen for that purpose.

*Turn-up-*COMPASSES. The body of this instrument is like the common compasses; but towards the bottom of the legs, without-side, are added two other points besides the usual ones; the one whereof carries a drawing pen point, and the other a port-crayon, both adjusted so as to turn round, and be in the way of use, or out of it, as occasion requires. These compasses have been contrived to save the trouble of changing the points.

COMPASSION, or COMMISERATION, in *Ethics*, a mixed passion compounded of love and sorrow, and excited by the sight or recital of distress. Hobbes makes this a merely selfish passion, and defines it as being fear for ourselves; Hutcheson resolves it into instinct; but Dr Butler, much more properly, considers compassion as an original, distinct, particular affection in human nature.

COMPATIBLE, something that may suit or consist with another. See INCOMPATIBLE.

COMPEIGNE, a handsome town of France, in the department of Oise, with a palace or castle, where the king often resided. The maid of Orleans was taken prisoner here in 1430. It is seated on the river Oise, near a large forest. E. Long. 2. 55. N. Lat. 49. 25. It stands about 45 miles north-east of Paris.

COMPENDIUM, in matters of literature, denotes much the same as epitome or abridgement. See ABRIDGEMENT.

COMPENSATION, in a general sense, an action whereby any thing is admitted as an equivalent to another.

COMPENSATION, in *Law*. When the same person is debtor and creditor to another, the mutual obligations, if they are for equal sums, are extinguished by compensation; if for unequal, the lesser obligation is extinguished, and the greater diminished, as far as the concourse of debt and credit goes.

COMPETENCE, or COMPETENCY, in a general sense, such a quantity of any thing as is sufficient.

COMPETENCY, in *Law*, the right or authority of a judge, whereby he takes cognizance of any thing.

COMPETENTES, an order of catechumens, in the primitive Christian church, being the immediate candidates for baptism. See CATECHUMEN.

COMPETITION, in a general sense, is the same with rivalship, or when two or more persons contend for the same thing.

COMPETITION, in *Scots Law*. In escheats, see LAW, Part III. N° clxvi. 17, &c. In confirmations by the superior, in resignations, and in personal rights of lands, *ibid.* clxviii. 5—9. In inhibitions, in adjudication, amongst assignees, arresters, and poinders, *ibid.* clxxi. 6. clxxii. 3. clxxvii. 2. clxxviii. 8, 9, 10. Amongst creditors of a defunct, clxxxi. 19.

COMPETALIA, or COMPITALITA, feasts held among the ancients in honour of the *lares*. The word comes from the Latin, *compitum*, a cross-way; because the feast was held in the meeting of several roads. The *compitalia* are more ancient than the building of Rome. Dionysius Halicarnasseus, and Pliny, indeed say, they were instituted by Servius Tullius; but this only signifies that they were then introduced into Rome. The feast being moveable, the day whereon it was to be observed was proclaimed every year. It was ordinarily held on the 4th of the nones of February, i. e. on the 2d of that month. Macrobius observes, that they were held not only in honour of the *lares*, but also of *mania*, madness. The priests who officiated at them were slaves and liberti, and the sacrifice a sow. They were re-established, after a long neglect, by Tarquin the Proud, on occasion of an answer of the oracle, *that they should sacrifice heads for heads*; i. e. that for the health and prosperity of each family, children were to be sacrificed: but Brutus, after expelling the kings, in lieu of those barbarous victims substituted the heads of garlic and poppy; thus satisfying the oracle which had enjoined *capita*, heads. During the celebration of this feast, each family placed at the door of their house the statue of the goddess *Mania*: they also hung up at their doors figures of wool, representing men and women; accompanying them with supplications that the lares and mania would be contented with those figures, and spare the people of the house.

COMPLEMENT, in *Geometry*, is what remains of the quadrant of a circle, or 90°, after any certain arch has been taken away from it. Thus, if the arch taken away be 40°, its complement is 50; because $50+40=90$. The sine of the complement of an arch is called the *cosine*, and that of the tangent the *cotangent*, &c.

COMPLETUS FLOS, in *Botany*. A flower is said to be complete, which is provided with both the covers, viz. the calyx or flower-cup, and the petals. The term was invented by Vaillant, and is synonymous with *calyculatus flos* in Linnæus. Berkenhout erroneously confounds it with the *auctus* and *calyculatus calyx* of the same author.

COMPLEX, in a more general sense, a term synonymous with compound; though in strictness of speech there is some difference.

COMPLEX is properly applied where a thing contains many others, or consists of different parts not really distinct from each other, but only imaginarily, or in our conceptions. In this sense the soul may be said to be complex, in respect of the understanding and will, which are two things that our reason alone distinguishes in it.

COMPLEX Term, or *Idea*, is a term compounded of several simple or incomplex ones. Thus, in the proposition, *a just God cannot leave crimes unpunished*; the subject of this proposition, viz. *a just God*, is a complex

Complex, Complexion.

plex term, or ſtands for a complex idea compoſed of two ſimple or incomplex ones, viz. *God* and *juſt*.

COMPLEXION, among phyſicians, the temperament, habitude, and natural diſpoſition, of the body; but more often the colour of the face and ſkin.

Few queſtions in philoſophy have engaged the attention of naturaliſts more than the diverſities among the human ſpecies, among which that of colour is the moſt remarkable. The great differences in this reſpect have given occaſion to ſeveral authors to aſſert, that the whole human race have not ſprung from one original; but that as many different ſpecies of men were at firſt created as there are now different colours to be found among them. Under the article AMERICA, N° 81—100, we have ſhown that all the arguments which can be brought for ſpecific differences among mankind, whether drawn from a difference of colour, ſtature, or diſpoſition, muſt neceſſarily be inconcluſive. It remains, however, a matter of no ſmall difficulty to account for the remarkable variations of colour that are to be found among different nations. On this ſubject Dr Hunter has publiſhed a theſis, in which he conſiders the matter more accurately than has commonly been done, and determines abſolutely againſt any ſpecific difference among mankind. He introduces his ſubject by obſerving, that when the queſtion has been agitated, whether all the human race conſtituted only one ſpecies or not, much confuſion has ariſen from the ſenſe in which the term *ſpecies* has been adopted. He therefore thinks it neceſſary to ſet out with a definition of the term. He includes under the ſame ſpecies all thoſe animals which produce iſſue capable of propagating others reſembling the original ſtock from whence they ſprung. This definition he illuſtrates by having recourſe to the human ſpecies as an example. And in this ſenſe of the term he concludes, that all of them are to be conſidered as belonging to the ſame ſpecies. And as, in the caſe of plants, one ſpecies comprehends ſeveral varieties depending upon climate, ſoil, culture, and ſimilar accidents; ſo he conſiders the diverſities of the human race to be merely varieties of the ſame ſpecies, produced by natural cauſes. Of the different colours obſervable among mankind, he gives the following view:

BLACK. Africans under the line.
Inhabitants of New Guinea.
Inhabitants of New Holland.

SWARTHY. The Moors in the northern parts of Africa.
The Hottentots in the ſouthern parts of it.

COPPER COLOURED. The Eaſt Indians.

RED COLOURED. The Americans.

BROWN COLOURED. Tartars.
Perſians.
Arabs.
Africans on the coaſt of the Mediterranean.
Chineſe.

BROWNISH. The inhabitants of the ſouthern parts of Europe; as Sicilians, and Spaniards; as well as the Abyſſinians in Africa.

BROWNISH. Turks, and likewiſe the Samoiedes and Laplanders.

WHITE. Moſt of the European nations; as
Swedes,
Danes,
Engliſh,
Germans,
Poles, &c.
Kabardinſki,
Georgians,
Inhabitants of the iſlands in the Pacific ocean.

In attempting to inveſtigate the cauſes of theſe differences, our author obſerves, that there can be no diſpute of the ſeat of colour being placed in the ſkin; that it is not even extended over the whole of this, but confined to that part named the cuticle, conſiſting of the epidermis and reticulum; and that it chiefly occupies the latter of theſe. The cuticle is much thicker and harder in black people than in white ones; the reticulum in the latter being a thin mucus, in the former a thick membrane. He concludes that this ſeat of colour in whites is tranſparent, and either totally deprived of veſſels, or only furniſhed with very few; as the yellow colour appearing in jaundice vaniſhes on the cauſe of the diſeaſe being removed; which is not the caſe with ſtains in the cuticle from gunpowder, or ſimilar cauſes. He next points out three cauſes deſtroying the pellucidity of the cuticle, giving it a brown colour, and rendering it thicker. Theſe are, acceſs of air, naſtineſs, and the heat of the ſun. The influence of each of theſe he proves by many examples; and from them he is inclined to conſider the laſt as by much the moſt powerful. If, however, it be admitted that theſe cauſes have this effect, he thinks that all the diverſity of colour which is to be obſerved among mankind, may be thus accounted for. He remarks, that all the inhabitants of the torrid zone incline more or leſs to a black colour. When we obſerve the differences which occur among them, we muſt at the ſame time remember, that a black colour is not referred to heat alone, but to the other cauſes alſo: and when we attend to the diverſity of temperature that occurs even in the torrid zone, the exiſtence of a white nation there would by no means deſtroy the argument. He is farther of opinion, that the exiſtence of a brown colour, and of conſiderable varieties from white, in the northern and coldeſt parts of Europe, may very eaſily be explained. This he accounts for from the manner of life of the inhabitants, by which they are either expoſed to the inclemency of the air, or to conſtant naſtineſs from ſmoky houſes.

Having thus attempted to account, from natural cauſes, for the varieties which occur among mankind with reſpect to colour, our author obſerves, that, to all this reaſoning, an objection will naturally be made, from conſidering that infants bring theſe marks into the world along with them, before they can be expoſed to any ſuch cauſes. Dr Hunter imagines, however, that this may readily be explained upon the ſuppoſition that many peculiarities acquired by parents are tranſmitted to their poſterity; and of this, he thinks, no one can entertain the leaſt doubt who attends

Complexion.

tends to hereditary diſeaſes. Thus, gout, ſcrophula, mania, and many other affections, although at firſt induced by particular accidents, will continue to affect families for many generations. In the ſame manner a parent expoſed to cauſes deſtroying the natural whiteneſs of his complexion, will beget ſwarthy children; and the ſame cauſes continuing to operate upon the ſon, the blackneſs will be increaſed. Thus all the different ſhades may have been at firſt induced, and afterwards continued.

The objection here obviated, however, might have been ſhortly anſwered by denying the fact; for it is now generally known, that the children of the blackeſt negroes are abſolutely *born white*, as will be afterwards noticed.

This ſubject of complexion has been very well illuſtrated by Mr Clarkſon, in a diſſertation introduced in his Eſſay on the commerce and ſlavery of the human ſpecies. The firſt point that occurs to be aſcertained, is "What part of the ſkin is the ſeat of colour?" The old anatomiſts uſually divide the ſkin into two parts or laminæ; the exterior and thinneſt, called by the Greeks *epidermis*, by the Romans *cuticula*, and hence by us *cuticle*; and the interior, called by the former *derma*, and by the latter *cutis*, or *true ſkin*. Hence they muſt neceſſarily have ſuppoſed, that, as the true ſkin was in every reſpect the ſame in all human ſubjects, however various their external hue, ſo the ſeat of colour muſt have exiſted in the cuticle or upper ſurface.

Malpighi, an eminent Italian phyſician of the laſt century, was the firſt perſon who diſcovered that the ſkin was divided into three laminæ or parts; the cuticle, the true ſkin, and a certain coagulated ſubſtance ſituated between both, which he diſtinguiſhed by the title of *rete mucoſum*; which coagulated ſubſtance adhered ſo firmly to the cuticle, as, in all former anatomical preparations, to have come off with it; and, from this circumſtance, to have led the ancient anatomiſts to believe, that there were but two laminæ, or diviſible portions in the human ſkin. See ANATOMY *Index*.

This diſcovery was ſufficient to aſcertain the point in queſtion; for it appeared afterwards that the cuticle, when divided according to this diſcovery from the other lamina, was ſemitranſparent; that the cuticle of the blackeſt negro was of the ſame tranſparency and colour as that of the pureſt white; and hence the true ſkins of both being invariably the ſame, that the rete mucoſum was the ſeat of colour.

This has been farther confirmed by all ſubſequent anatomical experiments; by which it appears, that whatever is the colour of this intermediate coagulated ſubſtance, nearly the ſame is the apparent colour of the upper ſurface of the ſkin. Neither can it be otherwiſe; for the cuticle, from its tranſparency, muſt neceſſarily tranſmit the colour of the ſubſtance beneath it, in the ſame manner, though not in the ſame degree, as the cornea tranſmits the colour of the iris of the eye. This tranſparency is a matter of ocular demonſtration in white people. It is conſpicuous in every bluſh; for no one can imagine that the cuticle becomes red as often as this happens: nor is it leſs diſcoverable in the veins, which are ſo eaſy to be diſcerned; for no one can ſuppoſe that the blue ſtreaks, which he conſtantly ſees in the faireſt complexions, are painted, as it were, on the ſurface of the upper ſkin. From theſe, and a variety of other obſervations, no maxim is more true in phyſiology, than that on the rete mucoſum depends the colour of the human body; or, in other words, that the rete mucoſum being of a different colour in different inhabitants of the globe, and appearing through the cuticle or upper ſurface of the ſkin, gives them that various appearance which ſtrikes us ſo forcibly in contemplating the human race.

As this can be incontrovertibly aſcertained, it is evident, that whatever cauſes co-operate in producing this different appearance, they produce it by acting upon the rete mucoſum; which, from the almoſt incredible manner in which the cuticle is perforated, is as acceſſible as the cuticle itſelf. Theſe cauſes are probably thoſe various qualities of things, which, combined with the influence of the ſun, contribute to form what we call *climate*. For when any perſon conſiders, that the mucous ſubſtance before mentioned is found to vary in its colour, as the climates vary from the equator to the poles, his mind muſt be inſtantly ſtruck with the hypotheſis, and he muſt adopt it without any heſitation, as the genuine cauſe of the phenomenon.

This fact, of the variation of the mucous ſubſtance, according to the ſituation of the place, has been clearly aſcertained in the numerous anatomical experiments that have been made; in which ſubjects of all nations have come under conſideration. The natives of many of the kingdoms and iſles of Aſia are found to have their rete mucoſum black: thoſe of Africa, ſituated near the line, of the ſame colour; thoſe of the maritime parts of the ſame continent, of a duſky brown, nearly approaching to it; and the colour becomes lighter or darker in proportion as the diſtance from the equator is either greater or leſs. The Europeans are the faireſt inhabitants of the world. Thoſe ſituated in the moſt ſouthern regions of Europe, have in their rete mucoſum a tinge of the dark hue of their African neighbours: hence the epidemic complexion prevalent among them, is nearly of the colour of the pickled Spaniſh olive; while in this country, and thoſe ſituated nearer the north pole, it appears to be nearly, if not abſolutely, white.

Theſe are facts which anatomy has eſtabliſhed; and we acknowledge them to be ſuch, that we cannot diveſt ourſelves of the idea, that climate has a conſiderable ſhare in producing a difference of colour.

The only objection of any conſequence that has ever been made to the hypotheſis of climate, is this, that people under the ſame parallels are not exactly of the ſame colour. But this is no objection in fact; for it does not follow that thoſe countries which are at an equal diſtance from the equator, ſhould have their climates the ſame. Indeed nothing is more contrary to experience than this. Climate depends upon a variety of accidents. High mountains in the neighbourhood of a place make it cooler, by chilling the air that is carried over them by the winds. Large ſpreading ſucculent plants, if among the productions of the ſoil, have the ſame effect; they afford agreeable cooling ſhades, and a moiſt atmoſphere from their continual exhalations, by which the ardour of the ſun is conſiderably abated. While the ſoil, on the other hand, if of a ſandy nature, retains the heat in an uncommon degree,

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degree, and makes the ſummers conſiderably hotter than thoſe which are found to exiſt in the ſame latitude where the ſoil is different. To this proximity of what may be termed *burning ſands*, and to the ſulphureous and metallic particles which are continually exhaling from the bowels of the earth, is aſcribed the different degrees of blackneſs by which ſome African nations are diſtinguiſhed from each other, though under the ſame parallels. To theſe obſervations we may add, that though the inhabitants of the ſame parallel are not exactly of the ſame hue, yet they differ only by ſhades of the ſame colour; or, to ſpeak with more preciſion, that there are no two people, in ſuch a ſituation, one of whom is white and the other black. To ſum up the whole——Suppoſe we were to take a common globe; to begin at the equator; to paint every country along the meridian line in ſucceſſion from thence to the poles; and to paint them with the ſame colour which prevails in the reſpective inhabitants of each, we ſhould ſee the black, with which we had been obliged to begin, inſenſibly changing to an olive, and the olive, through as many intermediate colours, to a white; and if, on the other hand, we ſhould complete any one of the parallels according to the ſame plan, we ſhould ſee a difference perhaps in the appearance of ſome of the countries through which it ran, though the difference would conſiſt wholly in ſhades of the ſame colour.

The argument, therefore, which is brought againſt the hypotheſis, is ſo far from being an objection, that it may be conſidered as one of the firſt arguments in its favour; for if the climate has really an influence on the mucous ſubſtance of the body, it is evident that we muſt not only expect to ſee a gradation of colour in the inhabitants from the equator to the poles, but alſo different ſhades of the ſame colour in the inhabitants of the ſame parallel.

To this argument may be added one that is incontrovertible, which is, that when the black inhabitants of Africa are tranſplanted to colder, or the white inhabitants of Europe to hotter climates, their children, born there, are of a different colour from themſelves; that is, lighter in the firſt, and darker in the ſecond inſtance.

As a proof of the firſt, we ſhall give the words of the Abbé Raynal, in his admired publication. "The children," ſays he, "which they (the Africans) procreate in America, are not ſo black as their parents were. After each generation the difference becomes more palpable. It is poſſible, that after a numerous ſucceſſion of generations, the men come from Africa would not be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the country into which they may have been tranſplanted."

This circumſtance we have had the pleaſure of hearing confirmed by a variety of perſons who have been witneſſes of the fact; but particularly by many intelligent Africans, who have been parents themſelves in America, and who have declared, that the difference is ſo palpable in the northern provinces, that not only they themſelves have conſtantly obſerved it, but that they have heard it obſerved by others.

Neither is this variation in the children from the colour of the parents improbable. The children of the blackeſt Africans are born white. In this ſtate they continue for about a month, when they change to a pale yellow. In proceſs of time they become brown. Their ſkin ſtill continues to increaſe in darkneſs with their age, till it becomes of a dirty ſallow black; and at length, after a certain period of years, gloſſy and ſhining. Now, if climate has any influence on the mucous ſubſtance of the body, this variation in the children from the colour of their parents is an event which muſt be reaſonably expected; for being born white, and not having equally powerful cauſes to act upon them in colder, as their parents had in the hotter climes which they left, it muſt neceſſarily follow, that the ſame effect cannot poſſibly be produced.

Hence alſo, if the hypotheſis be admitted, may be deduced the reaſon why even thoſe children who have been brought from their country at an early age into colder regions, have been obſerved to be of a lighter colour than thoſe who have remained at home till they arrived at a ſtate of manhood. For having undergone ſome of the changes which we mentioned to have attended their countrymen from infancy to a certain age, and have been taken away before the reſt could be completed, theſe farther changes which would have taken place had they remained at home, ſeem either to have been checked in their progreſs, or weakened in their degree, by a colder climate.

We come now to the ſecond and oppoſite caſe; for a proof of which we ſhall appeal to the words of Dr Mitchell in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, N° 476. ſect. 4. "The Spaniards who have inhabited America under the torrid zone for any time, are become as dark coloured as our native Indians of Virginia, of which I myſelf have been a witneſs; and were they not to intermarry with the Europeans, but lead the ſame rude and barbarous lives with the Indians, it is very probable, that, in a ſucceſſion of many generations, they would become as dark in complexion."

To this inſtance we ſhall add one, which is mentioned by a late writer, who, deſcribing the African coaſt and the European ſettlements there, has the following paſſage. "There are ſeveral other ſmall Portugueſe ſettlements, and one of ſome note at Mitomba, a river in Sierra Leone. The people here called *Portugueſe* are principally perſons bred from a mixture of the firſt Portugueſe diſcoverers with the natives, and now become, in their complexion and woolly quality of their hair, perfect negroes, retaining, however, a ſmattering of the Portugueſe language."

Theſe facts with reſpect to the coloniſts of the Europeans are of the higheſt importance in the preſent caſe, and deſerve a ſerious attention. For when we know to a certainty from whom they are deſcended; when we know that they were, at the time of their tranſplantation, of the ſame colour as thoſe from whom they ſeverally ſprung; and when, on the other hand, we are credibly informed that they changed it for the native colour of the place which they now inhabit: the evidence in ſupport of theſe facts is as great as if a perſon, on the removal of two or three families into another climate, had determined to aſcertain the circumſtance; as if he had gone with them and watched their children; as if he had communicated his obſervations at his death to a ſucceſſor; as if his ſucceſſor had

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profecuted the plan; and thus an uninterrupted chain of evidence had been kept up from their firſt removal to any determined period of ſucceeding time.

But though theſe facts ſeem ſufficient of themſelves to confirm our opinion, they are not the only facts which can be adduced in its ſupport. It can be ſhown, that the members of the very ſame family, when divided from each other, and removed into different countries, have not only changed their family complexion, but that they have changed it to as many different colours as they have gone into different regions of the world. We cannot have, perhaps, a more ſtriking inſtance of this than in the Jews. Theſe people are ſcattered over the face of the whole earth. They have preſerved themſelves diſtinct from the reſt of the world by their religion; and as they never intermarry with any but thoſe of their own ſect, ſo they have no mixture of blood in their veins that they ſhould differ from each other; and yet nothing is more true, than that the Engliſh Jew is white, the Portugueſe ſwarthy, the Armenian olive, and the Arabian copper; in ſhort, that there appear to be as many different ſpecies of Jews as there are countries in which they reſide.

To theſe facts we ſhall add the following obſervation, that if we can give credit to the ancient hiſtorians in general, a change from the darkeſt black to the pureſt white muſt have actually been accompliſhed. One inſtance, perhaps, may be thought ſufficient. Herodotus relates, that the Colchi were black, and that they had criſped hair. Theſe people were a detachment of the Æthiopian army under Seſoſtris, who followed him in his expedition, and ſettled in that part of the world where Colchis is uſually repreſented to have been ſituated. Had not the ſame author informed us of this circumſtance, we ſhould have thought it ſtrange that a people of this deſcription ſhould have been found in ſuch a latitude. Now, as they were undoubtedly ſettled there, and as they were neither ſo totally deſtroyed, nor made any ſuch rapid conqueſts, as that hiſtory ſhould notice the event, there is great reaſon to preſume that their deſcendants continued in the ſame, or ſettled in the adjacent country; from whence it will follow, that they muſt have changed their complexion to that which is obſerved in the inhabitants of this particular region at the preſent day; or, in other words, that the black inhabitants of Colchis muſt have been changed into the fair Circaſſian. Suppoſe, without the knowledge of any hiſtorian, they had made ſuch conſiderable conqueſts as to have ſettled themſelves at the diſtance of 1000 miles in any one direction from Colchis, ſtill they muſt have changed their colour: For had they gone in an eaſtern or weſtern direction, they muſt have been of the ſame colour as the Circaſſians; if to the north whiter; if to the ſouth, of a copper-colour. There are no people within that diſtance of Colchis who are black.

From the whole of the preceding obſervations on the ſubject, we may conclude, that as all the inhabitants of the earth cannot be otherwiſe than the children of the ſame parents, and as the difference of their appearance muſt have of courſe proceeded from incidental cauſes, theſe cauſes are a combination of thoſe qualities which we call *climate:* that the blackneſs of the Africans is ſo far engrafted in their conſtitution, in the courſe of many generations, that their children wholly inherit it, if brought up in the ſame ſpot; but that it is not ſo wholly interwoven in their nature, that it cannot be removed if they are born and ſettled in another.

The ſame principles with the above we find adopted and further illuſtrated by Profeſſor Zimmerman of Brunſwick, in his celebrated work, The Geographical Hiſtory of Man, &c. He there proves in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, That the complexion of the human ſpecies is uniformly correſpondent with the degree of heat or cold to which they are habitually expoſed. In maintaining this poſition, he makes a very proper diſtinction with regard to climate. By *climates* we are to underſtand, not ſimply or ſolely thoſe diſtinguiſhed by the geographical diviſions of the globe, to the excluſion of what he terms *phyſical* climate, or that which depends on the changes produced in any given latitude by ſuch adventitious circumſtances as the lower or more elevated ſituations of a country, its being encompaſſed by water or large tracts of land, overſpread or ſurrounded with foreſts, placed in an extenſive plain, or environed by lofty mountains. Peculiarities of the like kind, as has been already noticed, frequently prevent the *phyſical* climate from correſponding entirely with the *geographical*, as a country influenced by them is often much warmer or colder than other regions placed under the ſame degree of latitude. The influence of theſe ſecondary or modifying circumſtances has been already adverted to, and need not be further enlarged upon: we ſhall here only obſerve, that the erroneous reaſoning of Lord Kames on this ſubject ſeems to have been owing to this inattention to the difference above mentioned. At Senegal, and in the adjacent lands, the thermometer is often at 112 or 117 degrees in the ſhade; and here we find the inhabitants jet black with woolly hair. The heat is equally great in Congo and Loango, and theſe countries are inhabited by negroes only; whereas in Morocco, to the north of theſe regions, and at the Cape of Good Hope, to the ſouth, the heat is not ſo intenſe, nor are the inhabitants of ſo deep a hue. Lord Kames aſks, Wherefore are not the Abyſſinians and the inhabitants of Zaara of as dark a complexion as the Moors on the coaſt of Guinea? M. Zimmerman anſwers, that "theſe countries are much cooler. The deſert is not only farther from the equator, but the winds blowing over the Atlas mountains, which like the Alps are covered with ſnow, and the weſterly wind coming from the ſea, muſt conſiderably mitigate the heat. Nor is Abyſſinia ſo warm as either Monomotapa or Guinea. The north-eaſt winds from the ſide of Perſia and Arabia are cooled by their paſſage over the Red ſea: the northern winds from Egypt loſe much of their heat on the chain of mountains that is extended between the countries; the winds from the ſouth and the weſt are ſea winds. Thus, the only quarter from which they can derive exceſſive heat is from the eaſt, as the air on this ſide muſt paſs over tracts of heated lands." For a ſimilar reaſon it is that negroes are not found either in Aſia or South America under the equator. The ſituations of theſe countries, our author obſerves, expoſe them to ſea-breezes and cooling winds from the continent. He confirms this hypotheſis by obſerving, that the mountaineers of warm climates, as in Barbary and Ceylon, are much fairer than the inhabitants of the valleys: that

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that the Saracens and Moors who conquered the north-eaſt part of Africa in 1700, from being brown, are become like the negroes near the equator: that the Portugueſe, who ſettled at Senegal in 1400, became blacks; and Tudela the Jew aſſerts, that his countrymen in Abyſſinia acquired the dark complexion of the original natives.

Upon the whole, colour and figure may be ſtyled habits of the body. Like other habits, they are created, not by great and ſudden impreſſions, but by continual and almoſt imperceptible touches. Of habits both of mind and body, nations are ſuſceptible as well as individuals. They are tranſmitted to offſpring, and augmented by inheritance. Long in growing to maturity, national features, like national manners, become fixed only after a ſucceſſion of ages. They become, however, fixed at laſt; and if we can aſcertain any effect produced by a given ſtate of weather or of climate, it requires only repetition during a ſufficient length of time to augment and impreſs it with a permanent character. The ſanguine countenance will, for this reaſon, be perpetual in the higheſt latitudes of the temperate zone; and we ſhall for ever find the ſwarthy, the olive, the tawny, and the black, as we deſcend to the ſouth.

The uniformity of the effect in the ſame climate, and on men in a ſimilar ſtate of ſociety, proves the power and certainty of the cauſe. If the advocates of different human ſpecies ſuppoſe that the beneficent Deity hath created the inhabitants of the earth of different colours, becauſe theſe colours are beſt adapted to their reſpective zones; it ſurely places his benevolence in a more advantageous light to ſay, he has given to human nature the power of accommodating itſelf to every zone. This pliancy of nature is favourable to the union of the moſt diſtant nations, and facilitates the acquiſition and the extenſion of ſcience, which would otherwiſe be confined to few objects and to a very limited range. It opens the way particularly to the knowledge of the globe which we inhabit; a ſubject ſo important and intereſting to man. It is verified by experience. Mankind are for ever changing their habitations by conqueſts or by commerce; and we find them in all climates, not only able to endure the change, but ſo aſſimilated by time, that we cannot ſay with certainty whoſe anceſtor was the native of the clime, and whoſe the intruding foreigner.

All the foregoing obſervations have been well recapitulated, illuſtrated by new facts, and enforced by additional reaſoning founded on experience, by the Reverend Dr S. S. Smith, profeſſor of moral philoſophy in the college of New Jerſey, in his *Eſſay on the Cauſes of the variety of Complexion and Figure in the Human ſpecies;* to which the reader who wiſhes for further ſatisfaction on the ſubject is referred.

COMPLEXUS; and *COMPLEXUS Minor*, or *Trachelo-maſtoidæus;* two muſcles in the poſterior part of the trunk. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles.*

COMPLICATION, in general, denotes the blending, or rather interweaving, of ſeveral different things together: thus, a perſon afflicted with ſeveral diſorders at the ſame time, is ſaid to labour under a complication of diſorders.

COMPLINE, the laſt diviſion of the Romiſh breviary. It was inſtituted to implore God's protection during the night, as the *prime* is for the day. It is recited after ſunſet; and is ſo called, becauſe it completes the office for the day.

COMPLUTENSIAN BIBLE. See BIBLE *(Greek.)*

COMPONE, or COMPONED, or *Gobony*, in *Heraldry*. A bordure compone is that formed or compoſed of a row of angular parts, or chequers of two colours.

COMPONED, or COMPOSED, is alſo uſed in general for a bordure, a pale, or a feſs, compoſed of two different colours or metals diſpoſed alternately, ſeparated and divided by fillets, excepting at the corners; where the junctures are made in form of a goat's foot.

COMPOSITE, in general, denotes ſomething compounded, or made up of ſeveral others united together: thus,

COMPOSITE Numbers, are ſuch as can be meaſured exactly by a number exceeding unity; as 6 by 2 or 3, or 10 by 5, &c. ſo that 4 is the loweſt compoſite number. Compoſite numbers, between themſelves, are thoſe which have ſome common meaſure beſides unity; as 12 and 15, as being both meaſured by 3.

COMPOSITE Order, in *Architecture*, the laſt of the five orders of columns; ſo called becauſe its capital is compoſed out of thoſe of the other columns, borrowing a quarter round from the Tuſcan and Doric, a row of leaves from the Corinthian, and volutes from the Ionic. Its corniche has ſimple modillions, or dentils. It is alſo called the *Roman* or *Italic* order, as having been invented by the Romans. By moſt authors it is ranked after the Corinthian, either as being the next richeſt, or the laſt invented. See ARCHITECTURE, N° 48.

COMPOSITION, in a general ſenſe, the uniting or putting together ſeveral things, ſo as to form one whole, called a *compound.*

COMPOSITION of Ideas, an act of the mind, whereby it unites ſeveral ſimple ideas into one conception or complex idea.

When we are provided with a ſufficient ſtock of ſimple ideas, and have by habit and uſe rendered them familiar to our minds, they become the component parts of other ideas ſtill more complicated, and form what we may call a ſecond order of compound notions. This proceſs may be continued to any degree of compoſition we pleaſe, mounting from one ſtage to another, and enlarging the number of combinations.

COMPOSITION, in *Grammar*, the joining of two words together; or prefixing a particle to another word, to augment, diminiſh, or change its ſignification.

COMPOSITION, in *Logic*, a method of reaſoning, whereby we proceed from ſome general ſelf-evident truth to other particular and ſingular ones.

In diſpoſing and putting together our thoughts, there are two ways of proceeding equally within our choice; for we may ſo ſuppoſe the truths, relating to any part of knowledge, as they preſented themſelves to the mind in the manner of inveſtigation: carrying on the ſeries of proofs in a reverſe order, till they at laſt terminate in firſt principles: or beginning with theſe principles, we may take the contrary way; and from them deduce, by a direct train of reaſoning, all the ſeveral propoſitions we want to eſtabliſh.

This diverſity in the manner of arranging our thoughts

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thoughts gives riſe to the twofold diviſion of method eſtabliſhed among logicians; the one called *analytic* method, or the method of *reſolution*, inaſmuch as it traces things back to their ſource, and reſolves knowledge into its firſt and original principles. This method ſtands in contradiſtinction to the method of compoſition; or, as it is otherwiſe called, the *ſynthetic* method; for here we proceed by gathering together the ſeveral ſcattered parts of knowledge, and combining them into one ſyſtem, in ſuch a manner as that the underſtanding is enabled diſtinctly to follow truth through all the different ſtages of gradation.

Compoſition, in *Muſic*, is the art of inventing and writing airs; of accompanying them with a ſuitable harmony; in ſhort, of forming a complete piece of muſic in all its parts.

The knowledge of melody, harmony, and its rules, is the foundation of compoſition. Without doubt, it is neceſſary to know in what manner chords ſhould be filled, how to prepare and reſolve diſſonances, how to find the fundamental baſs, and how to put in practice all the other minutiæ of elementary knowledge: but with the mechanical rules of harmony alone, one is by no means better qualified to underſtand the art, and operate in the practice of compoſition, than to form himſelf for eloquence upon all the rhetorical precepts exhibited in grammar. We need not ſay, that beſides this, it is neceſſary to underſtand the genius and compaſs of voices and inſtruments; to judge what airs may be of eaſy, and what of difficult, execution; to obſerve what will, and what will not, be productive of any effect; to feel the character of different movements, as well as that of different modulations, that both may be always ſuitably applied; to know the different rules eſtabliſhed by convention, by taſte, by caprice, or by pedantry, as fugues, imitations, or in pieces where the ſubject is confined to uniform laws in its harmony, melody, rhythmus, &c. All theſe acquiſitions are ſtill no more than preparatives for compoſition; but the compoſer muſt find in his own genius the ſources of beautiful melody, of ſublime harmony, the picturesque, and the expreſſive in muſic; he muſt, in ſhort, be capable of perceiving, and of forming, the order of the whole piece; to follow the relations and aptitudes of which it is ſuſceptible in every kind; to inflame his ſoul with the ſpirit and enthuſiaſm of the poet, rather than childiſhly amuſe himſelf with punning in harmony, or adapting the muſic to each particular word. It is with reaſon that our muſicians have given the name of *words* to the poems which they ſet to muſic. It appears evident from their manner of expreſſing them, that, in their apprehenſion, they ſeemed words, and words alone. One would be tempted to imagine, particularly during ſome of theſe laſt years, that the rules for the formation and ſucceſſion of chords have cauſed all the reſt to be neglected or forgotten; and that harmony has made no acquiſitions but at the expence of what is general and eſſential in the muſical art. All our artiſts know how to fill a chord with its conſtituent ſounds, or a piece of harmony with its conſtituent parts; but not a ſoul amongſt them feels a ray of compoſition. As to what remains, though the fundamental rules of counterpoint, or muſic in parts, continues ſtill the ſame, they are more or leſs rigorous and inflexible in proportion as the parts increaſe in number; for according as the parts are multiplied, the difficulty of compoſition is heightened, and the rules are leſs ſevere. Compoſitions in two parts are called *duettos* when the two performers ſing equally; that is to ſay, when the ſubject is no further extended; but divided between them: but if the ſubject is in one part alone, and the ſubordinate harmony no more than an accompanyment, the firſt part is then either called a *recitative* or a *ſolo*; and the other an *accompanyment*, or *continued baſs*, if it is a baſs. It is the ſame caſe with the *trio*, with compoſitions in three, in four, or in five parts.

The name of *compoſition* is likewiſe given to ſuch pieces of muſic themſelves as are formed according to the rules of the art. For this reaſon the *duets*, *trios*, *quartettos*, which have juſt been mentioned, are called *compoſitions*.

Compoſitions are either formed for the voice alone, or for inſtruments, or for voices and inſtruments joined. Full choruſes and ſongs are the only compoſitions principally intended for the voice, though ſometimes inſtruments are joined with it to ſupport it. Compoſitions for inſtruments are intended to be executed by a band in the orcheſtra, and then they are called *ſymphonies*, *concertos*; or for ſome particular ſpecies of inſtruments, and then they are called *pieces* or *ſonatas*.

Such compoſitions as are deſtined both for voices and inſtruments, have been generally divided into two capital ſpecies, viz. the *ſacred* and the *ſecular*. The compoſitions deſtined for the church, whether pſalms, hymns, anthems, or reſponſives, are in general diſtinguiſhed by the name of *church-muſic*, and characteriſed by their intention to be ſung with words. Secular muſic in general may likewiſe be divided into two kinds; *theatrical* and *chamber* muſic. Of the firſt kind is that uſed in the operas; the ſubdiviſions of the ſecond are endleſs. Solos, concertos, cantatas, ſongs, and airs, almoſt of every kind, which are not adapted to the church or the ſtage, may be included in the idea of *chamber-muſic*.

In general, it is thought, that ſacred muſic requires deeper ſcience, and a more accurate obſervation of rules; the ſecular ſpecies gives more indulgence to genius, and ſubſiſts in greater variety.

But we muſt here obſerve, that the eccleſiaſtical muſic now uſed, or rather profaned and murdered, amongſt us, though regular in its harmony, is ſimple in its compoſition, and demands not that profound knowledge in the art, either to form or comprehend it, which Rouſſeau, whom till now we have followed in this article, ſeems to imagine. His aſſertion can only be applicable to the church-muſic of Italy. That which is now eſtabliſhed amongſt us ſeems not to be indigenous, but transferred with the Calviniſtical liturgy from Geneva; and as it is intended for popular uſe, it can by no means be eſteemed a high exertion of the muſical art; yet, however ſimple, it is pleaſing; and, when properly performed, might elevate the ſoul to a degree of devotion, and even of rapture, which at preſent we are ſo far from feeling, that we rather ſeem to ſleep or to howl, than to ſing the praiſe of God. Perhaps our clergy may find more advantage in cultivating their farms; but they would ſurely feel a higher and diviner pleaſure in cultivating the taſtes and voices

Composition.

voices of their people. The one, however, is not incompatible with the other. An hour of relaxation in a winter evening might ſerve for the accompliſhment of this pious purpoſe; and one ſhould imagine, that, independent of religious conſiderations, the ſpirit of the craft might dictate ſuch a meaſure, as calculated to produce popular entertainment and gain popular affection.

In compoſition, the author either confines himſelf, as a ſubject, to the mere mechanical modulations and arrangements of ſound, and, as his end, to the pleaſure of the ear alone; or otherwiſe he ſoars a nobler height; he aſpires to imitative muſic; he endeavours to render the hearts and ſouls of his auditors ductile by his art, and thus to produce the nobleſt emotions and moſt ſalutary effects. In the firſt view, it is only neceſſary that he ſhould look for beautiful ſounds and agreeable chords; but in the ſecond he ought to conſider muſic in its conformity with the accents of the human voice, and in the expreſſive powers of notes harmonically combined to ſignify or paint ſuch objects as are ſuſceptible of imitation. In Rouſſeau's article *opera*, ſome ideas may be found by which the art may be ennobled and elevated, by forming muſic into a language more powerful and pathetic than eloquence itſelf. See OPERA.

COMPOSITION, in literature, the art of forming and arranging ſentiments, and clothing them with language ſuitable to the nature of the ſubject or diſcourſe. See the articles LANGUAGE, ORATORY, POETRY, DIALOGUE, EPISTLE, and HISTORY.

COMPOSITION, in *Chemiſtry*, is the union and combination of two or more ſubſtances of different natures, from which a compound body reſults. From this union of bodies of different natures, a body is formed, of a different nature, which Becker and Stahl have called a *mixture*, and which may be called a *combination*, or *chemical compoſition*, to avoid the equivocal ſenſe of the word *mixture*. By this laſt, we underſtand only a mere appoſition of parts; and which would therefore give a very falſe idea of chemical compoſition, in which a mutual adheſion takes place between the combined ſubſtances. See *Affinity* under CHEMISTRY.

COMPOSITION, in *Painting*, includes the invention as well as diſpoſition of the figures, the choice of attitudes, &c.

Compoſition, therefore, conſiſts of two parts; one of which finds out, by means of hiſtory, proper objects for a picture; and the other diſpoſes them to advantage. See PAINTING.

COMPOSITION, in *Pharmacy*, the art or act of mixing divers ingredients together into a medicine, ſo as they may aſſiſt each other's virtues, ſupply each other's defects, or correct any ill qualities thereof. See PHARMACY.

COMPOSITION, in *Commerce*, a contract between an inſolvent debtor and his creditors, whereby the latter accept of a part of the debt in compoſition for the whole, and give a general acquittance accordingly.

COMPOSITION, in *Printing*, commonly termed *compoſing*, the arranging of ſeveral types or letters in the compoſing-ſtick, in order to form a line; and of ſeveral lines arranged in order, in the galley, to make a page; and of ſeveral pages to make a form. See PRINTING.

Compoſition || Compoſt.

COMPOSITÆ, in *Botany*, the name of a claſs in Hermannus and Royen; as likewiſe of an order in Linnæus's fragments of a natural method, conſiſting in general of the plants which have the characters enumerated in the following article. A particular deſcription of this order is given under the article SYNGENESIA, which includes all the compound flowers.

COMPOSITUS FLOS, in *Botany*, an aggregate flower, compoſed of many *floſculi ſeſſiles*, on a common entire receptaculum, with a common perianthium, and whoſe antheræ being five in number unite in the form of a cylinder; the floſculi are monopetalous, and under each of them is a monoſpermous germen. Compound flowers are either *ligulati*, *tubuloſi*, or *radiati*.

COMPOST, in *Agriculture*, denotes a certain kind of mixture deſigned to aſſiſt the ſoil in the way of vegetation, inſtead of dung. The requiſites for a compoſt are, 1. That it ought to be cheaper than the quantity of dung required for an equal extent of ſoil. 2. It ought to be leſs bulky; and, 3. It ought to produce equal effects.

Under the article AGRICULTURE we have endeavoured to ſhow, that the true vegetable food conſiſts in reality of the putrid effluvia proceeding from decayed animal and vegetable ſuſtances. If this theory is admitted, the hope of making compoſts as a ſuccedaneum for dung is but very ſmall, unleſs they are made of putrefied animal and vegetable ſubſtances; in which caſe, unleſs in very ſingular circumſtances, they will prove much dearer than dung itſelf. Several attempts, however, have been made by thoſe who had other views concerning the nature of the true vegetable food. An oil compoſt is recommended in the Georgical Eſſays, upon a ſuppoſition that the food of vegetables is of an oily nature. It is made as follows: "Take of North American potaſh 12 lb. Break the ſalt into ſmall pieces, and put it into a convenient veſſel with four gallons of water. Let the mixture ſtand 48 hours: then add coarſe train oil 14 gallons. In a few days the ſalt will be diſſolved, and the mixture, upon ſtirring, will become nearly uniform. Take 14 buſhels of ſand, or 20 of dry mould: upon theſe pour the above liquid ingredients. Turn this compoſition frequently over, and in ſix months it will be fit for uſe. When the liquid ingredients are put to one or two hogſheads of water, a liquid compoſt will be formed, which muſt be uſed with a water cart."

This compoſt, however, the inventor himſelf owns to be inferior to rotten dung, as indeed may very naturally be ſuppoſed; yet in ſome caſes it ſeems capable of doing ſervice, as will appear from ſome of the following experiments which we extract from the eſſays above mentioned.

Exp. I. By the author of the eſſays. "I took four pots, N° 1, 2, 3, 4. N° 1. contained 12 lb. of barren ſand, with 1 oz. of the ſand oil-compoſt. N° 2. contained 12 lb. of ſand without any mixture. N° 3. had 12 lb. of ſand with half an ounce of ſlaked lime. N° 4. had 12 lb. of ſand with 4 oz. of the ſand oil-compoſt. In the month of March I put ſix grains of wheat into each pot, and during the ſummer I occaſionally

Compoſt. watered the plants with filtrated water. All the time the plants were conſuming the farina, I could obſerve very little difference in their appearance. But after one month's growth, I remarked that N° 1. was the beſt; N° 2. the next; N° 3. the next; and N° 4. much the worſt." The ſame differences were obſerved in Auguſt, when N° 1. the beſt, had five ſmall ears, which contained a few poor grains of wheat."

Exp. II. By the ſame. "In the month of June, I ſelected four lands of equal goodneſs in a field intended for turnips. The ſoil was a light ſand, with a tolerable quantity of vegetable earth amongſt it. It was ploughed out of ſward in November, and had not borne a crop for many years. I ſhall diſtinguiſh my experimental lands by N° 1, 2, 3, 4. N° 1. was manured with rotten dung; N° 2. with oil compoſt; N° 3. with lime; N° 4. was left without any dreſſing. On the 20th of June they were all ſown with turnip ſeed broadcaſt, and during the courſe of the ſeaſon were twice hoed. In November I viewed the field, and made the following remarks. N° 1. the beſt; N° 2. the next; N° 3. the worſt; N° 4. better than N° 3." Here the oil compoſt appears in a favourable light; but other trials, made with equal accuracy, ſeem rather to prove, that it is not proper for turnips, barley, or quick-growing vegetables. It requires being meliorated by the atmoſphere, and therefore is better adapted for winter crops."

Exp. III. By the ſame. "In the month of May, I planted 12 alleys that lay between my aſparagus beds with cauliflower plants. Each alley took up about 30 plants. One of the alleys I ſet apart for an experiment with the oil-compoſt, prepared according to the directions already given. About an handful of the compoſt was put to the root of each cauliflower plant. In all other reſpects the alley was managed like the reſt. The plants in general flowered very well; but thoſe to which I applied the compoſt ſprung up haſtily with ſmall ſtalks, and produced very poor flowers. I imputed this unfavourable appearance to the freſhneſs of the compoſt, which was only a few weeks old. In the September following this unſucceſsful experiment, I planted the ſame alleys with early cabbages. The neceſſity of meliorating the compoſt was in this trial fully confirmed: For the cabbages that grew upon the alley, which in May had received the compoſt, were larger and in all reſpects finer than the others."

Exp. IV. by James Stovin, Eſq. of Doncaſter. "In the year 1769, I made the following trial with the oil-compoſt, prepared as above directed. One acre ſown with barley, and manured with oil-compoſt at 18s. produced five quarters five buſhels. An acre adjoining, ſown with barley, and manured with 12 loads of rotten dung at 3l. produced four quarters three buſhels and two pecks. The compoſt barley was bolder and better corn than the other. In the year 1770, the dunged acre produced of rye, three quarters. The compoſt acre of ditto, two quarters ſix buſhels. In the year 1771, the ſame lands were ſown with oats, and the produce was greatly in favour of the dunged acre. Theſe experimental lands were in a common field that had been long under the plough."

Exp. V. by Richard Townley, Eſq. of Belfield. "In the ſpring 1770, I prepared a piece of ground for onions. It was laid out into ſix beds of the ſame ſize, and which were all ſown at the ſame time. Over two of them, the oil-compoſt was ſcattered in a very moderate quantity. Over other two, pigeon's dung: and over the remaining two, ſome of my *weed-compoſt* (formed of putrified vegetables), which I eſteem one of the beſt manures, for moſt vegetables, that can be made. The onions came up very well in all the beds; but in about ſix weeks, thoſe that were fed with the oil compoſt, plainly diſcovered the advantage they had over the reſt by their luxuriancy and colour, and at the end of the ſummer perfected the fineſt crop I had ever ſeen, being greatly ſuperior to the others both in quantity and ſize. The ſame ſpring I made an experiment upon four rows of cabbages, ſet at the diſtance of four feet every way. Two were manured with oil-compoſt, and two with my own. All the plants were unluckily damaged, juſt before they began to form, by ſome turkeys getting into the field and plucking off the greateſt part of the leaves. However, they ſo far recovered, in the September following, from 22 to 28lb. a-piece. The rows proved ſo equal in goodneſs, that I could not determine which had the advantage. The ſame year, one part of a field of wheat expoſed to the north-eaſt winds, which that ſpring continued to blow for a month or five weeks, appeared very poor and languid at the time of tillering. Over it I ordered ſome of the oil-compoſt to be ſown with the hand; which not only recovered, but alſo puſhed forwards the wheat plants in that part of the field, ſo as to make them little inferior, if any, to the reſt. The ſame ſpring, I made a comparative experiment, upon four contiguous lands of oats, between the oil-compoſt and my own weed-compoſt. The latter had manifeſtly the advantage, though the other produced a very large and fine crop. I alſo tried the oil-compoſt upon carrots, and it anſwered exceedingly well. I did the ſame this year (1771) both upon them and my onions, and have the fineſt crops of theſe vegetables I ever ſaw anywhere upon the ſame compaſs of ground."

Exp. VI. by Mr J. Broadbent of Berwick, in Elmet near Leeds.——"On the firſt of October 1771, I ſowed two acres of a light channelly ſoil with wheat, and harrowed in the compoſt with the grain. Being at a conſiderable diſtance from a large town, we find it very difficult and expenſive to procure rotten dung in ſufficient quantity for our tillage lands, for which reaſon we have recourſe to land dreſſings both for our winter and ſpring corn. Rape-duſt and ſoot are principally uſed; but the preſent price of both theſe articles is a heavy tax upon the farmer. To obviate that inconvenience, I reſolved to make trial of the oil-compoſt; and from what I have obſerved in this one experiment, I am encouraged to make a more extenſive uſe of it the next year. Being well acquainted with the nature and efficacy of ſoot, I am ſatisfied, that the above two acres produced as good a crop of wheat as if they had been dreſſed with that excellent manure."

On the ſuppoſition that vegetables are ſupported by matters of a ſaline nature, compoſts formed of different ſorts of ſalts have been contrived, but with leſs ſucceſs than the one above treated of. A famous compoſition,

Compoſt. poſition of this kind was lately ſold by patent, under the name of *Baron Van Haak's Compoſt*. The following experiment is mentioned in the Georgical Eſſays, as made with a view to determine the virtues of it compared with the oil-compoſt and ſoot mixed with aſhes.—" In the beginning of April 1773, an acre of land was ſown with early oats. I pitched upon one land in the middle of the piece, which I eſteemed better than any of the reſt, and upon this I ſcattered Baron Van Haak's compoſt, in the quantity directed in his inſtructions. On one ſide I manured a land with the oil-compoſt, but rather with a leſs quantity than directed; and, on the other ſide, I manured two lands with dry coal-aſhes ſifted fine, and an equal quantity of ſoot. The lands upon which this experiment was made, were much worn out with a long ſucceſſion of crops. The lands which had the benefit of the aſhes and ſoot produced an exceeding fine crop; the oil-compoſt produced a tolerable good one; but that which had only the aſſiſtance of the baron's compoſt, produced a very poor one. It could not have been worſe had it been left deſtitute of every aſſiſtance."

Compoſts, made with putrified animal ſubſtances will no doubt anſwer much better, in moſt caſes, than any other kind of manure, but they are difficult to be procured. The following is recommended by Dr Hunter of York.—" Take a ſufficient quantity of ſawduſt, incorporate it with the blood and offal of a ſlaughter-houſe, putting a layer of one and a layer of the other till the whole becomes a moiſt and fetid compoſition. Two loads of this compoſt, mixed with three loads of earth, will be ſufficient for an acre of wheat or ſpring-corn. Being a kind of top-dreſſing, it ſhould be put on at the time of ſowing, and harrowed in with the grain. The preſent year I have a field of wheat manured in this manner, and have the pleaſure to ſay, that it is extremely clean, and has all the appearance of turning out an excellent crop. As this kind of compoſt lies in a ſmall compaſs, it ſeems well adapted for the uſe of ſuch farmers as are obliged to bring their manures from a diſtance. It is beſides extremely rich, and will probably continue in the land much longer than fold-yard or ſtable-dung. I apprehend that it is capable of reſtoring worn-out land to its original freſhneſs; and I am induced to be of that opinion, from the appearance of the above crop, which is now growing upon land much impoveriſhed by bad management."

Another compoſt, prepared from whales fleſh, is recommended by Mr Charles Chaloner.—" I have a particular pleaſure (ſays he) in deſcribing and making public the beſt method of forming a compoſt from whales fleſh, as recommended to me by Dr Hunter. Having marked out the length and breadth of your intended dung-hill, make the firſt layer of earth about a foot in thickneſs. Moor-earth, or ſuch as is taken from-ant hills, is the beſt for this purpoſe. Over the earth lay one layer of long litter, from the fold-yard or ſtable, above 12 inches in thickneſs, then a layer of whale-fleſh, and over that another layer of dung. Repeat the operations till the head be raiſed about ſix feet, then give it a thick covering of earth, and coat the heap with ſods. In this manner each layer of fleſh will be placed between two layers of dung. In about a month turn the whole in the uſual manner, which will occaſion a ſtrong degree of heat and fermentation. When turned, coat with earth as before, with a view to confine the putrid ſteam which would otherwiſe eſcape. In a month or two the heap will be found to be conſiderably fallen, when it ſhould have a ſecond turning as before. The operation of turning muſt be repeated at proper intervals, till the whole becomes an uniformly putrid maſs. The whale-fleſh is of different degrees of firmneſs, ſome of it being almoſt liquid; and, in proportion to its firmneſs, the heap will become ſooner or later fit for uſe. In general, the compoſt ſhould not be uſed till 12 months old; but that depends upon circumſtances. Guard the heap from dogs, pigs, badgers, and vermin, as theſe animals are remarkably fond of whale-fleſh. This animal compoſt may with great advantage be applied to all purpoſes where good rotten dung is required. I have uſed it with great ſucceſs for cabbages, and find it an excellent dreſſing for meadow-ground. According to the beſt computation, one hogſhead of whale refuſe, will make eight loads of dung; which when we conſider the great facility with which this baſis of our dung-hill may be carried, is a momentous concern to ſuch farmers as lie remote from a large town." See *Manure*, under AGRICULTURE, where the method of preparing it from peat earth, is particularly detailed. We may here recommend a moſt ingenious thermometer, invented by Mrs Lovi of Edinburgh, for regulating the temperature of compoſt dunghills, which the farmer will find of great uſe in managing the proceſs.

Compoſt ‖ Compound.

COMPOST, in *Gardening*, is a mixture of ſeveral earthy ſubſtances and dungs, either for the improvement of the general ſoil of a garden, or for that of particular plants. Almoſt every plant delights in ſome peculiar mixture of ſoils or compoſt, in which it will thrive better than in others.

COMPOSTELLA, a celebrated town of Spain, and capital of Galicia, with an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The public ſquares, and the churches, particularly the metropolitan church, are very magnificent. It has a great number of monaſteries, for both ſexes, and about 2000 houſes. It is pretended that the body of St James was buried here, which draws a great number of pilgrims from moſt parts of Chriſtendom. They walk in proceſſion to the church, and viſit his wooden image, which ſtands on the great altar, and is illuminated with 40 or 50 wax candles. They kiſs it three times with a very reſpectful devotion, and then put their hats on its head. In the church there are 30 ſilver lamps always lighted, and ſix chandeliers of ſilver five feet high. The poor pilgrims are received into an hoſpital, built for that purpoſe, which ſtands near the church; and round it are galleries of free-ſtone, ſupported by large pillars. The archbiſhop is one of the richeſt prelates in Spain, having 70,000 crowns a-year. From this town the military order of St Jago, or St James, had its origin. It is ſeated in a peninſula, formed by the rivers Tambra and Ulla, in a pleaſant plain, 265 miles north-weſt of Madrid. W. Long. 8. 17. N. Lat. 42. 52.

New COMPOSTELLA, a town of North America, in New Spain, and province of Xaliſco, built in 1531. It is ſituated near the South ſea. W. Long. 109. 42. N. Lat. 21. 20.

COMPOUND, in a general ſenſe, an appellation given

Compound || Compreſſion.

given to whatever is compoſed or made up of different things; thus we ſay, a compound word, compound ſound, compound taſte, &c.—*Compound* differs from *complex*, and ſtands oppoſed to *ſimple*. See COMPLEX and SIMPLE.

COMPOUND Flower. See *COMPOSITUS Flos*.

COMPOUND Intereſt, called alſo *intereſt upon intereſt*, is that which is reckoned not only upon the principal, but upon the intereſt itſelf forborne; which hereby becomes a ſort of ſecondary principal. See INTEREST.

COMPOUND Motion, that motion which is effected by ſeveral conſpiring powers. Powers are ſaid to conſpire if the direction of the one be not quite oppoſite to that of the other, as when the radius of a circle is conceived to revolve about a centre, and at the ſame time a point to move ſtraight along it.

COMPOUND Numbers, thoſe which may be divided by ſome other number beſides unity, without leaving any remainder; ſuch as 18, 20, &c. the firſt being meaſured by the number 2, 6, 9 and the ſecond by the number 2, 4, 5, 10.

COMPOUND Quantities. See ALGEBRA.

COMPOUND Ratio, is that which the product of the antecedents of two or more ratios has to the product of their conſequents. Thus, 6 to 72 is in a ratio compounded of 2 to 6, and of 3 to 12.

COMPOUND (ſubſtantive), the reſult or effect of a compoſition of different things; or a maſs formed by the union of many ingredients.

COMPREHENSION, in Engliſh church-hiſtory, denotes a ſcheme propoſed by Sir Orlando Bridgman in 1667-8, for relaxing the terms of conformity in behalf of Proteſtant diſſenters, and admitting them into the communion of the church. A bill for this purpoſe was drawn up by Lord Chief-Baron Hale, but diſallowed. The attempt was renewed by Tillotſon and Stillingfleet in 1674, and the terms were ſettled to the ſatisfaction of the nonconformiſts; but the biſhops refuſed their aſſent. This ſcheme was likewiſe revived again immediately after the Revolution; the king and queen expreſſed their deſire of an union: however, the deſign failed after two attempts; and the act of toleration was obtained.

COMPREHENSION, in *Metaphyſics*, is that act of the mind whereby it apprehends or knows any object that is preſented to it, on all the ſides whereon it is capable of being apprehended or known. To comprehend a thing is defined by the ſchoolmen, *rem aliquam totam et totaliter cognoſcere*.

COMPREHENSION, in *Rhetoric*, a trope or figure whereby the name of a whole is put for a part; or that of a part for a whole; or a definite number of any thing for an indefinite.

COMPRESS, in *Surgery*, a bolſter of ſoft linen cloth, folded in ſeveral doubles, frequently applied to cover a plaſter, in order not only to preſerve the part from the external air, but alſo the better to retain the dreſſings or medicines.

COMPRESSION, the act of preſſing or ſqueezing ſome matter together, ſo as to ſet its parts nearer to each other, and make it poſſeſs leſs ſpace. *Compreſſion* properly differs from *condenſation*, in that the latter is performed by the action of cold, the former by ſome external violence.

Compromiſe || Computation.

COMPROMISE, a treaty or contract, whereby two contending parties eſtabliſh one or more arbitrators to judge of and terminate their difference in an amicable manner.

COMPTON, HENRY, biſhop of London, was the youngeſt ſon of Spencer earl of Northampton, and born in 1632. After the reſtoration of Charles II. he became cornet of a regiment of horſe; but ſoon after quitting the army for the church, he was made biſhop of Oxford in 1674; and about a year after tranſlated to the ſee of London. He was entruſted with the education of the two princeſſes Mary and Anne, whom he alſo afterwards married to the princes of Orange and Denmark; and their firmneſs in the Proteſtant religion was in a great meaſure owing to their tutor, to whom, when Popery began to prevail at court, it was imputed as an unpardonable crime. He was ſuſpended from his eccleſiaſtical function by James II. but was reſtored by him again on the prince of Orange's invaſion. He and the biſhop of Briſtol made the majority for filling the vacant throne with a king: he performed the ceremony of the coronation; was appointed one of the commiſſioners for reviſing the liturgy; and laboured with much zeal to reconcile diſſenters to the church. His ſpirit of moderation made him unpopular with the clergy, and in all probability checked his further promotion. He died in 1713; but living in buſy times, did not leave many writings behind him.

COMPTROLLER. See CONTROLLER.

COMPULSOR, an officer under the Roman emperors diſpatched from court into the provinces, to compel the payment of taxes, &c. not paid within the time preſcribed. The word is formed of the verb *compellere*, "to oblige, conſtrain." Theſe were charged with ſo many exactions, under colour of their office, that Honorius caſhiered them by a law in 412.

The laws of the Viſigoths mention military compulſors; which were officers among the Goths, whoſe buſineſs was to oblige the tardy ſoldiers to go into the fight, or to run to an attack, &c.

Caſſian mentions a kind of monaſtic compulſors, whoſe buſineſs was to declare the hours of canonical office, and to take care the monks went to church at theſe hours.

COMPUNCTION, in *Theology*, an inward grief in the mind for having offended God. The word comes from *compungere*, of *pungere*, "to prick,"—The Romaniſts own their confeſſion inſignificant unleſs attended with compunction or pricking of heart.

Among ſpiritualiſts, compunction bears a more extenſive ſignification; and implies not only a grief for having offended God, but alſo a pious ſenſation of grief, ſorrow, and diſpleaſure, on other motives.—Thus, the miſeries of life, the danger of being loſt in the world, the blindneſs of the wicked, &c. are to pious people motives of compunction.

COMPURGATOR, one that, by oath, juſtifies another perſon's innocence. Compurgators were introduced as evidences in the juriſprudence of the middle ages. Their number varied according to the importance of the ſubject in diſpute, or the nature of the crime with which a perſon was charged.

COMPUTATION, in a general ſenſe, the manner

ner of eſtimating time, weights, meaſure, moneys, or quantities of any kind.—The word is ſometimes alſo uſed among mathematicians in the like ſenſe as calculation.

COMUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Orobii, of an ancient ſtanding, and formerly powerful, daring to diſpute with the Romans: *Comenſes*, the people; *Comenſis Ager*, the epithet. It became afterwards no inconſiderable municipium, to which Julius Cæſar added 5000 new coloniſts (Strabo); whence it was generally called *Novocomum*, and the people *Novocomenſes*. But in time it recovered its ancient name, *Comum*; Pliny the younger, a native of that place, calling it by no other name. Now *Como*, in the duchy of Milan, at the ſouth end of the lake of that name. E. Long. 9. 37. N. Lat. 46. It is about 80 miles N. E. of Turin.

COMUS, in *Mythology*, the god of jollity or feſtivity. There is great reaſon to believe he was the Chamos of the Moabites; Beel-Phegor, Baal-Peor, Priapus, and Bacchus. He is repreſented under the appearance of a young man, with an inflamed red countenance, his head inclined, and crowned with flowers; his air drowſy; leaning on a huntſman's ſpear in his left hand, and holding an inverted torch in his right. His ſtatue was placed at the chamber doors of new married perſons; his pedeſtal crowned with flowers.

CON, or COND. See COND.

CONANT, DR JOHN, a learned Engliſh divine, born in 1608. He took his degrees at Exeter college Oxford; was, by the parliament, conſtituted one of the aſſembly of divines, though he ſeldom, if ever, ſat with them; and in 1657 was admitted vice-chancellor of the univerſity. On the reſtoration he was one of the commiſſioners, and aſſiſted at the conferences in the Savoy; but was deprived by the act of uniformity; after eight years he was confirmed, and was made archdeacon of Norwich, and prebendary of Worceſter. In 1686 he loſt his ſight; and died in 1693; leaving a number of admired ſermons, afterwards publiſhed in ſix volumes.

CONARION, or CONOIDES, a name for the pineal gland. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CONATUS, a term frequently uſed in philoſophy and mathematics, defined by ſome to be a quantity of motion, not capable of being expreſſed by any time or length; as the *conatus recedendi ab axe motus*, is the endeavour which a body, moved circularly, makes to recede, or fly off, from the centre or axis of its motion.

CONCA, SEBASTIAN, called *Cavalier*, a celebrated hiſtory and portrait painter, was born at Gaeta in 1679, and placed as a diſciple with Franceſco Solimena, an incomparable maſter. Under his direction Conca exerted his utmoſt induſtry to obtain a proper knowledge of the true principles of the art of painting; nor did he permit any kind of amuſement to withdraw his attention from his ſtudies. Solimena ſoon perceived in his diſciple ſuch talents, and ſuch a diſpoſition, as would qualify him to make a very great progreſs; and on that account he conceived ſo ſtrong an affection for him, that he not only afforded him the beſt inſtructions, but often employed him to ſketch after his own deſigns; took him along with him to Monte Caſſino, where he was to paint a chapel in freſco; and there made Conca acquainted with every thing relative to that manner of painting. At his return to Naples with Solimena, he was, if poſſible, ſtill more aſſiduous to improve himſelf to the utmoſt; and entered on a project that might at once advance his income, and add to his expertneſs in his profeſſion. That project was, to paint portraits in a ſmall ſize and at a low rate; by which ſcheme all ranks of perſons crowded to him; and beſide the pecuniary advantages reſulting from it, he acquired an extraordinary freedom of hand in penciling and colouring; a good habit of imitating nature with an elegant choice; and likewiſe great diverſity of airs of heads, which were of extraordinary uſe to him in his future beautiful compoſitions. As he had a great deſire to ſee Rome, he obtained permiſſion from Solimena to indulge his inclination; and although he was near thirty years of age when he viſited that city, yet he ſpent eight years in conſtant ſtudy after the antiques, after Buonaroti, Raphael, and the Carracci, and perfected himſelf in every part of his profeſſion. The fame of his works ſoon ſpread throughout Rome, and procured him the patronage of Cardinal Ottobuoni, who was a princely encourager of artiſts; and Conca having ſhown an elegant proof of his abilities in a compoſition repreſenting Herod inquiring of the wiſe men the place of the birth of the Meſſiah, the figures being as large as life, the Cardinal thought it ſo excellent a performance, that he rewarded him in a munificent manner, entertained him in his own palace, and introduced him to Pope Clement XI. who appointed Conca to paint the picture of the prophet Jeremiah in the church of St John Lateran; which he executed with univerſal applauſe. On that occaſion the pope was deſirous of giving him ſome particular mark of his eſteem; and therefore, in a general aſſembly of the academicians of St Luke, he conferred on him the order of knighthood, and the cardinal preſented him with a rich diamond croſs, which Conca, out of reſpect to his patron, always wore at his boſom. From that time he was inceſſantly employed, and his works were ſolicited by moſt of the princes of Europe. The churches and chapels of every part of Italy are enriched with ſome of his compoſitions; of which he painted an incredible number, as he lived to a very advanced age, and never diſcontinued his labours. He was earneſtly invited by Philip V. of Spain to viſit his court, but he could not be prevailed on to leave Rome. He painted two admirable pieces for the king of Poland, with figures as large as life; in one was repreſented Alexander preſenting Bucephalus to Philip, after he had managed him; a grand compoſition, with a multitude of figures, correctly deſigned, and charmingly grouped and diſpoſed; the whole being adorned with moſt elegant architecture, in true and beautiful perſpective. The other was the marriage of Alexander with Roxana, the daughter of Darius, which was in every reſpect equal to the former. He was at laſt ſo ſtrongly preſſed to go to Naples, that he undertook the journey; and was received in that kingdom with all the reſpect and honour due to his merit; and there he finiſhed ſeveral noble deſigns, as alſo at Gaeta his native city. While he continued at Naples, he received in the royal preſence a ſnuff-box of very great value, preſented

Conca ll Conception.

presented to him in the king's name by the marquis of Tanucci, at that time prime minister; and in the year 1757, the king was pleased to ennoble him and all his descendants. At that time he was 78, and it is confidently said, that he died in 1761, aged 82, which is very probable, though not positively certain. He understood perspective and architecture thoroughly, and added to it a fine understanding of the chiaro-scuro. His style of composition is grand and elegant; his design very correct; his disposition ingenious; his attitudes and expression full of truth, nature, and variety; and his colouring is excellent. The history of Diana and Actæon, by Conca, is in the possession of the earl of Pembroke at Wilton.

CONCALE BAY, is on the coast of France in Brittany, where the British forces landed in June 1758, in order to go to St Maloes; which they did, and burnt all the ships in that harbour, which were above 100, of all sorts. Concale is the town which gives name to the bay, and is famous for oysters. It is 18 miles east of St Maloes, and 197 west of Paris. W. Long. 1. 47. N. Lat. 48. 41.

CONCARNEAU, a town of France, in the department of Finisterre, with a harbour and a castle. E. Long. 4. 2. N. Lat. 47. 46.

CONCATENATION, a term chiefly used in speaking of the mutual dependence of second causes upon each other.

CONCAVE, an appellation used in speaking of the inner surface of hollow bodies, but more especially of spherical ones.

CONCAVE Glasses, such as are ground hollow, and are usually of a spherical figure, though they may be of any other, as parabolical, &c. All objects seen through concave glasses appear erect and diminished.

CONCENTRATION, in general, signifies the bringing things nearer a centre. Hence the particles of salt, in sea-water, are said to be concentrated; that is, brought nearer each other, by evaporating the watery part.

CONCENTRIC, in *Mathematics*, something that has the same common centre with another: it stands in opposition to *excentric*.

CONCEPTION, in *Logic*, the simple apprehension or perception which we have of any thing, without proceeding to affirm or deny any thing about it. Some writers, as Lord Kames, distinguish between conception and perception; making the latter to denote the consciousness of an object when present, or to include the reality of its object; whereas conception expresses the forming an idea of an object whether present or absent, or without any conviction of its reality.

CONCEPTION, in *Medicine*, denotes the first formation of the embryo, or fœtus in the womb.

Conception is no other than such a concourse and commixture of the prolific seed of the male with that of the female, in the cavity of the uterus, as immediately produces an embryo.

The symptoms of conception or pregnancy are, when, in a few days after the conjugal act, a small pain is perceived about the navel, and is attended with some gentle commotions in the bottom of the abdomen; and within, one, two, three, or even four months, the menses cease to flow, or prove in less quantity than usual. Upon the first failure of this kind, the woman begins to count the series of her weeks, without taking any notice of the time before elapsed; after this, or between the second or third months, but generally about the third, the motions of the embryo become perceivable to the mother; who hereupon becomes troubled with a nausea, vomiting, loathing, longing, &c. About this time the breasts begin to swell, grow hard and painful, and contain a little milk; the nipples also become larger, firmer, and darker coloured, a livid circle appearing round them; the eyes seem sunk and hollow. During the two first months of pregnancy, the woman grows thinner and slenderer; the abdomen being also depressed; though it afterwards distends, and grows gradually larger.

Conception.

The manner wherein conception is effected is thus laid down by the modern writers: In the superfices of the ovaries of women, there are found little pellucid spherules, consisting of two concentric membranes filled with a lymphatic humour, and connected to the surface of the ovaria underneath the tegument, by a thick calyx, contiguous to the extremities of the minute ramifications of the Fallopian tubes.

These spherules, by the use of venery, grow, swell, raise and dilate the membrane of the ovary into the form of papillæ; till, the head propending from the stalk, it is at length separated from it; leaving behind it a hollow cicatrix in the broken membrane of the ovary; which, however, soon grows up again.

Now, in these spherules, while still adhering to the ovary, fœtuses have been frequently found; whence it appears, that these are a kind of ova, or eggs, deriving their structure from the vessels of the ovary, and their liquor from the humours prepared therein.

Hence also it appears, that the Fallopian tubes being swelled and stiffened by the act of venery, with their muscular fimbriæ, like fingers, may embrace the ovaries, compress them, and by that compression expand their own mouths: and thus the eggs, now mature, and detached as before, may be forced into their cavities, and thence conveyed into the cavity of the uterus; where they may either be cherished and retained, as when they meet with the male seed: or, if they want that, again expelled.

Hence the phenomena of false conceptions, abortions, fœtuses found in the cavity of the abdomen, the Fallopian tubes, &c. For in coition, the male seed, abounding with living animalcules, agitated with a great force, a brisk heat, and probably with a great quantity of animal spirits, is violently impelled through the mouth of the uterus, which on this occasion is opener, and through the valves of the neck of the uterus, which on this occasion are laxer than ordinary, into the uterus itself; which now, in like manner, becomes more active, turgid, hot, inflamed, and moistened with the flux of its lymph and spirits, by means of the titillation excited in the nervous papillæ by the attrition against the rugæ of the vagina.

The semen thus disposed in the uterus, is retained, heated, and agitated, by the convulsive constriction of the uterus itself; till meeting with the ova, the finest and most animated part enters through the dilated pores of the membranula of the ovum, now become glandulous; is there retained, nourished, and dilated; grows to its umbilicus, or navel; stifles the other less lively animalcules; and thus is conception effected.

Hence

Conception.

Hence it appears, that conception may happen in any part where the ſemen meets with an ovum: thus whether it be carried through the Fallopian tube to the ovary, and there caſt upon the ovum; or whether it meet with it in ſome receſs of the tube itſelf; or, laſtly, whether it join it in the cavity of the uterus, it may ſtill have the ſame effect, as it appears from obſervation actually to have had. But it is probable, that conception is then moſt perfect when the two, viz. the ſemen and ovum, are carried at the ſame time into the uterus, and there mixed, &c.

According to other phyſiologiſts the male ſeed is taken up, before it arrives in the uterus, by the veins which open into the vagina, &c. and thus mixed with the blood; by which, in the courſe of circulation, it is carried, duly prepared, into the ovary, to impregnate the eggs.

It has been advanced by ſeveral writers, that women may poſſibly conceive in their ſleep, and be with child without any knowledge of the occaſion of it. As ridiculous and abſurd as this doctrine may appear to the generality of the world, no leſs an author than Genſili has thought it worthy a particular diſſertation.

Conception, Immaculate, of the Holy Virgin, is a feaſt eſtabliſhed in honour of the holy virgin, particularly with regard to her having been conceived and born *immaculate*, i. e. without original ſin, held in the Romiſh church on the 8th of December. The immaculate conception is the great head of controverſy between the Scotiſts and Thomiſts; the former maintaining, and the latter impugning it. In the three Spaniſh military orders, of St James of the ſword, Calatrava, and Alcantara, the knights take a vow at their admiſſion to defend the immaculate conception. This reſolution was firſt taken in 1652. Peter d'Alva has publiſhed 48 huge volumes in folio on the myſteries of the conception.

Conception, an epiſcopal town of Chili in South America. It is ſituated in W. Long. 72. 50. S. Lat. 36. 40; and is the oldeſt European ſettlement in Chili, and the ſecond in point of dignity. On their firſt ſettlement here, the Spaniards were repeatedly driven off by the Indians, ſo that they were obliged to take up their reſidence at St Jago. Since that time both the cities of Conception and St Jago have been frequently deſtroyed by earthquakes. In the year 1751 both of them were laid in ruins by a dreadful ſhock, the firſt concuſſions of which were attended with an unuſual ſwelling of the ſea, that overturned the few houſes which had eſcaped the ravages of the earthquake. The harbour is good, and pretty much frequented; on which account the city is regarded as a place of conſequence. The king allows annually 350,000 pieces of eight for the ſupport of a garriſon of 3500 men; a corps that is ſeldom complete. None of the fortifications are conſiderable; but thoſe towards the land are wretched. The Spaniards now live in tolerable ſecurity with reſpect to the Indians, and have no notion of any attack from the land ſide. It is ſaid indeed, that not only this but all the ſettlements in Chili and Peru would fall an eaſy prey to the attacks of a foreign enemy; the fortifications being in ruins, and the garriſons ſcarce half the number required by the king: owing to the avarice, ignorance, and ſupine negligence of the governors, who ſtudy nothing but to enrich themſelves.

Conception || Conchoid.

Conception, a town of North America in New Spain, and in the audience of Guatimala. It is ſeated near the ſea coaſt, 100 miles weſt of Porto-bello, and a ſmall river that runs into the ſea. W. Long. 81. 45. N. Lat. 10. 0.

CONCERT, or Concerto, in *Muſic*, a number or company of muſicians, playing or ſinging the ſame piece of muſic or ſong at the ſame time.

CONCERTATO intimates the piece of muſic to be compoſed in ſuch a manner, as that all the parts may have their recitativos, be it for two, three, four, or more voices or inſtruments.

CONCERTO grossi, the grand chorus of a concert, or thoſe places where all the ſeveral parts perform or play together.

CONCESSION, in general, ſignifies either the act of granting or yielding any thing, or the thing itſelf which is ſo granted or yielded.

Concession, in *Rhetoric*, a figure, whereby ſomething is freely allowed, that yet might bear diſpute, to obtain ſomething that one would have granted to him, and which he thinks cannot fairly be denied, as in the following conceſſion of Dido, in Virgil:

" The nuptials he diſclaims, I urge no more;
" Let him purſue the promis'd Latian ſhore.
" A ſhort delay is all I aſk him now;
" A pauſe of grief, an interval from wo."

CONCHA, in *Zoology*, a ſynonyme of the Mytilus, Solen, and other ſhell-fiſh.

CONCHES, a town of Normandy, with a Benedictine abbey, which carries on a conſiderable trade. It is ſeated on the top of a mountain, in the territory of Ouche, 45 miles north-weſt of Paris. E. Long. 0. 51. N. Lat. 48. 58.

CONCHITES marmor, a name given by the ancients to a ſpecies of marble dug near Megara, and remarkable for containing a great number of ſea-ſhells, and other marine bodies immerſed in it.

CONCHOID, in *Geometry*, the name of a curve, given to it by its inventor Nicomedes. See Fluxions.

CONCHOLOGY,

Introduction.

IS that department of natural hiſtory which treats of teſtaceous animals. In the Linnæan arrangement it conſtitutes the third order of the claſs of Vermes. This is the order *teſtacea*, of which we propoſe to lay before our readers a pretty full view in the preſent treatiſe. The peculiarity and extent of this order of animals have induced us to conſider it in a ſeparate treatiſe, by which means we ſhall avoid ſwelling out to an

Hiſtory.

an inconvenient magnitude, the claſs of Vermes, which will be treated of in its proper place in the courſe of the work.

2 Importance of conchology.

The fine poliſh, ſplendid colours, and elegant form of ſhells, have been long admired, and have procured for them a conſpicuous place in the cabinets of the curious. Indeed in this reſpect, mankind have diſcovered no ſmall degree of folly and extravagance, in the high price which has been given for rare and beautiful ſhells, and often only on account of their rarity. But the ſtudy of conchology acquires a higher degree of importance and utility in another view. In many parts of the world, different kinds of teſtaceous animals are employed as an excellent and nutritious food; and ſome tribes ſupply the table with a delicate luxury. Different ſhells furniſh employment to ingenuity and art, in the manufacture of mother-of-pearl for various purpoſes; and the pearl itſelf, ſo much ſought after as an ornament of dreſs, and often the rival of the richeſt gems, in the eſtimation of mankind, is the production of teſtaceous animals. Its nature and mode of formation, therefore, cannot fail to be objects of curious inveſtigation. But teſtaceous animals and their productions are not only beneficial and ornamental; ſome are found to be highly pernicious. The ſnail ravages the garden and the field, and marks its progreſs with the deſtruction of ſome of the faireſt of the vegetable tribes; while the ſhip-worm is juſtly the dread of the mariner: ſecure, as it were, in its inſignificance, it humbles the glory and pride of man; and labouring in ſecret, demoliſhes the nobleſt efforts of ingenuity. In theſe views, then, the economy and habits of teſtaceous animals, which at firſt ſight might appear a barren and uſeleſs purſuit, become an important and beneficial ſubject of inveſtigation. The following chapters, therefore, ſhall be occupied in the claſſification and natural hiſtory of this tribe of animals.

Hiſtory

CHAP. I. HISTORY OF CONCHOLOGY.

3 Cultivated by the ancients.

THE few ſcattered fragments concerning the natural hiſtory of ſhells, or teſtaceous animals, which are to be found in the writings of the ancients, when compared with the more extended and ſyſtematic labours of the moderns, are ſo unimportant and inaccurate, that it would be altogether ſuperfluous to trouble our readers with an account of the information which they contain. It appears, however, from the works of Ariſtotle and Pliny, the great naturaliſts of Greece and Rome, that the ſtudy of conchology was not entirely neglected in their time. It appears too, that admirers and collectors of ſhells were not then wanting. Scipio and Lælius, we are informed, found a relaxation from the toils and cares of war and government, by indulging in this elegant amuſement (A).

4 By the moderns.

Nor will it be attended with much advantage, to give a particular account of the works of the earlier writers on this ſubject, among the moderns. Theſe are Geſner, Johnſton, Rondeletius, Aldrovandus, Bellonius, Wormius, and ſome other authors, who cultivated this department of natural hiſtory, and accompanied their deſcriptions with figures, illuſtrative of the objects which they deſcribed.

The firſt author who attempted a ſyſtematic diviſion of ſhells, according to their external form and character, was John Daniel Major, profeſſor of medicine in the univerſity of Kiel in Holſtein. His method is publiſhed at the end of his curious and intereſting remarks on the treatiſe concerning the *purpura* of Fabius Columna, printed at Kiel in 1675. The ſyſtem of the German naturaliſt was followed by that of our countryman Dr Liſter, on a more extended and improved plan, which was publiſhed ten years after. Succeeding naturaliſts turned their attention to the ſtudy of conchology, and to the improvement of the claſſification of the numerous objects of this department of natural hiſtory. Such were Buonanni, Rumfius, Langius, Breynius, Tournefort, Gualtieri, D'Argenville, Klein, Linnæus, Adanſon, Geoffroy, and Muller.

We ſhall here exhibit ſome of the moſt celebrated ſyſtems of conchology which have been propoſed by writers on this ſubject. This, we truſt, will not be unacceptable to our readers, and particularly as the works of theſe authors are in few hands, and therefore become leſs acceſſible.

5 Syſtem of Liſter.

I. The firſt general arrangement of ſhells is that publiſhed by Dr Liſter in a work with the following title. *Martini Liſter, M. D. Hiſtoriæ ſive Synopſis methodicæ Conchyliorum libri quatuor, continentes* 1057 *figuras ære nitidiſſime inſculptas, a Suſanna et Anna Liſter depictas.* Londini, 1685—1688, folio. A ſecond edition of the ſame work was publiſhed at Oxford in 1770, with additional figures.

SYSTEM OF LISTER.

LIB. I. *De Cochleis Terreſtribus.*

PARS I. De Buccinis et Turbinibus terreſtribus.

Sect. 1. De Buccinis terreſtribus a ſiniſtra dextrorſum tortilibus, lævibus, edentulis.

Sect. 2. De Buccinis terreſtribus a ſiniſtra dextrorſum tortilibus, edentulis, ſtriatis.

Sect. 3. De Buccinis terreſtribus a ſiniſtra dextrorſum tortilibus, apertura dentata.

Sect. 4. De Buccinis terreſtribus a dextra ſiniſtrorſum tortilibus, apertura plana.

Sect. 5. De Buccinis terreſtribus a dextra ſiniſtrorſum tortilibus, apertura dentata.

Sect. 6. De Turbinibus terreſtribus cochleæformibus, id eſt compactiore figura.

Sect.

(A) Lælium et Scipionem conchas et umbilicos ad Cajetam et ad Laurentum legere conſueſſe, et ad omnem animi remiſſionem ludumque deſcendere. *Cic. de Orat.* lib. ii.

Sect. 7. Trochilus.
Sect. 8. De Turbinibus terreſtribus, compreſſis edentulis, ipſo ambitu acuto.
Sect. 9. De Turbinibus compreſſis, ambitu obtuſiore, apertura edentula.
Sect. 10. De Turbinibus terreſtribus compreſſis, a ſiniſtra dextrorſum tortilibus, apertura dentata.
Sect. 11. De Turbinibus terreſtribus compreſſis, apertura dentata, a dextra ſiniſtrorſum tortilibus apice inverſo ex ipſa aperturæ parte.

Pars II. Cochleæ nudæ terreſtres, limaces quibuſdam dictæ.

Lib. II. *De Turbinibus et Bivalvibus aquæ dulcis.*

Pars I. De Turbinibus.

Sect. 1. De Buccinis fluviatilibus.
Sect. 2. De Cochleis fluviatilibus.
Sect. 3. De Cochleis fluviatilibus compreſſis.

Pars II. De Teſtaceis bivalvibus fluviatilibus.

Sect. 1. De Muſculis fluviatilibus, cardine dentato.
Sect. 2. De Muſculis fluviatilibus, cardine lævi.
Sect. 3. De Pectunculis fluviatilibus.

Lib. III. *De Teſtaceis bivalvibus marinis.*

Pars I. De Teſtaceis bivalvibus, imparibus teſtis.

Sect. 1. Cap. 1. De Pectinibus ex utraque parte æqualiter auritis, ſtriatis. Cap. 2. De Pectinibus æqualiter auritis, lævibus. Cap. 3. De Pectinibus inæqualiter auritis, non dentatis. Cap. 4. De Pectinibus inæqualiter auritis dentatis.
Sect. 2. Cap. 1. De Oſtreis apophyſi plana longa recurva, angulo acuto definente. Cap. 2. De Oſtreis apophyſi brevi, ſubter et quaſi in occulto poſita.
Sect. 3. De Spondylis.

Pars II. De Teſtaceis bivalvibus, paribus teſtis.

Sect. 1. Cap. 1. De Pectinibus margaritiferis. Cap. 2. De Pectinibus, binis apophyſibus longis conjunctis. Cap. 3. De Pectinibus margaritiferis polyginglymis.
Sect. 2. Cap. 1. De Pectunculis polyleptoginglymis, margine ex altera parte productiore. Cap. 2. De Pectunculis polyleptoginglymis, margine rotunda, ſtriatis. Cap. 3. De Pectunculis polyleptoginglymis, margine rotunda, lævibus.
Sect. 3. Cap. 1. De Pectunculis lævibus, triquetris fere, cervice anguſtiore. Cap. 2. De Pectunculis lævibus, triquetris, cervice latiore. Cap. 3. De Pectunculis lævibus, roſtro recurvo.
Sect. 4. Cap. 1. De Pectunculis faſciatis, lunula notatis, margine ſtriata. Cap. 2. De Pectunculis faſciatis, lunula quadam notatis, margine lævi. Cap. 3. De Pectunculis faſciatis, ad roſtrum integris.
Sect. 5. Cap. 1. De Pectunculis ſtriatis productioribus, ſtriis a roſtro ad medium uſque dorſum concurrentibus. Cap. 2. De Pectunculis ſtriatis diverſimode exaratus, ſive diſſimilibus. Cap. 3. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, ſtriis ſimilibus, dorſo ad alterum latus paululum eminente. Cap. 4. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, dorſo in aciem compreſſo. Cap. 5. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, muricatis aſperiſve. Cap. 6. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, ſtriis a roſtro tantum deductis lævibus. Cap. 7. De Pectunculis cancellatis. Cap. 8. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, ex latere multo magis diffuſis, latioribus. Cap. 9. De Pectunculis ſtriatis, ex latere diffuſis anguſtioribus. Cap. 10. De Pectunculis ſtriatis imbricatis.
Sect. 6. Cap. 1. De Muſculis marinis, cardine lævi minimeque dentato. Cap. 2. De Muſculis marinis polyleptoginglymis.
Sect. 7. Cap. 1. De Pinnis, margine velut præciſa obtuſave. Cap. 2. De Pinnis, margine producta et auctiore.
Sect. 8. Cap. 1. De Tellinis, id eſt conchis fere cuneiformibus, ambitu ſerrata. Cap. 2. De Tellinis quibus ambitus ex interna parte lævis eſt.
Sect. 9. De Solenis, id eſt conchis tenuibus longiſſimiſque ab utraque parte naturaliter hiantibus.
Sect. 10. Cap. 1. De Chamis, ab altero tantum latere fere naturaliter hiantibus. Cap. 2. De Chamis pholadibus.

Pars II. De Teſtaceis multivalvibus.

Sect. 1. Cap. 1. De Pholadibus triumve teſtarum conchis, cardinibus loculis quibuſdam quaſi perforatis. Cap. 2. De Pholadibus, cardine integro.
Sect. 2. De Conchis quinque teſtarum anatiferis pleriſque dictis.
Sect. 3. De Balanis, id eſt, duodecim teſtarum conchis præter operculum mitratum.
Sect. 4. Sive appendix ad librum tertium de conchitis iiſve lapidibus, qui quandum ſimilitudinem cum conchis marinis habeant.

Lib. IV. *De Buccinis marinis, quibus etiam vermiculi dentalia et patellæ, numerantur.*

Sect. 1. Cap. 1. De Patellis, vertice perforato. Cap. 2. De Patellis, vertice integro, lævibus. Cap. 3. De Patellis, vertice integro, ſtriatis, margine quaſi radiata. Cap. 4. De Patellis, vertice adunco margine æquali. Cap. 5. De Patellis, vertice adunco, margine obliqua. Cap. 6. De Patellis, vertice adunco, quibus ex interna parte cavitas quædam quaſi arcuata, longis compreſſis. Cap. 7. De Patellis, vertice acuto, ſtilo quodam interno donatis.
Sect. 2. De Dentalibus.
Sect. 3. De Vermiculis.
Sect. 4. Cap. 1. De Nautilis caudatis, ſive e plurimis tabulatis confectis. Cap. 2. De Nautilis vacuis, ſive non tabulatis.
Sect. 5. Cap. 1. De Cochleis marinis, apice brevi, umbilicatis, ſinu aurito. Cap. 2. De Cochleis marinis, apice brevi, umbilico ſimplici. Cap. 3. De Cochleis marinis, apice brevi, centro minime ſinuato. Cap. 4. De Cochleis marinis, baſi brevi, apice ad oris initium parum elato. Cap. 5. De Cochleis marinis, apice mediocriter producto, ore dentato. Cap. 6. De Cochleis marinis, apice mediocriter producto, ore edentulo, lævibus. Cap. 7. De Cochleis marinis, apice mediocriter producto, ſtriatis. Cap. 8. De Cochleis marinis, clavicula tenui et longiſſima, ſtriatis. Cap. 9. De Cochleis marinis, clavicula tenui et longiſſima, lævibus.
Sect. 6. Cap. 1. De Neritis dentatis, clavicula paululum prominente. Cap. 2. De Neritis dentatis, clavicula compreſſa, ſtriatis. Cap. 3. De Neritis dentatis, clavicula compreſſa, lævibus. Cap. 4. De Neritis ad columellam dentatis, labio productiore edentulo.

edentulo. Cap. 5. De Neritis edentulis lævibus. Cap. 6. De Neritis edentulis muricatis.

Sect. 7. De Auribus marinis.

Sect. 8. Cap. 1. De Trochis pyramidalibus, apertura ſive baſi leviter tumida. Cap. 2. De Trochis pyramidalibus, baſi paululum cava ſive ſinuata. Cap. 3. De Trochis, apertura ſive baſi plana. Cap. 4. De Trochis brevioribus, umbilicatis, dentatis. Cap. 5. De Trochis cochleæformibus, umbilicatis, edentulis. Cap. 6. De Trochis clavicula breviore, columella paulo erectiore integra. Cap. 7. De Trochis, baſi media leviter tumida, quaſi altera clavicula. Cap. 8. De Trochis, unico dente ad columellam acuto.

Sect. 9. Cap. 1. De Conchis venereis unicoloribus. Cap. 2. De Conchis venereis, lineis nigris ſecundum longitudinem depictis. Cap. 3. De Conchis undatim depictis. Cap. 4. De Conchis venereis faſciatis, immaculatis; et de conchis venereis faſciatis et maculatis, aut alias cum faſciis variegatis. Cap. 5. De Conchis venereis, punctis nigris diſtinctis. Cap. 6. De Conchis venereis, maculis albis nigriſve interſperſis inſignitis; et de conchis venereis maculis albis quaſi reticulatim depictis. Cap. 7. De Conchis venereis, ſtriis eminentibus conſpicuis. Cap. 8. De Conchis venereis, punctis elatis exaſperatis, nodiſve inæqualibus. Cap. 9. De Conchis venereis, apertura non dentata, baſi integra. Cap. 10. De Conchis venereis, baſi umbilicata cochleata.

Sect. 10. Cap. 1. De Rhombis cylindraceis columella dentata, craſſis, unius coloris. Cap. 2. De Rhombis cylindraceis dentatis, maculoſis. Cap. 3. De Rhombis cylindraceis dentatis, faſciatis. Cap. 4. De Rhombis cylindraceis dentatis, undatis. Cap. 5. De Rhombis cylindraceis dentatis, dorſo gibboſo. Cap. 6. De Rhombis cylindraceis edentulis, ore ſtrictiore. Cap. 7. De Rhombis edentulis tenuibus, ore patulo, clavicula paululum exſerta. Cap. 8. De Rhombis edentulis, ore patulo, clavicula compreſſa.

Pars II. Cap. 1. De Rhombis cylindrico pyramidalibus, unius coloris. Cap. 2. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, quibus lineæ maculatæ circum injiciuntur. Cap. 3. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, ſtriatis. Cap. 4. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, undatis. Cap. 5. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, faſciatis. Cap. 6. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, reticulatis. Cap. 7. De Rhombis cylindrico-pyramidalibus, dentatis.

Sect. 11. Cap. 1. De Buccinis perſicis dictis. Cap 2. De Buccinis muſicis dictis. Cap. 3. De Buccinis columella dentata, clavicula longiſſima et tenuiſſima.

Sect. 12. Cap. 1. De Buccinis bilinguibus, lævibus. Cap. 2. De Buccinis bilinguibus, ſtriatis. Cap. 3. De Buccinis bilinguibus, aſperſis et muricatis. Cap. 4. De Buccinis bilinguibus, digitatis.

Sect. 13. Cap. 1. De Buccinis ampullaceis lævibus, aut certe minus aſperis. Cap. 2. De Buccinis ampullaceis, muricatis. Cap. 3. De Buccinis ampullaceis, ad ſiniſtram convolutis.

Sect. 14. Cap. 1. De Buccinis utrinque productioribus, lævibus. Cap. 2. De Buccinis utrinque productioribus, ſtriis denſis et tenuioribus exaſperatis. Cap. 3. De Buccinis utrinque productioribus, ſtriis paucioribus donatis, labro ſimplici. Cap. 4. De Buccinis utrinque productioribus, ſtriis paucioribus, labro duplicato donatis. Cap. 5. De Buccinis utrinque productioribus, muricatis.

Sect. 15. Cap. 1. De Buccinis breviroſtris, nodoſis. Cap. 2. De Buccinis breviroſtris, ſtriatis. Cap. 3. De Buccinis breviroſtris, lævibus, fere clavicula productiore. Cap. 4. De Buccinis breviroſtris, labro repando, tenuibus. Cap. 5. De Buccinis breviroſtris, labro repando, craſſis. Cap. 6. De Buccinis breviroſtris, compreſſis. Cap. 7. De Buccinis auritis, ſive roſtro recurvo donatis, ventriculoſis. Cap. 8. De Buccinis breviroſtris, ſinu reflexo, lævibus. Cap. 9. De Buccinis breviroſtris, roſtro reflexo, clavicula productiore.

Sect. 16. Seu appendix de buccinitis, iiſve lapidibus que buccina omnigena valde referant.

6. Of Langi

II. In 1722, Langius preſented to the world the following work on conchology. *Caroli Nicolai Langii Lucernen. Helvet. Phil. et Med. &c. Methodus nova et facilis, teſtacea marina plæraque, quæ huc uſque nobis nota ſint, in ſuas debitas et diſtinctas claſſes, genera, et ſpecies, diſtribuendi, nominibuſque ſuis propriis, ſtructuræ potiſſimum accommodatis nuncupandi, &c. Lucernæ*, 1722, 4to, p. 102.

SYSTEM OF LANGIUS.

Pars Prima. *Teſtacea marina univalvia non turbinata.*

Classis Prima. Teſtacea marina univalvia non turbinata, et in ſe non contorta.

Sect. 1. Teſtacea marina univalvia non turbinata, et in ſe non contorta nullo modo, vel ſolummodo in ſummo apice tantillum incurvata. Gen. 1. Patellæ. Gen. 2. Balani.

Sect. 2. Tubuli marini, ſeu teſtacea marina univalvia, non turbinata, et in ſe non contorta, elongata tubuli inſtar concava. Gen. 1. Penicilla. Gen. 2. Dentales. Gen. 3. Tubuli radiciformes. Gen. 4. Tubuli vermiculares.

Classis Secunda. Teſtacea marina univalvia, non turbinata, ſed ita in ſe contorta, ut eorum ſpiræ non promineant.

Sect. 1. Teſtacea marina univalvia ita in ſe tranſverſim, vel oblique ſecundum longitudinem contorta, ut eorum circumvolutiones vix appareant. Gen. 1. Nautili. Gen. 2. Nuces marinæ.

Sect. 2. Porcellanæ, ſeu teſtacea marina univalvia non turbinata. Gen. 1. Porcellanæ vulgares. Gen. 2. Porcellanæ fimbriatæ. Gen. 3. Porcellanæ ſpirales. Gen. 4. Porcellanæ thoracicæ. Gen. 5. Porcellanæ minores integræ.

Sect. 3. Diviſ. 1. Cornua ammonis, quæ ſunt teſtacea marina univalvia non turbinata, et ſerpentum in modum in ſe contorta, ut eorum circumvolutiones nulla ex parte promineant, et tamen ex utroque latere omnes appareant. Gen. 1. Cornua ammonis unita. Gen. 2. Cornua ammonis anomala. Diviſ. 2. Gen. 1. Cornua ammonis ſimpliciter diviſa. Gen. 2. Cornua ammonis integra diviſa.

Par-

History.

PARS SECUNDA. *Cochleæ marinæ, ſeu teſtacea marina univalvia turbinata, quæ unica tantum conſtant valva et figura ſua cochlearum in modum intorta ſunt, ita ut intima eorum ſpira aliquo ſaltem modo promineat et producatur.*

CLASSIS PRIMA. Cochleæ marinæ longæ, ſeu cochleæ marinæ ore admodum elongato et ſuperius aperto.

Sect. I. Cochleæ marinæ longæ ore labiis rectis. Gen. 1. Cochleæ pyramidales. Gen. 2. Cochleæ cylindroideæ.

Sect. 2. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes, ſeu cochleæ marinæ longæ ore labiis leviter incurvatis, ideoque etiam leviter ventricoſis. Diviſ. 1. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes minores. Gen. 1. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes minores, vulgares. Gen. 2. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes minores intortæ integræ. Gen. 3. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes minores intortæ et inſulcatæ. Diviſ. 2. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes majores. Gen. 1. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes majores vulgares. Gen. 2. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes majores, intortæ integræ. Gen. 3. Cochleæ longæ pyriformes majores intortæ cylindroideæ.

CLASSIS SECUNDA. Cochleæ canaliculatæ, ſeu cochleæ marinæ ore elongato et ſuperius in canaliculum abeunte.

Sect. 1. Cochleæ marinæ canalicula recta. Gen. 1. Cochleæ canaliculatæ rectæ tenuiores. Gen. 2. Cochleæ canaliculatæ rectæ craſſiores. Gen. 3. Purpuræ rectiroſtræ.

Sect. 2. Cochleæ marinæ canaliculatæ incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Cochleæ canaliculatæ introrſum incurvatæ. Gen. 2. Cochleæ canaliculatæ extrorſum incurvatæ. Gen. 3. Murices. Gen. 4. Cochleæ muriciformes inſigniter incriſpatæ. Gen. 5. Purpuræ curviroſtræ. Gen. 6. Cochleæ caſſidiformes umbilicatæ. Gen. 7. Caſſidæ.

CLASSIS TERTIA. Buccina ſunt cochleæ marinæ ore et mucrone ſimul elongatis, primaque ſpira notabiliter ventricoſa.

Sect. 2. Buccina parva mucrone mediocriter elongato et tenuiter acuminato. Gen. 1. Buccina parva pruniformia acuminata. Gen. 2. Buccina parva pruniformia canaliculata. Gen. 3. Buccina parva curviroſtra. Gen. 4. Buccina parva ſulcata. Gen. 5. Buccina parva ſulcata et canaliculata. Gen. 6. Buccina parva integra ore perpendiculari. Gen. 7. Buccina parva integra ore obliquo.

Sect. 2. Buccina majora, quæ ſunt Buccina mucrone admodum elongato et acuminato. Gen. 1. Buccina majora canaliculata roſtrata ore ſimplici. Gen 2. Buccina majora canaliculata, ore labioſo. Gen. 3. Buccina majora canaliculata roſtrata, ore labioſo, fimbriata. Gen. 4. Buccina majora canaliculata et ſulcata.

CLASSIS QUARTA. Strombi, qui ſunt cochleæ marinæ ore et mucrone ſimul inſigniter elongatis, et prima ſpira notabiliter anguſtiore quam in Buccinis.

Sect. 1. Strombi ore ſuperius aperto. Gen. 1. Strombi canaliculati acuminati. Gen. 2. Strombi canaliculati roſtrati, ore ſimplici. Gen. 3. Strombi canaliculati roſtrati, ore anguloſo. Gen. 4. Strombi canaliculati roſtrati, ore labioſo. Gen. 5. Strombi ſulcati vulgares. Gen. 6. Strombi ſulcati, ore labioſo.

Sect. 2. Strombi integri, ore ſuperius clauſo, ſeu integro. Gen. 1. Strombi integri vulgares, ore ſimplici. Gen. 2. Strombi integri, ore labioſo. Gen. 3. Strombi integri, ore fimbriato et dentato.

CLASSIS QUINTA. Cochleæ marinæ, ore admodum brevi ſeu parvo, mucrone vero inſigniter elongato.

Sect. 1. Turbines aperti, ſeu cochleæ marinæ, ore admodum brevi ſeu parvo ſuperius aperto, mucrone longiſſimo. Gen. 1. Turbines aperti lati. Gen. 2. Turbines aperti acuminati. Gen. 3. Turbines aperti canaliculati recte roſtri. Gen. 4. Turbines aperti canaliculati oblique incurvati. Gen. 5. Turbines aperti ſulcati.

Sect. 2. Turbines integri, ore ſuperius clauſo ſeu integro. Gen. 1. Turbines integri vulgares. Gen. 2. Turbines integri acuminati. Gen. 3. Turbines integri fimbriati.

Sect. 3. Trochi ſeu cochleæ marinæ ore admodum brevi, ſeu parvo e baſi lata et quaſi plana in mucronem quaſi rectilineam conoideum inſigniter elongatum abeuntes. Gen. 1. Trochi ore anguſto et horiſontaliter compreſſo. Gen. 2. Trochi ore ampliore et ſubrotundo.

CLASSIS SEXTA. Cochleæ marinæ breviores, ſeu cochleæ marinæ ore et mucrone breviores, magiſque contracto.

Sect. 1. Cochleæ breviores proportionatæ. Gen. 1. Cochleæ trochiformes breviores proportionatæ et mucronatæ. Gen. 2. Cochleæ marinæ terreſtriformes breviore proportionatæ. Gen. 3. Cochleæ depreſſæ.

Sect. 2. Cochleæ marinæ breviores perpendiculariter anomalæ. Gen. 1. Neritæ. Gen. 2. Cochleæ umbilicatæ foramine ſpirarum ſemicirculari. Gen. 3. Cochleæ umbilicatæ foramine ſpirarum rotundo.

Sect. 3. Cochleæ marinæ breviores horiſontaliter anomalæ. Gen. 1. Cochleæ planæ. Gen. 2. Aures marinæ.

Sect. 4. Varia hucuſque enarratarum cochlearum opercula quæ aut propter uſum aut propter ſingularem ſtructuram, magis nota ſunt. Gen. 1. Opercula cochlearum marinarum ſubrotunda. Gen. 2. Ungues marini, ſeu opercula cochlearum marinarum oblonga.

PARS TERTIA. *Conchæ marinæ, id eſt teſtacea marina bivalvia quæ duobus conſtant valvis in cardine, articulatione quadam inter ſe conjunctis, ut commode claudi et aperiri queant.*

Sect. 1. Conchæ marinæ notabiliter umbonatæ et rectæ incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus æquilateræ. Gen. 2. Conchæ cordiformes umbone cardinum deducto. Gen. 3. Conchæ marinæ cordiformes æquilateræ, umbone cardinum unito.

Sect. 2. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus æquilateræ leviter umbonatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ craſſæ. Gen. 2. Pectines.

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Pectines tenues. Gen. 3. Pectunculi. Gen. 4. Conchæ pectiniformes æquilateræ subrotundæ. Gen. 5. Conchæ pectiniformes æquilateræ.

Sect. 3. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus æquilateræ, notabiliter umbonatæ et oblique incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ incurvatæ subrotundæ vulgares. Gen. 2. Chamæ æquilateræ.

Sect. 4. Conchæ marinæ, valvis æqualibus æquilateræ levitur umbonatæ et oblique incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus subrotundæ. Gen. 2. Tellinæ æquilateræ.

Sect. 5. Pinnæ, seu conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus æquilateræ, cardine umbone destituta. Gen. 1. Pinnæ rectæ. Gen. 2. Pinnæ incurvatæ.

Classis Secunda. Conchæ inæquilateræ, seu conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus ex utroque cardinis latere inæqualiter effusæ.

Sect. 1. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ notabiliter umbonatæ, et rectæ incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ subrotundæ. Gen. 2. Conchæ marinæ cordiformes inæquilateræ, umbone cardine deducto. Gen. 3. Conchæ marinæ cordiformes inæquilateræ, umbone cardinum unito.

Sect. 2. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ, leviter umbonatæ et rectæ incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ leviter umbonatæ et rectæ incurvatæ subrotundæ.

Sect. 3. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ, notabiliter umbonatæ et oblique incurvatæ, subrotundæ vulgares. Gen. 1. Chamæ inæquilateræ. Gen. 2. Conchæ rhomboidales.

Sect. 4. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ leviter umbonatæ et oblique incurvatæ. Gen. 1. Conchæ marinæ, &c. subrotundæ. Gen. 2. Conchæ pectiniformes inæquilateræ triangulares. Gen. 3. Tellinæ inæquilateræ. Gen. 4. Conchæ tellinæformes. Gen. 5. Musculi. Gen. 6. Conchæ longærugosæ. Gen. 7. Conchæ soleniformes. Gen. 8. Mytili.

Sect. 5. Conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ leviter umbonatæ et oblique incurvatæ, structura et striis peculiaribus. Gen. 1. Conchæ imbricatæ. Gen. 2. Pholades. Gen. 3. Dactyli. Gen. 4. Hysteroconchæ. Gen. 5. Conchæ alæformes. Gen. 6. Conchæ quadratæ.

Sect. 6. Conchæ inæquilateræ non umbonatæ, seu conchæ marinæ valvis æqualibus inæquilateræ, cardine umbone destituto. Gen. 1. Solenes. Gen. 2. Conchæ marinæ, &c. structura peculiari.

Classis Tertia. Conchæ anomalæ, seu conchæ marinæ valvis inæqualibus.

Sect. 1. Conchæ marinæ anomalæ umbonatæ et auritæ. Gen. 1. Pectines anomali. Gen. 2. Spondyli.

Sect. 2. Ostreæ, seu conchæ marinæ anomalæ omnino non vel irregulariter tantum umbonatæ rugosæ. Gen. 1. Ostrea vulgaris. Gen. 2. Ostrea denticulata. Gen. 3. Ostrea rostrata. Gen. 4. Ostrea peculiaris.

7 Of Breynius.

III. A different system was proposed for the classification of testaceous animals by Breynius, in the following work, which was published in the year 1732. *Joannis Philippi Breynii dissertatio physica de polythalamiis, nova testaceorum classe, cui quædam præmittuntur de methodo testacea in classes et genera distribuendi: huic adjicitur commentatiuncula de belemnitis prussicis, tandemque schediasma de Echinis methodice disponendis; Gedani*, 1732, 4to.

SYSTEM of BREYNIUS.

In this system the author has divided shells into the eight following classes, viz. 1. Tubulus. 2. Cochlidium. 3. Polythalamium. 4. Lepas. 5. Concha. 6. Conchoides. 7. Balanus. 8. Echinus.

1. *Tubulus*, est testa tubulosa monothalamia, vel in lineam rectam extensa, vel incurva, vel contorta, vel aliquando ad spiram, sed irregulariter, accedens. Huic pertinent dentalia, entalia, solenes univalvi, &c.

2. *Cochlidium*, est testa tubulosa, monothalamia, conica, inspirans constanter regularem, convoluta aliquando opercula prædita, sepius vero eo destituta. Ad hanc classem spectant nautili tenues sive vacui vulgo dicti; aures marinæ, neritæ, cochleæ, buccina, murices, cassides, cylindri, volutæ, porcellanæ, et omnes testæ turbinatæ, exceptis nautilo et anomia, ad classem tertiam referendis.

3. *Polythalamium*, est testa tubulosa polythalamia, conica, recta, vel in spiram regularem convoluta, cum syphunculo thalamos transeunte: huic reducendi nautili anomia, litui, et orthocerata.

4. *Lepas*, est testa vasculosa simplex, referens vasculum magis minusve cavum, orificio multum patenta, ut patellæ similesque.

5. *Concha*, est testa vasculosa composita bivalvis, id est quæ ex duabus componitur valvis, sive vasculis magis minusve concavis in cardine articulatione quadam inter se junctis ut aperiri et claudi queant; ut chamæ, mytili, tellinæ, pinnæ, ostreæ, pectines anomiæ.

6. *Conchoides*, est testa vasculosa composita bivalvis, sed quæ præterea et aliquot minoribus portiunculis testaceis componitur, ut pholades anatiferæ.

7. *Balanus*, est testa vasculosa composita, que præter unicam testam majorem alias portiones minores habet ex quibus componitur, ut balanus vulgo dictus.

8. *Echinus*, est testa vasculosa composita, undique clausa; magis minusve concava, duobus tantum foraminibus seu aperturis pro ore et ano perforata, externe aculeis vel claviculis mobilibus testaceis armata.

8 Of Tournefort.

IV. The system of Tournefort appeared for the first time, and was published from the author's manuscript, in the treatise on conchology by Gualtieri. In this system shells are divided into three classes, viz. Monotoma, Ditoma, and Polytoma.

SYSTEM of TOURNEFORT.

Testacea dicuntur quorundam animalium integumenta, quæ testæ seu lateris duritiem habent, et in quibus tantum, in testa animalia vivant.

Testacea autem omnia quæ hucusque in musæis curiosorum adversari et congeri solent, ad tres classes facile revocari possunt. Hæc enim vel monotoma sunt, vel ditoma, vel polytoma.

Monotoma testacea appellantur ea quorum testa indivisa est; ditoma quæ geminis constant testis ad cardinem

Hiſtory. dinem connixis; polytoma vero quæ ex pluribus ſimul adnexis compinguntur.

Classis Prima. Quæ teſtacea monotoma complectitur. Teſtacea monotoma quorum teſta indiviſa eſt, in tres familias abeant: alia enim univalvia ſunt, alia ſpiralia, alia fiſtuloſa.

Familia I. *Teſtaceorum univalvium.* Monotoma univalvia dicimus quorum teſta ſimplex eſt, in os amplius effuſa. Gen. 1. Lepas. Gen. 2. Eruca.

Familia II. *Teſtaceorum ſpiralium.* Monotoma ſpiralia dicimus teſtacea quorum pars inferior in ſpiram contorquetur: horum autem ſpiræ ſeu helices exterius patent, et ſimpliciter ſpiralia dicuntur, vel eorum ſpira intus reconditur, et convoluta dicuntur.

Divis. 1. Teſtacea monotoma ſimpliciter ſpiralia, ſeu quorum ſpira exterior eſt. Gen. 1. Murex. Gen. 2. Murex alatus. Gen. 3. Murex aporrhais. Gen. 4. Murex venereus. Gen. 5. Murex pyramidalis. Gen. 6. Buccinum. Gen. 7. Buccino-murex. Gen. 8. Purpura. Gen. 9. Buccino-purpura. Gen. 10. Peribolus. Gen. 11. Turbo. Gen. 12. Verticillus. Gen. 13. Cochlea. Gen. 14. Cochlea terreſtris. Gen. 15. Ceratites. Gen. 16. Cochlea marina. Gen. 17. Nerita. Gen. 18. Auris marina.

Divis. 2. Teſtacea monotoma ſpiralia convoluta, quæ cochleam interiorem habent vix foris conſpicuam. Gen. 1. Concha venerea. Gen. 2. Concha perſica. Gen. 3. Nautilus. Gen. 4. Conchilium.

Familia III. *Teſtaceorum fiſtuloſorum.* Teſtacea monotoma fiſtuloſa ſeu tubuloſa, ut ex nomine patet, fiſtulæ in modum tenuantur. Gen. 1. Dentale. Gen. 2. Entale. Gen. 3. Tubuli marini.

Classis Secunda, quæ teſtacea ditoma continet. Teſtacea ditoma ſemper ex duabus teſtis ad cardinem articulatis compinguntur, et vel arcte undique clauduntur, vel utrinque hiant; unde in duas familias dividi poſſunt.

Familia I. Teſtaceorum ditomorum quæ arcte clauduntur. Gen. 1. Concha. Gen. 2. Conchula. Gen. 3. Oſtreum. Gen. 4. Mytilus. Gen. 5. Pinna. Gen. 6. Perna. Gen. 7. Pholas. Gen. 8. Pecten. Gen. 9. Pectunculus.

Familia II. Teſtaceorum ditomorum quæ ſemper hiant. Gen. 1. Chamæ. Gen. 2. Solen.

Classis Tertia, quæ teſtacea polytoma continet. Polytoma teſtacea dicuntur quorum teſtæ ex pluribus partibus vel articulatis, vel per cartilaginem connexis compinguntur; unde in duas familias abeunt.

Familia I. Eorum quorum partes articulantur. Gen. 1. Echinus.

Familia II. Eorum quorum partes per cartilaginem connectuntur. Gen. 1. Balanus.

9 Of D'Argenville. V. M. D'Argenville in 1742, publiſhed at Paris a treatiſe on Conchology with 33 plates. A ſecond edition of the ſame work appeared at Paris in 1757. In this edition the number of the plates was increaſed to 41. A more ſplendid edition was publiſhed after the death of the author, by M. M. de Favanne de Montcerville father and ſon. This edition is extended to 3 volumes, two of which conſiſt of letter preſs, and the 3d contains the engravings, which are 80 in number, and are executed with great accuracy and elegance. But the deſcriptions of the genera and ſpecies only reach the 19th plate; ſo that the work which was publiſhed in 1780 is ſtill unfiniſhed.

SYSTEM of D'ARGENVILLE.

In this ſyſtem ſhells are divided into four parts. I. Sea-ſhells. II. Freſh-water ſhells. III. Land-ſhells. IV. Foſſil-ſhells.

Part I. Sea-ſhells are divided into 3 Claſſes. 1. Univalves. 2. Bivalves. 3. Multivalves.

Claſs I. contains 15 families, viz. 1. Lepas. 2. Oreilles de mer. 3. Tuyaux et Vermiſſeaux de mer. 4. Nautiles. 5. Limaçons à bouche ronde. 6. Limaçons à bouche demi-ronde. 7. Limaçons à bouche aplatie. 8. Cornets ou Volutes. 9. Olives ou Cylindres. 10. Rochers ou Murex. 11. Tonnes. 12. Porcelaines. 13. Buccins. 14. Pourpres. 15. Vis.

Claſs II. contains 7 families, viz. 1. Huitres. 2. Cames. 3. Tellines. 4. Moules. 5. Cœurs. 6. Peignes. 7. Manches de couteaux.

Claſs III. conſiſts of 7 families, viz. 1. Oſcabrions, ou lepas à huit pieces. 2. Ourſins. 3. Glands de mer. 4. Pouſſe-pieds. 5. Conques anatiferes. 6. Pholades. 7. Tuyaux de mer multivalves.

Part II. Freſh-water ſhells are divided into 2 Claſſes. 1. Univalves. 2. Bivalves.

Claſs I. contains 8 families, viz. 1. Lepas. 2. Nautiles ou cornes d'ammon. 3. Limaçons à bouche ronde. 4. Limaçons à bouche demi-ronde. 5. Limaçons à bouche triangulaire. 6. Tonnes. 7. Buccins. 8. Vis.

Claſs II. is compoſed of two families. 1. Cames. 2. Tellines.

Part III. Land ſhells, conſtituting a ſingle claſs, viz. Univalves, which contains 6 families; viz. 1. Lepas. 2. Limaçons à bouche ronde. 3. Limaçons à bouche demi-ronde. 4. Limaçons à bouche aplatie. 5. Buccins. 6. Vis.

Part IV. Foſſil ſhells, which conſiſt of 3 claſſes. 1. Univalves. 2. Bivalves. 3. Multivalves.

Claſs I. is compoſed of 15 families having the ſame names as the firſt claſs of ſea-ſhells.

Claſs II. contains 7 families ſimilar to the 2d claſs of ſea-ſhells.

Claſs III. conſiſts of 5 families, viz. 1. Ourſins. 2. Glands de mer. 3. Pouſſe-pieds. 4. Pholades. 5. Tuyaux multivalves.

10 Of Klein. IV. A ſyſtem of Conchology was publiſhed by Klein in 1753, and illuſtrated with engravings. In the ſame work the author enters into an inveſtigation concerning the formation, increaſe, and colours of ſhells. The following is an abridged view of this arrangement.

SYSTEM

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SYSTEM OF KLEIN.

In this ſyſtem, ſhells are divided into 6 parts.

PART I. which is entitled Cochlis, is divided into 2 ſections, viz. Cochlis ſimplex, and Cochlis compoſita.

Sect. I. conſiſts of 8 claſſes, viz. Cochlis plana, containing 4 genera. 2. Cochlis convexa, 6 genera. 3. Cochlis fornicata, 5 genera. 4. Cochlis elliptica, 6 genera. 5. Cona-cochlis, 16 genera. 6. Cochlea, 8 genera. 7. Buccinum, 5 genera. 8. Turbo, 14 genera.

Sect. II. Conſiſts of five claſſes, viz. 1. Cochlis roſtrata, 7 genera. 2. Voluta longa, 15 genera. 3. Voluta ovata, 8 genera. 4. Alata, 6 genera. 5. Murex, 2 genera.

PART II. Concha, is alſo divided into two ſections, viz. Monoconchæ and Diconchæ æquales.

Sect. I. contains 2 claſſes, viz. 1. Patella, 2 genera. 2. Anſata, 4 genera.

Sect. II. conſiſts of three ſubdiviſions, viz. 1. Diconchæ conniventes. 2. Diconchæ interruptæ. 3. Diconchæ inæquales.

Subdiv. 1. is compoſed of 6 claſſes, viz. 1. Diconchæ figuratæ, 4 genera. 2. Oſtreum, 6 genera. 3. Muſculus, 3 genera. 4. Cyclas. 5. Diconcha aurita, 9 genera. 6. Diconchæ cordiformes, 3 genera.

Subdiv. 2. conſiſts of 5 claſſes, viz. 1. Diconcha ſulcata. 2. Diconchæ umbilicatæ, 3 genera. 3. Diconchæ ſinu profundo, ſeu chamæ, 3 genera. 4. Diconchæ ſinu prominulo, ſeu tellinæ, 6 genera. 5. Pyloris, 9 genera.

Subdiv. 3. Diconchæ inæquales, 7 genera.

PART III. Polyconcha, conſiſts only of one genus.

PART IV. Niduli Teſtacei, comprehends one claſs, viz. Balanus, which includes 4 genera.

PART V. Echinus marinus, ſeu echinodermata, is divided into 3 ſections, viz. 1. Anocyſti. 2. Catocyſti. 3. Pleurocyſti.

Sect. I. contains 2 claſſes, viz. 1. Cidaris, 9 genera. 2. Clipeus, 1 genus.

Sect. II. is compoſed of four claſſes, viz. 1. Fibula, 2 genera. 2. Claſſis, 2 genera. 3. Scutum, 2 genera. 4. Placenta, 3 genera.

Sect. III. conſiſts of 3 claſſes, viz. 1. Arachnoides, 1 genus. 2. Cor marinum, 2 genera. 3. Ovum marinum, 2 genera.

PART VI. Tubulus marinus is compoſed of 11 genera.

In the ſyſtems of Conchology which we have now exhibited, the characters are taken from the ſhells. In the three following, the marks of diſcrimination are derived from the animal as well as from the ſhell. The firſt by M. Adanſon was publiſhed in 1757.

11 Of Adanſon.

SYSTEM OF ADANSON.

This ſyſtem conſiſts of 3 claſſes, viz. 1. Limaçons. 2. Les conques. 3. Les conques multivalves.

CLASS I. Limaçons. Sect. I. Limaçons univalves. Sect. II. Limaçons operculés.

Sect. I. Famille 1. Les limaçons univalves qui n'ont ni yeux ni cornes. Gen. 1. La gondole, *cymbium*. Famille 2. Les limaçons univalves qui ont deux cornes, et les yeux places à leur racine et ſur leur côte interne. Gen. 2. Le bulin, *bulinus*. Gen. 3. Le coret, *coretus*. Gen. 4. Le pietin, *pedipes*. Famille 3. Les limaçons univalves qui ont quatres cornes, dont les deux exterieures portent les yeux ſur leur ſommet. Gen. 5. Le limaçon, *cochlea*. Gen. 6. L'ormier, *haliotis*. Famille 4. Les limaçons univalves qui ont deux cornes, et les yeux placés à leurs racines, et ſur le côte externe, ou par derrière. Gen. 7. Le lepas, *lepas*. Gen. 8. L'yet *yetus*. Gen. 9. La vis, *terebra*. Famille 5. Les limaçons univalves qui ont deux cornes et les yeux poſés un peu au-deſſus de leur racine, et ſur leur côte externe. Gen. 10. La porcellaine, *porcellana*. Gen. 11. Le pucelage, *cypræa*. Gen. 12. Le mantelet, *peribolus*.

Sect. II. Famille 1. Limaçons operculés qui ont deux cornes, avec un renflement, et qui portent les yeux ordinairement au-deſſus de leur racine, et à leur côté externe. Gen. 1. Le rouleau, *ſtrombus*. Gen. 2. La pourpre, *purpura*. Gen. 3. Le buccin, *buccinum*. Gen. 4. Le cerite, *cerithium*. Famille 2. Limaçons opercules, qui ont deux cornes ſans renflement, et les yeux places à leur racine, et ſur leur côte externe. Gen. 5. Le vermet, *vermetus*. Gen. 6. La toupie, *trochus*. Gen. 7. La natice, *natica*. Famille 3. Les limaçons operculés, qui ont quatre cornes, dont les deux exterieures portent les yeux ſur leur ſommet. Gen. 8. Le ſabot, *turbo*. Gen. 9. La nerite, *nerita*.

CLASS II. Les conques. Sect. I. Les conques bivalves. Famille 1. Les conques bivalves, qui ont les deux lobes du manteau ſeparés, dans tout leur contour. Gen. 1. L'huitre, *oſterum*. Famille 2. Les conques bivalves dont les deux lobes du manteau forment trois ouvertures ſans aucun tuyau. Gen. 2. Le jataron, *jataronus*. Gen. 3. Le jambonneau, *perna*. Famille 3. Les conques bivalves dont les deux lobes du manteau forment trois ouvertures dont deux prennent la figure d'un tuyau aſſez long. Gen. 4. La came, *chama*. Gen. 5. La telline, *tellina*. Gen. 6. Le pectoncle, *pectunculus*. Gen. 7. Le ſolen, *ſolen*.

CLASS III. Les conques multivalves. Famille 1. Les conques multivalves, dont aucune des pieces de la coquille ne prend la forme d'un tuyau. Gen. 1. La pholade, *pholas*. Famille 2. Les conques multivalves, dont une des pièces de la coquille prend la forme d'un tuyau qui enveloppe entierement toutes les autres. Gen. 2. Le taret, *teredo*.

12 Of Geoffroy.

VIII. The method of Geoffroy, formed on ſimilar principles with the laſt, was publiſhed at Paris in 1767, in a work entitled "A Summary Treatiſe on the Teſtaceous Animals found in the vicinity of Paris." The following is a view of this method.

SYSTEM OF GEOFFROY.

SECT. I. Coquilles univalves.

Gen. 1. Le limax, *cochlea*. Quatre tentacules, dont deux plus grands portent des yeux à leur extremité. Coquille univalve en ſpirale.

Gen.

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Gen. 2. Le buccin, *buccinum*. Deux tentacules plats en formes d'oreilles. Les yeux placés à la base des tentacules du côté interieur. Coquille univalve en spirale et conique.

Gen. 3. Planorbe, *planorbis*. Deux tentacules filiformes. Les yeux placés à la base des tentacules du côté interieur. Coquille univalve en spirale, et ordinairement applatie.

Gen. 4. La nerite, *nerita*. Deux tentacules. Les yeux placés à la base des tentacules du côté exterieur. Opercule à la coquille. Coquille univalve en spirale et presque conique.

Gen. 5. Ancile, *ancylus*. Deux tentacules. Les yeux placés à la base des tentacules du côté inferieur. Coquille univalve concave et unie.

SECT. II. Coquilles univalves.

Gen. 1. La câme, *chama*. Deux siphons simples et alongées. Charniere de la coquille dentelle. Coquille arondée.

Gen. 2. La moule, *mytilus*. Deux siphons courts et frangés. Charniere de la coquille membraneuse et sans dents. Coquille alongée.

13 Of Muller.

IX. The system of Muller first published in 1773, and afterwards extended in a different work which appeared in 1776, arranges testaceous animals into three families. The following is a view of this arrangement taken from the latter work on the zoology of Denmark and Norway.

SYSTEM OF MULLER.

FAMILIA I. *Testacea Univalvia.*

SECT. I. Testacea univalvia, testa pervia.

Gen. 1. *Echinus*. Testa crustacea, ano verticali, tentaculis simplicibus.

Gen. 2. *Spatagus*. Testa crustacea, ano infero, tentaculis penicillatis.

Gen. 2. *Dentalium*. Testa calcarea, testa rudi, tentaculis nullis.

SECT. II. Testacea univalvia, testa patula.

Gen. 4. *Akera*. Apertura effusa, tentaculis nullis.

Gen. 5. *Argonauta*. Apertura profunda, tentaculis binis.

Gen. 6. *Bulla*. Apertura repanda, tentaculis binis setaceis, colliculo extrinsecus oculatis.

Gen. 7. *Buccinum*. Apertura ovata, tentaculis binis triangularibus, angulo intrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 8. *Carychium*. Apertura ovata, tentaculis binis truncatis conspicuis, angulo intrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 9. *Vertigo*. Apertura subquadrata, tentaculis binis sublinearibus, apice oculatis.

Gen. 10. *Turbo*. Apertura orbiculari, tentaculis binis setaceis, conspicuis, angulo extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 11. *Helix*. Apertura lunari, tentaculis quatuor linearibus, apice oculatis.

Gen. 12. *Planorbis*. Apertura semilunari, tentaculis binis setaceis, angulo intrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 13. *Ancylus*. Apertura totali tentaculis binis truncatis, occultis, angulo extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 14. *Patella*. Apertura totali, tentaculis binis setacei-, occulto angulo, extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 15. *Haliotis*. Apertura repanda, poris pertusa.

SECT. III. Testacea univalvia, testa operculata.

Gen. 16. *Tritonium*. Libera, apertura canaliculata, tentaculis duobus linearibus, angulo extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 17. *Trochus*. Libera, apertura sub-tetragona, tentaculis duobus setaceis, colliculo extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 18. *Nerita*. Libera, apertura lunari, tentaculis duobus setaceis, angulo extrinseco oculatis.

Gen. 19. *Valvata*. Libera, apertura circinnata, tentaculis duobus setaceis, angulo postico oculatis.

Gen. 20. *Serpula*. Adnata, apertura orbiculari, tentaculis pinnatis.

FAMILIA II. *Testacea Bivalvia.*

SECT. I. Testacea bivalvia cardine dentata.

Gen. 1. *Mya*. Testa altera extremitate hiante; cardine dente crasso solitario.

Gen. 2. *Solen*. Testa utraque extremitate hiante; cardine dente reflexo, sæpe gemino.

Gen. 3. *Tellina*. Siphone duplici, murico; cardine dentibus utrinque tribus alternis.

Gen. 4. *Cardium*. Siphone duplici, cirrato, pedeque falciformi; cardine dentibus mediis alternis, remotis penetralibus.

Gen. 5. *Venus*. Siphone duplici, cirrata, pedeque laminæformi; cardine dentibus tribus approximatis, lateralibus divergentibus.

Gen. 6. *Mactra*. Cardine dente medio complicato, adjacente foveola.

Gen. 7. *Donax*. Cardine dentibus duobus, lateralique solitario.

Gen. 8. *Arca*. Cardine dentibus numerosis, alternis, penetrantibus.

Gen. 9. *Terebratula*. Branchiis circinnatis; cardine dentibus alterius uncinatis, valvula superiore deorsum perforata.

SECT. II. Testacea bivalvia, cardine edentulo.

Gen. 10. *Anomia*. Branchiis simplicibus; valvula inferiore perforata.

Gen. 11. *Ostreà*. Branchiis simplicibus, pede nullo; cardines fossula cava.

Gen. 12. *Pecten*. Branchiis cirratis, pede juxta auriculam cardine fossula ovata, byssum emittens.

Gen. 13. *Mytilus*. Siphone duplici brevi; fossula lineari, byssum emittens.

FAMILIA III. *Testacea Multivalvia.*

Gen. 1. *Chiton*. Valvulæ dorsales, tentacula nulla.

Gen. 2. *Lepas*. Valvulæ erectæ, tentacula bipartita.

Gen. 3. *Pholas*. Valvulæ ad cardinem minores.

14 Da Costa.

X. To this account of the different methods of arranging shells, we shall only add the system proposed by Da Costa in his Elements of Conchology. In this system the author adopts the usual general division into Univalves, Bivalves, and Multivalves.

I. UNIVALVES are distributed into 16 families, which are divided into four orders.

Order I. Simple; consists of four families. 1. Patella. 2. Haliotis. 3. Vermiculi. 4. Dentalia. Order II. includes only one family. 5. Polythalamia. Order III. Revolved. Fam. 6. Turbinata involuta. Order IV. Turbinated

Animals which inhabit Shells.

nated. Fam. 7. Cymbium. Fam. 8. Auriscochlea. Fam. 9. Cylindri. Fam. 10. Voluta. Fam. 11. Globosa. Fam. 12. Cassides. Fam. 13. Trochi. Fam. 14. Cochleæ. Fam. 15. Buccina. Fam. 16. Murex.

II. Bivalves composed of 3 orders.

Order I. With unequal valves, and shut close. Fam. 1. Pecten. Fam. 2. Spondylus. Fam. 3. Ostreum. Fam. 4. Anomia. Ord. II. With equal valves, and shut close, is divided into three sections. Sect. 1. Multarticulate. Fam. 5. Pectinoides. Fam. 6. Pectunculi. Fam. 7. Arca. Sect. 2. Articulate. Fam. 8. Pectunculus. Fam. 9. Tellina. Fam. 10. Placenta. Sect. 3. Inarticulate. Fam. 11. Margaritifera. Fam. 12. Musculus. Ord. III. With valves that never shut close. Fam. 13. Chama, *Gapers*.

III. Multivalves contain one order. Fam. 14. Pholas. Fam. 15. Anatiferæ. Fam. 16. Balani.

CHAP. II. OF THE ANIMALS WHICH INHABIT SHELLS.

15 Generic characters of testaceous animals.

BEFORE we proceed to the classification of shells, we shall here give a short description of the animals which inhabit them. Of these, however, a minute and accurate anatomical description is not to be expected; for little more is known of the structure of these animals than what has been given by naturalists concerning their external characters.

Some of the animals, which inhabit shells, are also found in the *mollusca* state; that is without any testaceous covering. Such, for instance, is the *limax*, or snail.

The animals which have been found inhabiting shells are the following; viz. Doris, Triton, Ascidia, Tethys, Limax, Spio, Amphitrite, Terebella, Nereis.

Doris.—The body is creeping, oblong, and flat beneath; the mouth is placed below on the forepart; vent behind on the back, and surrounded by a fringe. Feelers two or four, situated on the upper part of the body in front, and retractile within the proper receptacles.

The animal which inhabits the chiton belongs to this genus.

Triton.—The body is oblong, and the mouth is furnished with an involute spiral proboscis: tentacula or arms 12, six on each side, divided nearly to the base. The hind ones cheliforous.

The triton inhabits different species of lepas.

Ascidia.—The body is fixed, roundish, and apparently issuing from a sheath; apertures two, generally placed near the upper end, one beneath the other. The animals are found in the sea, and adhere by their base to rocks, shells, and other submarine substances: they are more or less gelatinous. The only powers of motion which they possess seem to be that of contracting and dilating themselves alternately; by which means they are enabled to throw out the water which they take in with considerable force.

This animal inhabits the pholas, solen, some species of the mya, mactra, and other bivalves.

Tethys.—The body is detached, rather oblong, fleshy, without peduncles: the mouth is furnished with a terminal cylindrical proboscis, under an expanded membrane or lip: apertures two, on the left side of the neck.

The tethys inhabits a great proportion of bivalve shells, as many species of tellina, cardium, mactra, venus, ostrea, and others.

Limax.—The body is oblong, creeping, with a fleshy kind of shield above, and a longitudinal flat disc beneath: aperture placed on the right side within the shield: feelers 4, situated above the mouth, with an eye at the tip of each of the larger ones.

The animals belonging to this genus inhabit the turbinated univalve shells; but it appears that all the animals which inhabit these shells do not exactly correspond with the above generic characters.

Spio.—The body projecting from a tube, jointed and furnished with dorsal fibres; peduncles or feet rough with bristles, and placed towards the back; feelers 2; long, simple; eyes 2; long.

This animal inhabits some species of sabella.

Amphitrite.—Body projecting from a tube, and annulate; peduncles or feet small, numerous, with lateral fasciculi, and branchiæ; feelers 2, approximate, feathered; no eyes.

The amphitrite inhabits some species of sabella and serpula.

Terebella.—Body oblong, creeping, naked, furnished with lateral fasciculi or tufts, and branchiæ; mouth placed before, furnished with lips, without teeth, and protruding a clavated proboscis; feelers numerous, ciliated, capillary, and placed round the mouth.

This animal is an inhabitant of many species of dentalium, serpula and sabella.

Nereis.—Body long, creeping, with numerous lateral peduncles or feet on each side; feelers simple, rarely none; eyes 2 or 4, rarely none. According to some naturalists, the nereis inhabits some species of sabella.

Sepia.—Body fleshy, receiving the breast in a sheath, with a tubular aperture at its base; arms 8, beset with numerous warts or suckers, and in most species 2 pedunculated tentacula; head short; eyes large; mouth resembling a parrot's beak.

The animal which inhabits the argonauta is considered by naturalists as belonging to this genus.

Clio.—Body oblong, natant, generally sheathed, and furnished with two dilated membranaceous arms or wing-like processes; tentacula 3, besides 2 in the mouth.

According to some naturalists, it is an animal belonging to this genus which inhabits the argonauta.

Terms employed in describing Shells.

CHAP. III. OF THE TERMS WHICH ARE EMPLOYED IN DESCRIBING SHELLS.

Terms employed in describing Shells.

1 Terms explained.

AS it will tend to facilitate our progreſs in the ſtudy of *Conchology*, clearly to underſtand the terms which are employed in deſcribing ſhells, and the names by which the different parts have been diſtinguiſhed by naturaliſts; we ſhall here give a few definitions of the principal terms. And that theſe definitions may be eaſily conſulted, we ſhall obſerve the ſame order as in the claſſification which is to be adopted. They may be conveniently arranged, therefore, into the three diviſions of multivalves, bivalves, and univalves.

1. *Explanation of the Terms of Multivalve Shells.*

17 Multivalves.

MULTIVALVE ſhells are compoſed of more than two pieces.

Articulated (teſtæ articulatæ), when the different pieces of which the ſhell is compoſed are ſo ſtrongly united that they ſeem to form one ſhell.

Æquivalve ſhells (teſtæ æquivalves), when the valves of the two ſides have the ſame form, ſize, and poſition.

A ſhell is ſaid to *adhere* (teſta adherens), when it is attached to ſolid bodies by ſome of the pieces of which it is compoſed: It is ſaid to be *looſe* (teſta libera), when it is not attached by any point.

Pedunculated (teſta pedunculata), when all the pieces of which it is compoſed, are ſupported by a tendinous peduncle which is fixed to ſolid bodies.

Tubular (teſta tubuloſa), when the greateſt part of the ſhell is formed of a cylindrical tube.

Baſe of the ſhell (baſis teſtæ), that part on which it is ſupported.

Ligament (ligamentum), is a membranous or tendinous ſubſtance which connects the valves together, and ſometimes lines the cavity of the ſhells. Of this there are ſeveral varieties.

——— ſcaly (ligamentum ſquamatum), when the ſurface is covered with ſmall granular ſcales.

——— prickly (ligamentum aculeatum), when the ſurface is furniſhed with ſmall rough points.

——— ſmooth (ligamentum læve), when the ſurface has neither points, ſcales, nor tubercles.

——— punctated (ligamentum punctatum), when the ſurface is marked with ſmall cavities.

Lid (operculum), is the name given to four ſmall triangular valves articulated in the form of a croſs, which ſhut up the ſuperior orifice of ſome ſpecies of multivalve ſhells.

Peduncle (pedunculus) is the tendinous ſubſtance which ſupports ſome of the multivalve ſhells. It is flexible while the animal is alive, and is ſmooth or ſcaly.

Rays (radii); theſe are impreſſions on the external ſurface of ſome ſhells; they are of a conical form, having the vertex turned towards the baſe of the ſhell. They are only diſtinctly ſeen in adult ſhells.

——— filiform (radii filiformes) are long and narrow.

——— ſmooth (radii leves.)———

——— ſtriated (radii tranſverſim ſtriati.)———

Valves (valvulæ) are the different pieces of which multivalve ſhells are compoſed.

2. *Explanation of the Terms applied to Bivalve Shells.*

18 Bivalves.

A BIVALVE ſhell is ſaid to *adhere* (teſta adherens), when it is fixed by any part of one of its valves to a ſolid body.

It is ſaid to have *ears* (teſta aurita), when it forms at its baſe, one or two compreſſed angles.

Gaping (teſta hians), when the valves do not ſhut cloſe.

Bearded (teſta barbata), covered externally with an epidermis compoſed of ſtrong hair or briſtles.

Compreſſed (teſta compreſſa), when the valves are flat, forming a ſmall cavity.

Heart-ſhaped (teſta cordata), having the form of a heart; (ſubcordata) approaching to that form.

Toothleſs (edentula), without teeth at the hinge.

Equilateral (teſta æquilatera), when the anterior and poſterior part of the ſhell is equal in form and figure.

Equivalve (equivalvis), when the two valves are ſimilar in form and convexity.

Irregular (teſta irregularis), when the form varies in the individuals of the ſpecies.

Lenticular (lenticularis), when the valves are round, and little elevated in the middle, and diminiſh gradually in thickneſs towards the edges.

Linear (teſta linearis), when the length conſiderably exceeds the breadth, but without a cylindrical form.

Tongue-ſhaped (linguæformis), flat and oblong, having the two extremities round and obtuſe.

Boat-ſhaped (navicularis), reſembling the figure of a boat.

Pectinated (pectinata), when the valves being furniſhed with longitudinal ribs, have on their a terior ſurface ribs nearly tranſverſe, which form by their union with the firſt acute angles.

Radiated (radiata), when it is marked on the external ſurface with rays, ribs, or elevated ſtriæ, which proceed from the extremity of the ſummits, and terminate in the circumference of the valves.

Beaked (roſtrata), when one of its ſurfaces, either anterior or poſterior, being contracted and elongated, terminates in form of a beak.

Baſe (baſis). The ſituation in which Linnæus has deſcribed and conſidered bivalve ſhells, conſiſts in placing the beaks of the ſhell turned downwards, in ſuch a way that the ligaments of the valves may be ſeen, ſo that the baſe of the ſhell is the region of its beaks.

Margin of the ſhell (margo teſtæ) ſignifies the whole circumference of the ſhell, parallel to the edge of the valves. It is divided into anterior, poſterior, and ſuperior.

——— anterior (margo anterior), when the ſhell is placed on the beak of the valves, commences at the ſide of the ligament, on the fore-part of the

Terms employed in describing Shells.

beaks, and extends to one-third of the whole circumference of the valves.

Margin posterior (margo posterior), extends to one-third of the circumference from the beaks of the valves behind.

——— superior (margo superior), includes the upper part of the circumference of the valves comprehended between the superior extremity of the anterior margin, and the superior extremity of the posterior margin. Hence the whole circumference of the shell is divided into three equal parts.

Margins of the valves (margines valvularum), signify the whole interior circumference of the valves, including about the breadth of a line of the outer edge. They are divided into

——— furrowed (margines canaliculati), having on some part of the anterior circumference, a small gutter parallel to it.

——— notched (margines crenulati), furnished interiorly with rounded notches.

——— toothed (margines dentati), provided with pointed teeth.

——— folded (margines plicati), furnished with folds which reciprocally correspond with those of the opposite valve.

——— simple (margines simplices) having neither folds, teeth, nor notches.

——— striated (margines striati), having longitudinal striæ.

Hinge. The hinge of a shell is the most solid and thickest part of the circumference of the valves, constituting their base. It is almost always furnished with teeth of different proportions, which serve to fix the valves together. The hinge is

——— compressed (cardo depressus), formed of one compressed tooth.

——— lateral (cardo lateralis), when it is placed at one of the sides of the shell.

——— oblong (cardo oblongus), when it occupies the whole base of the shell.

——— reflected (cardo reflexus), when its edges are folded back externally towards the convexity of the valves.

——— terminal (cardo terminalis), situated at the inferior extremity of the shell.

——— truncated (cardo truncatus), when the base of the shell terminates transversely and suddenly, and the teeth of the hinge are fixed in this part.

Teeth (dentes), are solid protuberances, commonly pointed, with which the hinge of shells is usually furnished, and which are destined to fix the two valves together. They are divided into

——— alternate (dentes alternati), when they are placed in a line parallel to the edges of the hinge; and when the teeth of one valve are received into the interstices of the teeth of the other valve.

——— articulated (dens insertus), when it is received in a corresponding cavity at the opposite valve.

——— forked (dens duplicatus seu bifidus), having the point divided into two.

——— cardinal (dens primarius seu cardinalis), is the tooth which is placed immediately opposite.

——— compressed (dens depressus), which is very much flattened.

Teeth erect (dens erectus), when the valve is laid on the convex side, the tooth rises perpendicularly.

——— longitudinal (dens longitudinalis), when it extends like a rib on the base of the valves.

The *disk* (discus), signifies the convex centre of the valves, which is usually situated between the belly of the shell and its limb.

Limb (limbus), is the circumference of the valves from the disk to their edges.

Belly of the shell (testæ umbo), is the most inflated part of the valves.

It is vaulted (umbo fornicatus) when in the interior of the valves it exhibits a cavity separated from the hinge by a vertical membrane.

Nates are two protuberances of a conical figure, somewhat spiral, which accompany the external base of most bivalve shells. They are

——— flattened (nates depressæ), when the surface is sensibly compressed.

——— approximate (nates approximatæ), meeting together when the shell is shut.

——— horned (nates corniformes), when the angles being considerable, and their direction waved or spiral, they resemble a horn.

——— bent (nates incurvatæ), when the curvature of the one is directed towards that of the other.

——— separated (nates distantes), when they are separated from each other, at least the distance of a line.

——— distant (nates remotissimæ), when the interval is very great.

——— reflected (nates recurvæ), when the curvature is directed towards the posterior surface of the shell.

——— wrinkled (nates rugosæ), when the surface is marked with unequal lines.

——— spiral (nates spirales), when the curvature exhibits more than one circumvolution.

Vulva, is situated at the lower part of the anterior margin of the valves. It is divided into

——— hollowed (excisa, seu canaliculata), when it is marked with a groove during its whole length.

——— distinct (distincta), marked by a perceptible difference of colour.

——— lettered (scripta seu literata), when the surface is marked with lines resembling written characters.

——— inflected (inflexa), when the edge of the lips is bent towards the inner surface of the valves.

Anus, is an impression usually hollow, placed at the lower part of the posterior surface. It is divided into

——— bordered (marginatus), when it is circumscribed by a distinct elevation.

——— heart-shaped (cordatus), exhibiting the form of a heart.

——— toothed (dentatus), furnished with teeth or notches.

——— lanceolated (lanceolatus), when the length is greater than the breadth, and the extremities are pointed.

——— open (patulus seu hians), forming by the separation of its edges, a considerable opening; which penetrates into the interior of the shell.

——— oval (ovatus), of an elliptical figure.

Terms employed in describing Shells.

Valves, of bivalve shells, are divided into right and left, equal and unequal, equilateral and inequilateral, superior and inferior.

——— right valve (dextra), is distinguished from the left, by placing the shell on its base, having the cardinal ligament before, and the anus behind. In this position the right valve of the shell corresponds to the left of the observer, and the left valve (sinistra) to the right of the observer.

——— equal (equales), when the right valve corresponds with the left in form, size, and other external characters.

——— superior (valvula superior). In an irregular shell, such as the oyster, one of the valves is attached to solid bodies; the other in this case is superior. This valve is sometimes called by Linnæus, the lid (operculum): in some species it is flat and small, and in others more convex than the inferior valve.

——— keel shaped (valvulæ carinatæ), when one part of their convexity presents a sharp edge.

——— chambered (concameratæ), when they exhibit in their cavity testaceous plates, detached and raised.

——— spinous (spinosæ), when the whole surface is furnished with spines.

——— banded (fasciatæ), exhibiting large coloured transverse stripes or bands.

——— lamellated (lamellosæ), when the surface is furnished with plates more or less separated.

——— radiated (radiatæ), exhibiting divergent or coloured rays.

——— sinuated (lacunosæ), when one of the valves has a sensible depression at the middle of its margin, and a corresponding elevation of the opposite valve.

——— striated (striatæ) when the surface is marked with striæ.

——— transverse, when the striæ are parallel to the margin of the valves.

——— longitudinal, when they run from the base to the circumference.

Muscular impressions (impressiones), are marks on the interior surface of the valves, where the muscles of the animal are attached.

——— solitary (solitariæ), when the inner surface of each valve has only one.

——— double (duplicatæ), two on the inner surface of each valve.

——— triple or ternate (ternatæ), three in each valve.

Ligament (ligamentum), is a horny substance, of little flexibility, which unites the two valves near their base, and which in almost all bivalve shells is placed at the lower part of their anterior surface. It is divided into

——— gaping (hians), when its upper extremity is divided into two.

——— double (duplex), when under the external ligament there appears a second, in a particular hollow of the hinge, which does not appear externally.

——— internal (internum), when it unites the valves without appearing externally.

——— profound (retractum seu intractum), when it is so deep in the suture as scarcely to be seen when the valves are shut.

——— truncated (truncatum), when shorter than its suture.

Furrows (sulci), are those impressions or interstices between the ribs or rays on the surface of the valves.

——— square (quadrati), when the bottom is flat.

——— lamellated (lamellosi), when the bottom is marked with small transverse scales.

——— punctated (excavato punctati), when the whole surface is marked with small cavities or dots.

3. *Explanation of Terms applied to Univalve Shells.*

19 Univalves.

The *base* (basis), is the most elevated part of the shell, opposite to the spire. It is divided into

——— notched (emarginata), when it is accompanied with a deep notch.

——— tubular (tubulosa seu cordata), when it is formed by a tube.

——— simple or entire (simplex aut integra), without notch or tube.

Summit (vertex) signifies the top of some patellæ, and from its position is central, marginal, or submarginal.

The *shell* (testa) is divided with regard to its position into superior and inferior.

The *anterior part* (pars antica), is that which forms the spire of the shell; and it is also the superior part.

The form of shells is

——— bordered (marginata), when the two sides of the opening are broader and thicker than the rest of the diameter.

——— chambered (polythalamia), when it is internally divided by different partitions parallel to the opening.

——— convoluted (convoluta), when the spires turn round a lengthened cone, nearly vertical to each other.

——— rooted (radicata), when it is attached to a solid body by a ligament proceeding from its base.

——— interrupted (interrupta), when the successive additions to the shell are marked with distinct rings.

——— umbilicated (umbilicata), when the axis round which the sphere turns, being empty, forms a cavity at the base of the shell, whose diameter is at least a sixth part of that of the shell.

——— imperforated (imperforata seu exumbilicata), when its inferior axis has neither hole nor umbilicus.

——— oval or elliptic (ovales), the longitudinal diameter exceeding the transverse, and the two extremities equal and a little contracted.

——— egg-shaped (ovata), the longitudinal diameter exceeding the transverse, and the extremities terminated by the segment of a circle.

——— beaked (rostrata), when the two extremities, sometimes tubular, form a projection in form of a beak.

——— imbricated (imbricata), when the surface is covered with parallel scales, so arranged as to cover each other.

——— turbinated (turbinata), when the belly of the shell is large in proportion to the spires, which seem to proceed from its centre.

Opening

Terms employed in describing Shells.

Opening or *mouth* (apertura), is that part of the cavity of the shell which is visible. It is

——— angular (angulata), when its circumference has several angles.

——— gaping (dehiscens), when one of the extremities is wider than the other.

——— bimarginated (bimarginata), when the right lip forms a double margin.

——— compressed (coarctata), when it is distinctly flattened.

——— semicircular (semiorbiculata), when it forms half a circle.

——— linear (linearis), when it is narrow, and the length considerably exceeds the breadth.

——— longitudinal (longitudinalis), when the length is greater than the breadth, and the greatest dimension is parallel to the axis of the shell.

——— orbicular (orbicularis), forming an entire circle.

——— striated (striata), when the cavity is marked with striæ, parallel to the direction of the convolutions.

——— transverse (transversa), when the breadth is greater than the length.

Pillar (columella), is that part of the shell situated within the opening, near its axis, round which the spires turn. It is brought into view by dividing the shell its whole length. It is

——— flattened (plana), when the surface is flat and smooth.

——— caudated (caudata), when it is lengthened beyond the base of the shell.

——— folded (plicata), marked with transverse and distinct folds.

——— spiral (spiralis), proceeding from the base, and forming a small twisted elongation.

——— truncated (truncata), cut transversely at the base.

Convolutions (anfractus), are the turnings of the spire round the pillar, from the opening to the base of the shell. They are

——— bifid (bifidi), when each is divided into two equal parts by a furrow or spiral line.

——— grooved (canaliculati), when the superior edge is marked with a groove.

——— keel-shaped (carinati), when the outer turn of the shell is marked with an angle more or less acute.

——— crowned (coronati), when the upper surface is bordered at a little distance from the sutures, with a single row of tubercles or spinous scales.

——— dextral (dextri), turning from the left to the right.

——— sinistral (sinistri), turning from the right to the left.

——— lettered (scripti), marked with characters.

——— spinous (spinosi), having short spines on the surface.

——— entire (simplices), without furrows or tubercles.

——— banded (fasciati), when the surface is marked with broad coloured stripes.

——— lamellated (lamellati), the surface marked with longitudinal or transverse excrescences, and laminated like membranes.

——— lineated (lineati), marked with coloured lines.

——— radiated (spinoso-radiati), having the circumference bordered with straight spines, separating and divergent.

——— separated (disjuncti), having an interval between each convolution.

——— furrowed (sulcati), having the surface marked with furrows, which are always broader than striæ.

——— decussated (decussati), when the striæ cross each other at right angles.

Spire (spira), signifies all the convolutions taken together. It is

——— pointed (acuta), when the convolutions joined together form an acute angle.

——— flattened (depressa), forming a flat surface.

——— convex (convexa), when it is rounded, and the point of the base has little elevation.

——— convex (convexo-acuta), rounded at the outer edge, but elevated into an acute angle.

——— convex and elevated (convexo-exserta), rounded at the outer edge, and elevated without forming an acute angle.

——— convex and pointed (convexo-mucronata), obtuse and almost rounded at the outer edge, and terminated at the centre with a pointed elevation.

——— crowned (coronata), when the outer edges of each convolution are accompanied with a row of spines or tubercles.

——— capitate (capitata), the convolutions united, forming a swelling resembling a head.

——— obtuse (obtusa), the convolutions united, forming an obtuse angle.

——— plano-concave (plano-concava), the convolutions forming no elevation, but are slightly grooved.

——— pyramidal (pyramidata), of a conical form.

Sutures (suturæ), signify the place of junction of the different convolutions, forming a spiral line. They are

——— grooved (canaliculatæ), when they are so deep as to form a small canal.

——— notched (crenulatæ), when the points of contact are marked with notches.

——— double (duplicatæ), accompanied with two striæ, which run parallel.

——— effaced (obsoletæ), when the place of junction is not perceptible.

Siphon (sipho), is a small canal situated in the internal part of the shell of the nautili, which penetrates into the divisions of which it is composed. It is

——— central (centralis), when it is situated in the middle of the divisions.

——— lateral (lateralis), situated at one side.

——— oblique (obliquus), cutting the axis of the divisions obliquely.

Veins (varices), are elevations or ribs, running in the direction of the length of the shell, formed by the junction of the different additions which the shell has received. They cut the convolutions of the spire transversely. They are

——— continued (continuatæ), proceeding from the base of the spire to the convolution at the opening, without interruption.

——— spinous (spinosæ), furnished with strong spines.

——— interrupted (decussatæ), not corresponding with the different convolutions.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV. CLASSIFICATION OF SHELLS.

20 Classification.

SHELLS are divided by Linnæus into multivalve, bivalve, and univalve. In the following classification the same arrangement will be adopted; and we shall first exhibit in one view the characters of each genus, in the original language of Linnæus, with a translation opposite for the sake of the English reader; so that the genus of any shell may be easily determined. In describing the species, we shall observe the utmost brevity, giving such characters only as are necessary to afford precise marks of distinction. In arranging the species under each genus, the British species will be distinguished with an asterisk; so that, with the advantage of a general classification, this will answer the purpose of a British conchology.

GENERIC CHARACTERS.

I. MULTIVALVE SHELLS.

21 Generic character of multivalves.

1. CHITON. Animal doris. Testæ plures, secundum longitudinem sibi appositæ dorso incumbentes.

2. LEPAS. Animal triton. Testa basi affixa multivalvis: valvis inæqualibus erectis.

3. PHOLAS. Animal ascidia. Testa bivalvis divaricata, cum minoribus accessoriis difformibus: cardo recurvatus cartilagine connexus.

1. C. Animal inhabiting the shell a doris. Shell consisting of several segments or valves disposed down the back.

2. L. Animal a triton. Shell affixed at the base, and consisting of many unequal erect valves.

3. P. Animal an ascidia. Shell bivalve, divaricate, differently shaped; accessory valves: hinges bent back, united by a cartilage: beneath the hinge, internally, is an incurved tooth.

II. BIVALVE SHELLS.

22 Of bivalves.

4. MYA. Animal ascidia. Testa bivalvis hians, ut plurimum, altera extremitate: cardo dente (plerisque uno) solido, crasso, patulo, vacuo; nec inserto testæ appositæ.

5. SOLEN. Animal ascidia. Testa bivalvis oblonga, utroque latere hians. Cardo dens subulatus reflexus, sæpe duplex, non insertus testæ appositæ; margo lateralis magis obsoletus.

6. TELLINA. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis, anterius hinc ad alterum latus flexa. Cardinis dentes ut plurimum tres: laterales plani alterius testæ.

7. CARDIUM. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis subæquilatera, æquivalvis plerumque convexa, longitudinaliter costata, striata aut sulcata, margine dentata. Cardo dentibus mediis binis alternatis: altero ut plurimum incurvo; lateralibus remotis insertis.

8. MACTRA. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis, inæquilatera, æquivalvis. Cardo dente medio complicato cum adjecta foveola, lateralibus remotis insertis.

9. DONAX. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis, margine sæpe crenulato antico obtusissimo. Cardo dentibus duobus; marginalique solitario (rarius duplice, triplice, aut nullo) subremoto sub ano.

10. VENUS. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis; labiis margine antico incumbentibus. Cardo dentibus tribus, omnibus approximatis lateralibus apice divergentibus.

4. M. Animal an ascidia. Shell bivalve, generally gaping at one end. Hinge with broad, thick, strong teeth (seldom more than one), and not inserted into the opposite valve.

5. S. Animal an ascidia. Shell bivalve, oblong, open at both ends. Hinge with a subulate, reflected tooth, often double, and not inserted in the opposite valve; the lateral margin more effaced.

6. T. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, generally sloping on one side, in the fore part of one valve a convex, of the other a concave fold, Hinge usually with three teeth: the lateral ones in one shell being smooth.

7. C. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, nearly equilateral, æquivalve, generally convex, longitudinally ribbed, striated or grooved, with a toothed margin. Hinge with two teeth near the beak, and a larger remote lateral one on each side, each locking into the opposite.

8. M. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, of unequal sides, and æquivalve. Middle tooth of the hinge complicated, with a small hollow on each side, lateral ones remote and inserted into each other.

9. D. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, generally with a notched margin: the frontal margin very obtuse. Hinge with two teeth, and a single marginal one placed behind (rarely double, triple or none).

10. V. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve; the frontal margin flattened with incumbent lips. Hinge with three teeth, all approximate; the lateral ones divergent at the tip.

11. SPONDYLUS.

Classification of Shells.

11. Spondylus. Animal tethys. Testa inæquivalvis rigida. Cardo dentibus duobus recurvis, cum foveola intermedia.

12. Chama. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis crassior, cardo callo gibbo, oblique inserto fossulæ obliquæ.

13. Arca. Animal tethys? Testa bivalvis æquivalvis. Cardo dentibus numerosis, acutis alternis insertis.

14. Ostrea. Animal tethys. Testa bivalvis, plurimis inæquivalvis subaurita. Cardo edentulus, fossula cava, ovata, sulcisque (in plurimis) lateralibus transversis.

15. Anomia. Animal corpus ligula emarginata ciliata: ciliis valvæ superiori affixis; brachiis duobus linearibus corpore longioribus conniventibus porrectis, valvæ alternis utrinque ciliatis: ciliis affixis valvæ utrique: testa inæquivalvis, valva altera planiuscula, altera basi magis gibba: parum altera basi sæpe perforata. Cardo cicatricula lineari prominente introrsum dente laterali; valvæ vero planioris in ipso margine. Radii duo ossei pro basi animalis.

16. Mytilus. Animal ascidia? Testa bivalvis, rudis, sepius affixa byssо, ut plurimum, crassiori. Cardo in plurimis edentulus, distinctus, paucis exceptis, linea subulata, excavata longitudinali.

17. Pinna. Animal limax. Testa sub-bivalvis fragilis, erecta hians, emittens barbam byssinam. Cardo edentulus, coalitis in unam valvis.

11. S. Animal a tethys. Shell hard, solid, with unequal valves. Hinge with two recurved teeth, separated by a small cavity.

12. C. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, rather coarse. Hinge with a callous protuberance, obliquely inserted in an oblique hollow.

13. A. Animal a tethys? Shell bivalve equivalve. Hinge with numerous sharp teeth, alternately inserted between each other.

14. O. Animal a tethys. Shell bivalve, generally with unequal valves, and slightly eared. Hinge without teeth, but furnished with an ovate cavity, and in most with lateral, transverse furrows.

15. A. Animal an emarginate, ciliated, strap-shaped body, with bristles attached to the upper valve; arms two, linear, longer than the body, projecting and approaching together, alternate on the valve, and ciliated on each side, with bristles affixed to each valve. Shell inequivalve, one of the valves flattish, the other protuberant at the base: one of the valves often perforated near the base. Hinge with a linear prominent cicatrix, and a lateral tooth placed within; but on the very margin of the flat valve there are two bony rays for the base of the animal.

16. M. Animal an ascidia? Shell bivalve, rough, generally affixed by a byssus or beard of silky filaments. Hinge mostly without teeth, and in most cases with a subulate, hollow, longitudinal line.

17. P. Animal a limax. Shell bivalve, brittle, gaping at one end, and having a byssus or beard. Hinge without teeth, the valves being united into one.

III. UNIVALVE SHELLS.

23 Univalves.

18. Argonauta. Animal sepia aut clio. Testa univalvis, spiralis, involuta, membranacea, unilocularis.

19. Nautilus. Animal? Testa univalvis, isthmis perforatis concamerata, polythalamia.

20. Conus. Animal limax. Testa univalvis convoluta, turbinata; apertura effusa, longitudinalis, linearis, edentula, basi integra; columella levis.

21. Cypræa. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, involuta, sub-ovata, obtusa, lævis. Apertura utrinque effusa, linearis utrinque dentata longitudinalis.

22. Bulla. Animal limax. Testa univalvis convoluta, inermis. Apertura sub-coarctata, oblonga, longitudinalis, basi integerrima. Columella obliqua, lævis.

23. Voluta. Animal limax. Testa unilocularis spiralis. Apertura ecaudata, sub-effusa. Columella plicata: labio umbilicove (ut plurimum) nullo.

24. Buccinum. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, gibbosa. Apertura ovata definens in canaliculum (retusam lacunam) dextrum, cauda retusa. Labium interius explanatum.

25. Strombus. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, latere ampliata. Apertura labro sæpius dilatato, definens in canalem sinistrum.

26. Murex. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, exasperata futuris membranaceis. Apertura desi-

18. A. Animal a sepia or clio. Shell univalve, spiral, involute, membranaceous, one cell.

19. N. Animal? Shell univalve, divided into several chambers communicating with each other.

20. C. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, convolute, turbinate; aperture effuse, longitudinal, linear, without teeth; entire at the base. Pillar smooth.

21. C. Animal a slug. Shell univalve, involute, subovate, smooth, obtuse. Aperture effuse at each end, linear, extending the whole length of the shell, and toothed on each side.

22. B. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, convolute, without teeth. Aperture a little narrowed, oblong, longitudinal, quite entire at the base. Pillar oblique and smooth.

23. V. Animal a limax. Shell one cell, spiral. Aperture without a beak, and somewhat effuse. Pillar twisted or plaited: generally without lips or perforation.

24. B. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, gibbous. Aperture ovate, ending in a short canal, leaning to the right, with a retuse beak. Internal or pillar lip expanded.

25. S. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, enlarged at the side. Aperture dilated with the lip expanding, and ending in a groove towards the left.

26. M. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, rough, with membranaceous sutures. Aperture oval, terminating

nens in canalem integrum rectum sive subascendentem.

27. TROCHUS. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, subconica. Apertura subtetragono-angulata seu rotundata, superius transversè coarctata; columella obliquata.

28. TURBO. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, solida. Apertura coarctata, orbiculata, integra.

29. HELIX. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, subdiaphana, fragilis. Apertura coarctata, intus lunata seu subrotunda; segmento circuli dempto.

30. NERITA. Animal limax. Testa univalvis, spiralis, gibba, subtus planiuscula. Apertura semiorbicularis, vel semilunaris; labio columellæ transverso, truncato, planiusculo.

31. HALIOTIS. Animal limax. Testa auriformis, patens: spira occultata laterali disco, longitudinaliter poris pertusa.

32. PATELLA. Animal limax. Testa univalvis subconica, absque spira.

33. DENTALIUM. Animal terebella. Testa tubulosa, recta, monothalamia, utraque extremitate pervia.

34. SERPULA. Animal terebella. Testa univalvis, tubulosa, adherens (sæpe isthmis integris passim intercepta).

35. TEREDO. Animal terebella. Valvis duabus calcariis hemisphericis, anterius excisis, et duabus lanceolatis. Testa teres, flexuosa, lignum penetrans.

36. SABELLA. Animal nereis. Ore ringente, tentaculis duobus crassioribus pone caput. Testa tubulosa, contexta ex arenulis confertim membranæ vaginali insertis.

terminating in an entire straight, or slightly ascending canal.

27. T. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, somewhat conic. Aperture somewhat angular, or rounded: the upper side transverse and contracted; pillar placed obliquely.

28. T. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, solid. Aperture contracted, orbicular, entire.

29. H. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, subdiaphanous, brittle. Aperture contracted, semilunar or roundish.

30. N. Animal a limax. Shell univalve, spiral, gibbous, flattish at bottom. Aperture semiorbicular or semilunar, pillar lip transversely truncated and flattened.

31. H. Animal a limax. Shell ear-shaped dilated, with a longitudinal row of orifices along the surface; the spire lateral and nearly concealed.

32. P. Animal a limax. Shell subconic, without spire.

33. D. Animal a terebella, Shell tubular, straight, or slightly curved, with one cavity open at both ends.

34. S. Animal a terebella. Shell tubular, generally adhering to other substances (often separated internally by entire divisions.)

35. T. Animal a terebella. With two calcareous, hemispherical valves, anteriorly cut off, and two lanceolate ones. Shell round, flexuous, penetrating wood.

36. S. Animal a nereis. With a ringent mouth, and two thicker tentacula behind the head. Shell tubular, consisting of particles of sand united to a membrane by a glutinous cement.

I. MULTIVALVES.

24 Chiton.

Gen. 1. CHITON.

Gen. Char.—The animal inhabiting this shell is a doris. The shell consists of several segments or valves, arranged along the back.

SPECIES.

*All the Species marked * are British.*

squamosus 1. Eight valves, semistriated; margin covered with minute scales; 2 inches long. America. Wood, t. 1. f. 1.

bistriatus. 2. With eight doubly striated valves, middle valves with curvilinear striæ; margin scaly. Chemnitz. viii. t. 94. f. 788 to 91.

fulvus. 3. With eight valves, and whitish dotted striæ; margin coriaceous; 1 inch long. S. America. Wood, t. 1. f. 2.

piceus. 4. With eight smooth valves; margin coriaceous and spiny; colour pitchy; 2 inches long. Red sea. Wood, t. 1. f. 3.

granulatus. 5. Flat above, with numerous raised dots in rows; border broad, coriaceous, spinous; 2 inches long. W. Indies. Chem. viii. t. 96. f. 806.

aculeatus. 6. Eight-valved, striated; valves prickly; margin with bristles; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Asia. Chemnitz, v. t. 173. f. 1692.

fasciatus. 7. With eight valves; lower triangular, half of the 6 middlemost granulated; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. W. Indies. Chemnitz, viii. t. 94. f. 792 and 3.

marmoratus. 8. Eight-valved, smooth, varied with white and black; margin tumid and scaly; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. W. Indies. Chemnitz, viii. t. 95. f. 803 to 5.

maculatus 9. Eight-valved, smooth, within sea-green; margin covered with gray white scales; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. India. Chemnitz, viii. t. 95. f. 802.

tunicatus. 10. With eight smooth, white valves; above the membrane roundish; margin coriaceous and reflected; 4 inches long, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch broad. North seas. Wood, t. 2. f. 1.

gigas. 11. Eight-valved, thick, convex, white; first valve notched, last toothed, middle ones emarginate; 4 inches long; margin coriaceous. Cape of Good Hope. Chemnitz, viii. t. 96. t. 819.

amiculatus. 12. Eight-valved, kidney-shaped, fragile; valves imbricated; covered with a broad coriaceous membrane; 6 inches long. Kurile islands. Pallas, t. 7. f. 26.

castaneus. 13. With eight very smooth chesnut-coloured valves, inside rosy; 2 inches long. Wood, t. 2. f. 2.

ruber. 14. With eight valves, with slight curved striæ; margin red; 1 inch long. North seas. Chemnitz, viii. t. 96. f. 813.

punctatus. 15. With eight valves, smooth body; with excavated dots on the margin. Asia, Europe, and America.

indicus. 16. Eight-valved, whitish ash colour, border scaly; middle valves finely punctured; 1 inch long. W. Indies. Chemnitz, viii. t. 96. f. 811.

virides. 17. With eight valves; keel triangular, very rough and slightly toothed; margin scaly; 2 inches long. Chemnitz, x. t. 173. f. 1689.

lineatus. 18. With eight smooth streaked valves; margin broad and coriaceous; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Wood, t. 2. f. 4 and 5.

fascicularis. * 19. With eight valves, having one lateral tuft of hair at the junction of each valve, and two in the front; from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 inch long. Barbary. Wood, t. 2. f. 6.

sulcatus. 20. With eight thick, convex, grooved valves; margin broad and scaly; 4 inches long. South seas. Wood, t. 3. f. 1.

bicolor. 21. Eight-valved, thick ridged; the outside sea-green; margin blackish, inside white; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. India. Chemnitz, viii. t. 94. f. 794 and 5.

serasinus. 22. With eight smooth cherry-coloured valves, and a white crenated border; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Surinam. Chemnitz, viii. t. 95. f. 797 and 8.

magellanicus. 23. Eight-valved, thick, striated, black brown; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. Straits of Magellan. Chemnitz, viii. t. 95. f. 797 and 8.

fuscus. 24. Eight-valved, brown, smooth; inside teeth of the margin snowy; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. India. Chemnitz, viii. t. 95. f. 799 and 800.

minimus. 25. Eight-valved, smooth, black, very small, mealy, with a transverse band on each; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Norway. Chemnitz, viii. t. 96. f. 814.

timex. 26. Eight-valved, carinated, diaphanous, banded; terminal valves finely punctured; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Norway. Chemnitz, viii. t. 96. f. 815.

asellus. 27. Eight-valved, deep black, convex above, with a yellowish spot on each valve; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. North seas. Chemnitz, vii. t. 96. f. 816.

islandicus. 28. With eight convex black valves, covered with very minute raised dots; margin cinereous, minute. Iceland.

marginatus. * 29. Eight-valved, carinated along the back; the valves projecting over each other in a point; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, Salcomb bay, Sandwich. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 1. f. 3.

cinereus. * 30. Eight valves, smooth, carinated, oval, compressed; margin ciliated at the edge; $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long. Goree and Britain.

albus. * 31. Eight valves, smooth, with transverse lines at the margin of the valves; body white, oval; first valve notched on the hinder edge; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Northern seas; on oyster shells from Poole. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 1. f. 4.

echatinus. * 32 With eight valves, oblong, elevated, with indistinct striæ; anterior and posterior valves, with curved striæ; margin very broad, minutely shagreened; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Newhaven. Brown, t. . f. .

lævis. * 33. Eight-valved, smooth, with an elevated band down the back; the length $\frac{1}{2}$ inch. Loch Broom, Ross-shire, Salcomb bay. Pennant, iv. t. 36. f. 3.

spinosus. 34. With eight black valves; anterior one with raised dots; whole shell substriated, and slightly dotted at the sides of the valves; margin broad, with long black tapering spines; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. N. Holland. *Very rare.* Brown's Collection, N° 10.

35. Seven-valved, body tuberculated; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. America. Schroeter, t. 9. f. 19. *tuberculatus.*

36. With seven striated greenish valves; striped with black and white on the back; margin scaly; 2 inches long. St Thomas'. Chem. x. t. 173. f. 1690. *tesselatus.*

* 37. Seven-valved, thick set with short hairs; $\frac{5}{8}$ inch long. Sandwich, Aberdeen. Pennant iv. t. 36. f. 1. *crinitus.*

38. Six-valved, glabrous, oval, a little convex, sea-green; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. America. Schroeter, t. 1. f. 1. *thalassinus.*

39. With six plates or valves striated; colour blackish gray, with white spots and dots. Schroeter, t. 9. f. 18. *hispidus.*

* 40. With five valves oval, carinated, and strongly shagreened; margin broad, and finely ciliated at the edge, and shagreened; $\frac{3}{8}$ long. Tenby. Brown, p. 1. *quinquivalvis.*

25

Gen. 2. LEPAS, *Acorn-shell.* Lepas.

Shell with many unequal valves, fixed by the base.

A. Shells sessile.

* *With the base solid.*

Gen. Char.—Animal a triton; shell affixed at the base, and composed of many unequal erect valves.

SPECIES.

* 1. Conic, truncated, grooved, with the interstices striated transversely; lid with four valves, sharp-pointed, and bent. European seas, Britain. Brown, t. vi. f. 1. *balanus.*

* 2. Conic, truncated, smooth; lid 4-valved, two upper slightly striated transversely, obtuse. American and Indian seas; abundant on the coasts of Britain. Brown, t. vi. f. 4. *balanoides.*

* 3. Conical, truncated, rugged; lid with four flat valves, punctured. Britain. Brown, t. vii. f. 13. *punctatus.*

4. Conical, contracted at the aperture; valves and interstices smooth; lid 4-valved and blunt. E. Indies. Chem. viii. t. 79. f. 715. *lævis.*

* 5. Conical, truncated; longitudinally striated; valves rounded at the summits; interstices straight and smooth. Britain and Holland. Chem. t. 97. f. 823. *striatus.*

* 6. Subcylindrical, wrinkled longitudinally; operculum 4-valved, acute. Dorset. Brown, t. vii. f. 1. *rugosa.*

7. Club-shaped, elongated, and dilated at the aperture; lid with four obliquely striated valves. Newfoundland. Wood, t. 7. f. 2. *elongata.*

* 8. Conic, smooth, valves pointed, aperture very small; shell small, reddish; valves finely tesselated. Weymouth. Brown, t. vi. f. 7. *conoides.*

9. Semiovate, valves longitudinally striated; aperture small, and much contracted. Barbary and E. Indies. Wood, t. 6. f. 5. *angustata.*

* 10. Somewhat conic, with equidistant ribs, divergent from the aperture; lid sharp-pointed. On rocks on the Pembrokeshire coast. Brown, t. vi. f. 3. *costata.*

* 11. Depressed, with four serrated interlaced valves, striated obliquely. Britain. Brown, t. vii. f. 30. *stromia.*

12. Convex, with six equal 3-lobed valves; aperture oval; lid convex, 4-valved. Africa. Chem. viii. t. 98. f. 833. *hemisphærica.*

13. Depressed, with five radiated angular ribs; aperture small, and somewhat pentagonal. Coromandel. Chem. t. 98. f. 839. *patellaris.*

14.

violacea. 14. Conical, thick, of a violet colour; valves slightly grooved longitudinally, and the interstices smooth. E. Indies. Chem. viii. t. 99. f. 842.

porcata. 15. Conical, of a violet colour; valves strongly ribbed longitudinally; interstices faintly striated transversely. Wood, t. 8. f. 5.

palmipes. 16. Erect, conic; valves palmated at the base; shell white.

radiata. 17. With six smooth valves, marked with longitudinal violet rays, and the interstices very finely striated transversely. Wood, t. 7. f. 7.

minor. 18. Conical, with unequal transversely striated dotted valves, and the interstices smooth; aperture beaked at one side. Wood, t. 7. f. 6.

spinosa. 19. Conical, with rows of incurved spines on the valves, and the interstices striated transversely. E. Indies. Wood, t. 7. f. 4. and 5.

crispata. 20. With rugged irregularly muricated valves; interstices transversely striated. E. Indies. Wood, t. 8. f. 1. to 4.

cranchii. * 21. Conic, longitudinally striated; aperture very small; lid with four valves striated transversely. Tenby. Brown, t. vii. f. 9. to 12.

tintinnabulum. 22. Conical, purplish, with the valves strongly and irregularly ribbed; interstices delicately striated transversely. W. Indies. Lister, t. 443. f. 385.

tulipa. 23. Subconical; whitish, with the valves slightly wrinkled; interstices striated longitudinally. Iceland. Wood, t. 6. f. 3.

crassus. 24. Conical, strong; valves with deep longitudinal striæ, and the interstices very regularly striated transversely. S. America. Brown's Collection, N° 20.

semistriatus. 25. Conical, strong, irregularly wrinkled; interstices with fine regular transverse striæ. E. Indies. Brown's Collection, N° 19.

candidus. * 26. Subconic, slightly striated longitudinally; interstices substriated; lid 4-valved, upper two strongly striated transversely and longitudinally, under two very slightly, with a longitudinal groove. Hartlepool. Brown, t. vi. f. 10.

A. ** *With radiated cells at the base.*

diadema. 27. Subhemispherical, transversely striated throughout, and strongly ribbed longitudinally. Northern ocean. Wood, t. 4.

balænaris. 28. Depressed, longitudinally ribbed, upper half smooth, lower parts and interstices striated transversely. Northern ocean, adhering to the Balæna Boops. Wood, t. 5. f. 1. to 3.

testudinaria. 29. Oval, depressed, with four nearly smooth valves. Attached to the backs of turtles. Wood, t. 5. f. 4.

A. *** Porous at the base.

porosa. 30. Subconical, with four consolidated rugged valves, and the base porous. Tranquebar. Wood, t. 9. f. 4.

purpurascens. 31. Angular, with four subconsolidated rugged valves, and the base porous. Amboyna. Wood, t. 9. f. 1. to 3.

A. **** *With a cup-like appendage at the base.*

spongiosus * 32. Shell formed of two cones connected by a ligament at their base, of which the upper is 6-valved and spinous. Britain. Brown, t. vii. f. 24. to 26.

gaeata. 33. Shell formed of two cones, connected by a ligament at the base, of which the upper is 6-valved and smooth. Mediterranean. Phil. Trans. i. t. 14. f. 19.

A. ***** *Tubular and truncated at both ends.*

trachealis. 34. Tubular, truncated at both ends, longitudinally striated, and transversely ribbed. Inhabits the S. seas, imbedded in the skin of whales. Wood, t. 4. f. 1. to 3.

B. Shells seated on a fleshy peduncle.

B. * *With more than five valves, and a wreath of smaller ones round the base.*

mitella. 35. Compressed round the base, irregularly striated transversely, and the peduncle scaly. Amboyna. Wood, t. 10. f. 1.

pollicipes. * 36. Compressed, smooth, and the peduncle covered with minute scales. Britain. Brown, t. v. f. 11.

scalpellum * 37. Compressed, with 13 valves concentrically striated; peduncle hairy, with testaceous scales. Britain. Brown, t. v. f. 8, 9, and 10.

B. ** *With five contiguous valves.*

anserifera * 38. Compressed, with five striated valves; peduncle wrinkled transversely. Britain. Brown, t. v. f. 1.

anatifera. * 39. Compressed, somewhat triangular, with five smooth valves seated on a red and long peduncle. Britain. Adheres to the bottom of ships, when it is well known by the name of *bernacle.* Brown, t. iv. f. 1. and 2.

It was from this species of shell that the bernacle goose was supposed to have had its origin. Gerard's account of this transformation, as it affords a remarkable instance of the credulity of the times, is too curious to be omitted. "There are found in the north parts of Scotland, and the islands adjacent called Orchades, certain trees whereon do grow certain shells tending to russet, wherein are contained little living creatures: which shells in time of maturitie do open, and out of them grow those little living things, which falling into the water do become fowles, which we call barnakles; in the north of England brant geese; and in Lancashire, tree geese; but the other that do fall upon the land perish, and come to nothing. Thus much from the writings of others, and also from the mouths of people of those parts, which may very well accord with truth.

"But what our eyes have seene, and hands have touched, we shall declare. There is a small island in Lancashire, called the Pile of Foulders, wherein are found the broken pieces of old and bruised ships, some whereof have been cast thither by shipwracke, and also the trunks and bodies with the branches of old and rotten trees, cast up there likewise: whereon is found a certain spume or froth that in time breedeth into certain shells, in shape like those of the muskle, but sharper pointed, and of a whitish colour: wherein is contained a thing in forme like a lace of silke, finely woven, as it were, together, of a whitish colour, one end whereof is fastened unto the inside of the shell, even as the fish of oisters and muskles are; the other end is made fast unto the belly of a rude mass or lumpe, which in time commeth to the shape and forme of a bird: when it is perfectly formed the shell gapeth open, and the first thing that appeareth is the foresaid lace or string; next come the legs of the bird hanging out, and as it groweth greater it openeth the shell by degrees, till at length it is all come forth and hangeth only by the bill: in short space after it cometh to full maturitie, and falleth into the sea, where it gathereth feathers, and groweth to a fowl bigger than millard, and lesser than a goose, having blacke legs, bill or beake, and feathers blacke and white, spotted in such a manner as is our magpie, called in some places a pie-annet, which the people of Lancashire call by no other name than a tree goose: which place aforesaid, and those parts adjoyning do so much abound therewith, that one of the best is bought for threepence. For the truth hereof, if any doubt, let them repaire unto me, and I shall satisfie them by the testimonie of good witnesses." *Herball*, p. 1588.

sulcata. * 40. Compressed, subtriangular, with five strongly ribbed valves; peduncle short and dusky. Britain. Brown, t. v. f. 6.

pumicicula. * 41. Compressed, five striated, and strongly spinous valves; peduncle short and brown. Devonshire. Brown, t. v. f. 3.

fascicularis. * 42. Compressed, with five smooth, membranaceous, semitransparent valves; dorsal valve dilated at the base, and forming a prominent acute angle. Britain. Brown, t. v. f. 2.

dentata. * 43. Compressed, with five smooth valves, and the dorsal ridge serrated. Britain. Brown, t. iv. f. 5.

villosa. 44. Compressed, with five smooth valves, seated on a short downy peduncle. Mediterranean. Enc. Meth. t. 166. f. 2.

dorsalis. 45. Compressed, with five valves, scaly at the base; dorsal valve transversely wrinkled; peduncle scaly. Mosquito shore. Ellis Zoop. t. 15. f. 5.

B. *** *With minute distant valves placed on a fleshy extension of the peduncle.*

vittata. * 46. Membranaceous, ventricose, truncated, and angular at the summit; green, with black stripes, and five minute narrow distant valves. Mediterranean. Brown, t. v. f. 16, 17, and 18.

aurita. 47. Membranaceous, ventricose, seated on a tube, and ending in two ear-like appendages; aperture with 8 toothed valves. Northern ocean. Brown, t. v. f. 14. and 15.

blainvillii. * 48. Ventricose, membranaceous, seated on a tube, and ending in two ear-like appendages; colour whitish, spotted, and streaked with brownish purple. Devonshire. Brown, t. v. f. 13.

26 Pholas.

Gen. 3. Pholas.

Gen. Char.—The animal is an ascidia, Shell bivalve, divaricate, with several lesser differently accessory ones at the hinge. Hinges recurved, united by a cartilage. Beneath the hinge internally is an incurved tooth.

Species.

dactylus. 1. Oblong, with reticulated, subspinous striæ, on the upper part, and the anterior end strongly muricated and beaked. Europe. Salcomb bay, Devonshire. Five inches long; is found in hard clay, marl, and wood; has a phosphorescent property. Brown, t. viii. f. 1, 2, and 3.

orientalis. 2. Oblong, with a straight margin: one half quite smooth, the other reticulated with striæ. Siam and Tranquebar. Lister, t. 431. f. 274.

costata. 3. Ovate; striated with strong elevated ribs; 6 inches long. American seas. Lister, t. 434. f. 277.

candida. 4. Oblong, muricated on all sides, with decussated prickly striæ. Europe, America, Salcomb bay. Brown, t. ix. f. 6, 7, and 8.

parva. * 5. Ovate, with reticulated striæ; and the teeth of the hinge issuing from a tubercle. Britain. Brown, t. ix. f. 11. and 12.

striata. * 6. Ovate, multifariously striated; wedge-shaped before, and ventricose behind. Europe, India. Brown, t. viii. f. 4. to 9.—This species seems to be nearly equally destructive with the teredo navalis. The pholas perforates the wood across the grain or fibre; the teredo insinuates itself along the fibres, or in the same direction.

pulsilla. 7. Oblong, rounded; striæ arched. America, India. This animal penetrates the bottom of ships. Wood, t. xvi. f. 1, 2, and 3.

cordata. 8. Short, turgid, furrowed, with fine elevated transverse striæ; aperture heart-shaped. Ency. Method. t. 169. f. 8. to 10.

falcata. 9. Somewhat oval, variously striated; hiatus very large; hinge with a hooked tooth. Wood, t. 16. f. 5. to 7.

hians. 10. Bivalve, white, with transverse arched striæ: convex in the middle, and wedge-shaped below; aperture large, oval; perforates calcareous rocks. American islands. Chem. t. 172. f. 1678 to 81.

crispata. 11. Oval; part next the hinge more obtuse, waved, striated; tooth of the hinge curved, large, and strong. Two inches long. Europe. West of England. Brown, t. ix. f. 1. to 5.

II. BIVALVE SHELLS.

27 Mya.

Gen. 4. Mya. *Gapers.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is an ascidia. The shell is bivalve, generally gaping at one end. The hinge has broad, thick, strong teeth, seldom more than one, and not inserted into the opposite valve.

Species.

* *Hinge with one or two rounded teeth, not inserted in the opposite valve.*

glycimiris. * 1. Gaping at both ends, thick, transversely wrinkled, lamellous, oblong, oval; 5 inches long, 10 broad. Mediterranean sea. Donovan, t. 142.

truncata. * 2. Ovate, truncated, gaping greatly behind; tooth projecting, obtuse; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Europe. Brown, t. x. f. 2.

arenaria. * 3. Ovate, rounded behind; hinge with a tooth projecting forwards, and a smaller one by its side; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. European seas, Portsmouth. Brown, t. 10. f. 1.

declivis. 4. Ovate, obliquely angulated, and subtruncated at the anterior end; hinge with a thick tooth; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Hebrides. A fish much esteemed as food by the inhabitants. Brown, t. xi. f. 5.

convexa. * 5. Oval, convex, brittle; anterior end obliquely angulated; tooth in the hinge semioval. Cramond Island; 2 inches long. Brown, t. xi. f. 3.

distorta. * 6. Sub-oval, with tumid deformed valves; hinge with a thick tooth. Plymouth. $\frac{3}{4}$ inches long. Brown, t. xi. f. 7.

ferrugi-nosa. * 7. Subovate, obsoletely wrinkled; hinge with two projecting teeth, separated by a large triangular notch. Portobello. Brown, t. xi. f. 8. and 9.

prætenuis * 8. Oval, thin, brittle, flat; striæ fine, concentric; hinge with a spoon-shaped tooth; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Brown, t. xiv. f. 1.

anatina. 9. Suborbicular, covered with decussated striæ; hinge with a spoon-shaped tooth. Mouth of the Niger. 6 inches long. Chem. vi. t. 2. f. 13. to 16.

globosa. 10. Suborbicular, with transverse striæ, decussated on one side; hinge with a spoon-shaped tooth. Wood, t. 24. f. 4. to 6.

prismatica * 11. Oblong, attenuated at one end; obsoletely striated

ated concentrically; hinge somewhat spoon-shaped; $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch long. Portobello. Brown, t. xiv. f. 5.

nitens. 12. Oval, striated concentrically; hinge with a single tooth in one valve, which shuts into a deep cleft between slight elevations in the other. $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. West Indies. Wern. Tr. I. t. 8. f. 4.

nicobarica 13. Ovate, oblong; valves equal, with decussated striæ; hinge with a broad perpendicular spoon-shaped tooth. $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Nicobar Islands. Chemnitz, vi. t. 3. f. 17. and 18.

rostrata. 14. With a long cylindrical beak at one end, and gibbous at the other; hinge with a small excavated tooth. $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Bergen. Chem. xi. p. 189. f. C and D.

bidentata. * 15. Suboval, compressed; hinge with two broad, erect, laminated teeth in one valve; none in the other. Salcomb bay. Brown, t. xiv. f. 10. and 14.

decussata. 16. Ovate, with irregular concentric ridges, and longitudinal striæ, forming tubercles at the anterior end; margin undulated. Mont. t. 28. f. 1.

purpurea. * 17. Ovate, transversely wrinkled; hinge with an erect bifid tooth in each valve; 1 line long. Britain.

substriata * 18. Minute, subovate, with distant obsolete longitudinal striæ. Devonshire.

striata. * 19. Oblong, back margin nearly straight; thin, transparent; anterior end truncate; posterior rounded; hinge with a single broad erect tooth in one valve. Linn. Tr. xi. t. 13. f. 1. A.

** *Hinge callous without teeth.*

edentula. 20. Oval, striated with equal valves, forming a large hiatus. Caspian sea. 1 inch long.

membranacea. 21. Oval, membranaceous and white; one side is extended so as to form a beak; margin reflected; hinge toothless; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long.

norwegica * 22. Oval, transparent, longitudinally and thickly striated; one end rounded, the other truncated. Tenby.

siliqua. 23. Thick, strong, gaping at both ends, and covered with a black epidermis; 1 inch long, 3 broad. North America. Wood, t. 22. f. 5.

*** *Hinge with teeth inserted into the opposite valve.*

batava. 24. Suboval; rounded at both ends; 1 inch long, and $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Danube. Lister, t. 146. f. 1.

pictorum. * 25. Ovate; a single, longitudinal, notched tooth, in one hinge; a long lateral tooth in one valve, and two in the other; near 2 inches long, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Europe, Barbary, River Kennet, Berkshire.—This shell is employed by painters for holding water colours. Brown, t. xxvi. f. 2.

ovata. * 26. Ovate, thick, and narrower on the anterior side; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long, and $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Britain. Brown, t. xxvi. f. 4.

radiata. 27. Equivalve, pellucid, finely striated transversely; broad at one end and narrow at the other; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and 2 broad. Rivers of Malabar. Ency. Method. vi. t. 2. f. 7.

ponderosa. 28. Ovate, ponderous, narrow before, and truncated towards the cartilage-slope; beaks decorticated. China rivers. Wood, t. 20. f. 21.

complanata. 29. Ovate, compressed, front margin straight, and obliquely truncated towards the cartilage slope; hinge with the primary teeth three-sided. Mississippi river; 2 inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Lister, t. 150. f. 5.

nodulosa. 30. Suboval, and studded with tubercles; hinge with a thick crenated tooth. Wood, t. 22. f. 1. to 4.

margaritifera. 31. Ovate, a little contracted in the middle of the thinner margin; primary tooth of the hinge conic; length $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, breadth 5 inches; inhabits most parts of the arctic circle, and is most frequently found in mountainous rivers, and about cataracts.—This shell yields mother-of-pearl and pearl. The river Conway, in Wales, was formerly famous for producing pearls of great size and value. They have also been found in the river Irt, in Cumberland. Sir John Hawkins obtained a patent for fishing them in that river. Brown, t. xxvi. f. 1.

corrugata. 32. Rhombic, green, protuberant parts wrinkled. Rivers of Coromandel. Wood, t. 24. f. 1. to 3.

rugosa. 33. Oval, wrinkled; primary teeth crenulated; lateral teeth long, and in one valve double; outwardly greenish, within pearly; 1 inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Rivers of Coromandel. Ency. Meth. t. 249. f. 3.

variabilis. 34. Sub-rhomboidal, gibbous and longitudinally wrinkled at the beaks; hinge with two teeth diverging at the apex; and inserted into corresponding linear cavities; 1 inch long. South America. Linn. Tr. x. t. 24. f. 4. to 7.

nodosa. 35. Oval, thin, with raised tubercles about the beaks; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Chem. x. t. 170. f. 1650.

syrmatophora. 36. Ovate, depressed; margin of the hinge with a subulate projection near the primary tooth; that of the other valve dilated; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and 2 broad. Rivers of Guinea. Gronovius, t. 18. f. 1. and 2.

suborbicularis. * 37. Subpellucid, faintly striated transversely; sides nearly equal, rounded; hinge central; $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch; found in hard limestone at Plymouth. Montagu, t. 26. f. 6.

inæquivalvis. 38. Subtriangular, opaque, white; under valve deep; upper valve not half the size of the other. Cornwall, Devonshire. Montagu, t. 26. f. 7.

labiata. 39. Suboval, with the valves shutting very close; and the margin of one valve projecting like a lip; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 1 broad. Linn. Tr. x. t. 24. f. 1. to 3.

**** *Hinge toothless, with a conical rounded hollow for the reception of the cartilage.*

vulsella. 40. Tongue-shaped; hinge terminal, toothless, with a conical rounded hollow for the reception of the cartilage; semiorbicular; 4 inches long, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indies. Lister, t. 1055. f. 10.

28 Solen.

Gen. 5. Solen, *Razor-sheath.*

Gen. Char.—The animal inhabiting this shell is an ascidia: shell bivalve, oblong, open at both ends; hinge with a subulate reflected tooth, often double, and not inserted in the opposite valve.

Species.

* *Shells linear.*

vagina. * 1. Linear, straight, roundish; one end margined; hinge with a single opposite tooth in each valve. European and Indian seas, Caermarthenshire, Weymouth. Brown, t. xiii. f. 2.

truncatus. 2. Linear, straight, truncated at one end; hinge with a single opposite tooth in each valve. Amboyna. Wood, t. 27. f. 2.

siliqua. * 3. Linear, straight, one hinge 2-toothed. European and

and Indian seas. Length 1 inch, breadth 8 inches. Common on the shores of Britain, where it is employed as food. Brown, t. xiii. f. 3.

linearis. 4. Linear, straight, cylindrical, and very thin; hinge with a single tooth in each valve; thickness of a quill; breadth 3 inches. Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 27. f. 3.

ensis. * 5. Linear, in form of a scymeter; one hinge 2-toothed; $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long, 5 inches broad. European seas; not uncommon on the British shores. Brown, t. xiii. f. 3.

pellucidus. * 6. Subarched, suboval, pellucid; one hinge 2-toothed; length $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, breadth above 1 inch. Anglesea, Cornwall. Brown, t. xiii. f. 4.

legumen. * 7. Linear, oval, straight; hinge in the middle 2-toothed, one of them bifid; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad. European and Atlantic seas, Anglesea, Hampshire. Brown, t. xiii. f. 8. and 9.

cultellus. 8. Kidney-shaped, a single tooth in one valve, two in the other. Europe and India. Wood, t. 29. f. 2.

** *Shells ovate or oblong.*

gigas. 9. Linear, oval, subdiaphanous, rounded at both ends; a longitudinal rib within extends from the hinge to the margin; 2 inches long and 5 broad. Amboyna. Wood, t. 31. f. 3.

magnus. 10. Linear, oval, subdiaphanous, straight; hinge lateral, with two teeth not shutting into each other, and furnished with a rib; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, 4 broad. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 5. f. 35.

minimus. 11. Linear, oval, straight; hinge lateral, with two teeth, one bifid, with a longitudinal rib; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 5. f. 31.

guineensis. 12. Oblong, oval, ventricose, subpellucid; inside with a longitudinal rib; 1 inch long, 3 broad. Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 198. f. 1937.

inflexus. 13. Ovate-oblong, margin somewhat inflected; hinge with two teeth in one valve, and a prominent longitudinal rib; 1 inch long, 3 broad. Wood, t. 32. f. 1. and 2.

diphos. 14. Oval, straight, smooth, with prominent membranes; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, 5 broad. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 32. f. 3.

radiatus. 15. Oval, straight, smooth, with two teeth in one valve; and a transverse depressed rib on one side. India. Wood, t. 31. f. 1. and 2.

strigilatus 16. Oval, obliquely and concentrically striated, except at one end; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 3 broad. Atlantic and Indian seas. Wood, t. 30. f. 1.

triangularis. 17. Flat, fore-part truncated, yellow; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and 2 broad. Chem. vi. t. 10. f. 87.

coarctatus 18. Transversely wrinkled, contracted in the middle, rounded at both ends; $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long, $2\frac{1}{8}$ broad. Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 29. f. 3.

fragilis. 19. Linear-oval, nearly smooth, and marked with a brown longitudinal stripe in the middle; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 1 broad. Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 29. f. 4. and 5.

anatinus. 20. Membranaceous, gibbous, with a short longitudinal suture at the apex; hinge with a spoon-shaped tooth, and crooked rib; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long and 2 broad. Amboyna. Wood, t. 30. f. 2. to 4.

roseus. 21. Equivalve, rosy, tooth of the hinge subbifid; 1 inch long, 2 broad. Red sea. Chem. vi. t. 7. f. 55.

striatus. 22. Equivalve, diaphanous, transversely striated; hinge with a single tooth; $\frac{5}{8}$ long. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 7. f. 57. and 58.

23. Oval, pellucid, smooth, marked with triangular characters, umbones prominent; hinge with a single tooth; 10 inches long. Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 198. f. 1935. and 1936. *castrensis.*

24. Oval, with two white rays on the anterior side; hinge with two bifid teeth in each valve; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Wood, t. 33. f. 1. *biradiatus*

25. Suboval, quite smooth; hinge callous, two-toothed, flesh-coloured or rosy; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long and 2 broad. Jamaica. Wood, t. 33. f. 4. and 5. *sanguinolentus.*

26. Concentrically striated; hinges 2-toothed, with a hollow in the middle; 4 inches broad and 2 long. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 7. f. 61. *occidens.*

27. Oblong-oval, truncated at the anterior end; hinge with two teeth in one valve and one in the other; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long and 2 broad. Wood, t. 34. f. 2. to 4. *variegatus*

28. Oblong-oval, compressed, transversely striated, and longitudinally rayed; hinge with two teeth in each valve; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. India. Wood, t. 34. f. 1. *amethystus.*

29. Roundish-ovate, inflated, longitudinally grooved, gaping and muricated at the anterior margin; 1 inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Jamaica. Wood, t. 56. f. 3. *bullatus.*

* 30. Oval; angles of the valves serrated; size of a cucumber seed. Coral rocks in Norway and Greenland; in hard limestone at Plymouth. Brown. t. xiii. f. 1. *minutus.*

31. Ovate, oblong, with tumid bosses. Java. *virens.*

32. Suborbicular, minutely punctured; hinge with two bifid teeth diverging from the umbo; $\frac{3}{8}$ inches long, $\frac{1}{2}$ broad. *squamosus*

Gen. 6. Tellina, *Tellin.* 29 Tellina.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a tethys: the shell is bivalve, generally sloping on one side; in the fore part of one valve there is a convex, and in that of the other, a concave fold; the hinge has usually three teeth, the lateral ones flat or nearly obsolete, in one valve.

Species.

* *Shells ovate and thickish.*

1. Roundish, compressed, wrinkled on the fore-part; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian ocean, very rare. Chem. vi. t. 8. f. 65. *gargadia.*

2. Wrinkles transversely undulated; hinged with two lateral teeth. Indian and American seas. Wood, t. 41. f. 1. and 2. *rugosa.*

3. Subovate, rough, with lunated scales, disposed in a quincunx order; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 40. f. 2. and 3. *lingua-felis.*

4. Ovate-roundish, angulated at the anterior end, striated transversely; hinge subcentral; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. China. Wood, t. 36. f. 2. *margi-nalis.*

5. Angular, with transverse, recurved striæ; 2 inches long, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian and Atlantic oceans. Wood, t. 35. f. 2. and 3. *virgata.*

6. Ovate-oblong, beaked, angulated, and bent at the anterior end; rough, with transverse striæ; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. W. Indies. Wood, t. 36. f. 3. *interrupta*

7. Rounded, thick, gibbous; striæ longitudinal, fine; lateral teeth remote; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Chem. vi. t. 9. f. 76. *inflata.*

8. Subovate

angulata. 8. Subovate, angular before, with transverse, recurved striæ; no lateral teeth; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and 2 broad. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 43. f. 1.

polygona. 9. Subventricose, transversely striated, orbicular, angular on the fore-part; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 9. f. 77.

lacunosa. 10. Ovate, thin, ventricose; hinge without lateral, but with two primary teeth; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 9. f. 78.

gibbosa. 11. Angular, ventricose, and finely striated transversely. Gualteri, t. 77. f. Q.

gari. 12. Striæ recurved, transverse; lateral teeth obsolete; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 10. f. 92.

ferröensis. * 13. Oblong, ovate, compressed, with fine, transverse striæ; 1 inch long, and 2 broad. North seas, Weymouth, Yorkshire. Brown, t. xvi. f. 182.

fragilis. 14. Ovate, white, gibbous, with transverse, recurved striæ; beaks yellowish; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. European seas. Chem. vi. t. 9. f. 84.

obliqua. 15. Oval, very smooth, and marked with interrupted purple lines; lateral teeth rather prominent; 1 inch long. Wood, t. 41. f. 4. and 5.

** *Shells ovate, and compressed.*

albida. 16. Oval, smooth, with prominent membranes, without lateral teeth; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. W. Indies and Britain. Brown, t. xvi. f. 3.

triangularis. 17. Slightly wedged, whitish, and transversely striated; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad, and 1 long. Chem. vi. t. 10. f. 85.

oblonga. 18. Oblong, brittle, yellowish; rounded on one side; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Europe. Chem. vi. t. 10. f. 87.

spengleri. 19. White, transversely striated, and bifariously hooked on each side; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 37. f. 2.

foliacea. 20. Oval, with rough pubes, flattened sides, serrated; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and 3 broad. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 36. f. 1.

acuta. 21. Oval, compressed, very minutely striated longitudinally; margins sharp; 2 inches long. W. Indies. Wood, t. 44. f. 1.

planata. 22. Ovate, compressed, transversely substriated, smooth, with acute margins; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, 2 broad. European and Mediterranean seas. Born, t. 2. f. 9.

strigosa. 23. With whitish bands, glabrous and wrinkled at the margin. African shores. Adamson, t. 17. f. 19.

lævigata. 24. Ovate, smooth, lateral teeth, margined. European and Indian seas. Wood, t. 41. f. 1.

madagascariensis. 25. Oval, a little pointed at one end; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long and $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Madagascar. Wood, t. 39. f. 2. and 3.

radiata. 26. Oblong; striæ faint, longitudinal. European and American seas. Wood, t. 38. f. 2. and 3.

pallescens. 27. Oblong, striated transversely, beaked, and obliquely angulated; hinge central. E. Indies. Lister, 398. f. 237.

rostrata. 28. Oblong, the fore-part produced into an angular beak. Indian ocean. Woon, t. 37. f. 3.

rufescens. 29. Purple, with white bands, and decussated striæ; one valve convex, the other flat; $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches broad, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ long. Wood, t. 42. f. 1.

flavescens. 30. Oval, yellowish white, with decussated striæ, and one valve much more convex than the other; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long, $12\frac{3}{4}$ broad. E. Indies. Chem. vi. t. 11. f. 98.

hyalina. 31. Oval, inequivalve, flat, pellucid, with fine decussated striæ; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 3 broad. Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 11. f. 99.

inæquivalvis. 32. Oblong, produced into a beak, upper valve flat, lower convex; length $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, breadth 1 inch. European and North seas. Wood, t. 47. f. 2 to 4.

trifasciata 33. Ovate, smoothish, triradiate with red, and slightly striated transversely. European seas. Chem. vi. t. 12. f. 114.

coccinea. 34. Oval, pellucid, scarlet, transversely striated, very thin; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Mediterranean. Chem. vi. t. 12. f. 109.

incarnata. 35. Ovate, a little produced on the fore-part, flattish; 2 inches broad. European and Mediterranean seas. Gualteri, t. 88. f. M.

apalina. 36. Oval, pellucid, with a rib in each valve, reaching from the hinge to the outer margin; very thin. Nicobar. Chem. vi. t. 112. f. 107.

lanceolata. 37. Oval, very thin, transversely striated; 10 lines long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad. India. Wood, t. 45. f. 2.

sanguinea 38. Oblong-oval, transversely striated, angular, and somewhat beaked at the anterior end; hinge with pointed lateral teeth; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Wood, t. 44. f. 2.

nivea. 39. Oval, compressed, somewhat angular on the anterior side; hinge with a solitary cleft primary tooth, in one valve, inserted between two in the opposite. American ocean. Wood, t. 46. f. 1.

sulcata. 40. Oval, flat, transversely grooved, and angulated; hinge with two teeth in one valve, and the lateral tooth prominent; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Wood, t. 47. f. 1.

donacina. * 41. Ovate, flattish, very obtuse on the fore-part; striated concentrically. Mediterranean, Sandwich, Weymouth. Brown, t. xvi. f. 6.

angusta. 42. Flattish, red, with white rays; one end pointed, the other rounded. Lister, t. 383. f. 226.

truncata. 43. Oval, compressed, substriated; fore-part truncated. Java.

punicea. 44. Oval, flat, equal sided, transversely striated; 1 inch long, 2 broad. Don, t. 123.

depressa. * 45. Very thick, depressed, oblong, with transverse concentric striæ; anterior end pointed. Europe, Britain. Brown, t. xvi. f. 12.

fabula. 46. Ovate, compressed, inflated, lengthened before; one valve smooth, the other with oblique reflected striæ. Mediterranean, American and North seas, Wales. Wood, t. 45. f. 4.

vitrea. 47. Yellowish, very thin, perpendicularly striated. North and Baltic seas. Chem. vi. t. 11. f. 101.

striata. 48. Unequal sided, round at both ends, rosy white, pellucid; 2 inches broad, $1\frac{1}{4}$ long. Gualteri, t. 89. f. C.

balaustina 49. Dilated, orbicular, lateral teeth in one valve. Mediterranean. Wood, t. 44. f. 3. and 4.

calcaria. 50. Ovate, very brittle, glabrous, and inflected at the anterior end; hinge with a primary cleft tooth in one valve, which shuts into a cavity in the other. Iceland. Chem. t. 13. f. 136.

*** *Shells suborbicular.*

remies. 51. Compressed and transversely wrinkled; 3 inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian and American oceans. Wood, t. 38. f. 1.

fausta. 52. Roundish-ovate; somewhat truncated at the anterior end, and obsoletely striated transversely. Jamaica. Lister, 265. f. 101.

53. Lentiform,

reticulata. 53. Lentiform, compressed, recticulate. India. Wood, t. 42. f. 2. and 3.

cancellata. 54. Thin, with numerous longitudinal grooves crossing the transverse wrinkles. Atlantic. Adanson, t. 17. f. 19.

guinaica. 55. With transverse, minute, longitudinal striæ; and the anterior surface waved. Guinea. Chem. x. t. 170. f. 1651. to 1653.

scabra. 56. Squarish, convex, inflected on the anterior side, strongly striated transversely; hinge with a single primary tooth. W. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 199. f. 1943. and 1944.

crassa. 57. Very thick, broad, depressed; concentric striæ numerous, 1¼ inch broad, and 1¼ long. Europe, Britain. Brown, t. xvi. f. 16.

decussata. 58. With fine decussated striæ, inside variegated with purple-brown zig-zag streaks; 1 inch long. Wood, t. 43. f. 2. and 3.

cordiformis. 59. Densely striated longitudinally, and transversely; two primary teeth in each valve, and oblong lateral teeth. W. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 199. f. 1941. and 2.

muricata. 60. Compressed, closely striated longitudinally, with imbricated serrated striæ. W. Indies. Chem. 209. t. 199. f. 1945.

scobinata. 61. Lentiform, rough, with lunated scales disposed in a quincunx; 2½ inches long, 2¾ broad. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 35. f. 1.

lactea. 62. Lentiform, gibbous, white, pellucid, smooth. Mediterranean. Montagu, t. 2. f. 4.

rotundata. 63. Rather convex; hinge with two teeth in each valve; one is bifid, the other a little diverging. Mont. t. 2. f. 3.

flexuosa. 64. Convex, thin, with a longitudinal furrow at the anterior end extending from the apex. Britain. Wood, t. 47. f. 7. and 8.

carnaria. 65. White, with a rosy tinge within and without; fine striæ, disposed obliquely. Europe and American islands. Wood, t. 40. f. 4. and 5.

zonata. 66. Rosy, with a white band. Shores of Tuscany. Lister, 405. f. 250.

bimaculata. 67. Triangularly rounded, smooth, whitish, with two oblong red spots on the inside; scarcely an inch broad. Europe and American seas. Don, t. 19. f. 1.

balthica. 68. Roundish, smooth, outside bloom colour; size of a horse bean. Baltic. Chem. vi. t. 11. f. 128.

pisiformis. 69. Subglobular, smooth, obliquely substriated; size of a pea. Mouths of rivers in Europe.

divaricata 70. Subglobular, white, with obliqne bifarious striæ. American seas. Wood, t. 46. f. 6.

denticula. 71. Suborbicular, convex, with the two sides obliquely striated, in opposite directions; margin serrated. Bahamas. Wood, t. 46. f. 6.

digitaria. 72. Subglobular, pale, surrounded with oblique uniform striæ; size of a pea, nearly an inch long. American and Indian seas. Chem. t. 12. f. 121.

cornea. * 73. Globular, glabrous, horn-colour, with a transverse groove; size of a pea. Ponds and fresh waters of Europe, Britain. Wood, t. 45. f. 3.

lacustris. 74. Rhombic, flattish, glabrous, with an acute protuberance. Pools and marshes of Europe. Wood, t. 49. f. 5.

amnica. 75. Heart-shaped, transversely grooved. Pools and ditches of Europe. Wood, t. 47. f. 6.

pulsilla. 76. Ovate, ventricose, thin, transversely striated, very minute. Rivers of Europe. Lister, t. 159. f. 15.

limosa. 77. Ovate, transversely striated, and purple within; umbones prominent and acute. S. American rivers; ½ inch long. Linn. Tr. x. t. 24. f. 8. and 9.

fluminalis 78. Triangular, gibbous, transversely striated. River Euphrates. Chem. vi. t. 30. f. 320.

fluminea. 79. Triangular, gibbous, transversely ribbed. China. Chem. vi. t. 30. f. 322. and 323.

fluviatilis. 80. Triangular, transversely wrinkled. Canton. Chem. vi. t. 30. f. 321.

hermaphrodita. 81. Heart-shaped, triangular, thick, ponderous, coarse, but very smooth. Rivers in Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 31. f. 327. to 329.

rivalis. 82. Obliquely subovate, transversely grooved; size of a pea. River Avon near Salisbury.

Gen. 7. CARDIUM, *Cockle.* 30 Cardium.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a tethys: the shell is bivalve, nearly equilateral, equivalve, generally convex, longitudinally ribbed, striated or grooved, with a toothed margin. Hinge of the two teeth near the beak, and a larger remote lateral one on each side; each looking into the opposite.

SPECIES.

costatum. 1. Gibbous, equivalve, with elevated, carinated, concave, membranaceous ribs; three inches long, three and a half broad, three high. African ocean. Wood, t. 56. f. 1.

lima. 2. Gibbous, with prickly ribs; anterior ones with recurved, membranceous tubercles, crenated at the sides. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 15. f. 153.

cardissa. 3. Heart-shaped; valves compressed and carinated with teeth; two inches and a half long, above two broad. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 59. f. 1. and 2.

humanum 4. Heart-shaped, valves compressed and keeled; anterior side convex; umbones approximate. Wood, t. 59. f. 3. and 4. East Indies.

roseum. 5. Heart-shaped; fore part surrounded with lines, hind part with broader striæ, forming by their union the figure of a heart. Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 57. f. 6.

monstrosum. 6. Gibbous; one side impressed and ochraceous, the other convex, heart-shaped, and whitish, spotted with yellow. Nicobar islands. A very rare species. Chem. vi. t. 14. f. 149. and 50.

retusum. 7. Heart-shaped; valves striated, notched; behind the beaks a lunated heart-shaped gape; two inches long, and nearly the same breadth. India, Arabia, and Egypt. Wood, t. 58. f. 4. and 5.

hemicardium. 8. Heart-shaped, subquadrilateral, with punctured grooves; valves carinated, beaks distant; 1¼ inches long. Indian ocean. Wood, t. 57. f. 7.

medium. 9. Something heart-shaped, subangular; valves angular, grooved, smooth. European and American seas. Wood, t. 50. f. 3.

donaciforme. 10. Somewhat heart-shaped, longitudinally grooved; anterior end truncated; umbones cancellated. West Indies. Chem. vi. t. 16. f. 165.

exiguum. * 11. Somewhat heart-shaped, subangular; grooves imbricated, or beset with recurved scales. Falmouth, Sandwich. Don, t. 32. f. 3.

aculeatum * 12. Somewhat heart-shaped, ribs high, and grooved down the middle, and beset with large hollowed spines near

near the circumference. European and Mediterranean seas, Devonshire. Wood, t. 48.

spinosum. 13. Somewhat heart-shaped, nearly equilateral, with crowded longitudinal ribs, marked along the middle with an obsolete groove, and very spinous. Mediterranean. Wood. t. 51. f. 1.

echinatum * 14. Slightly heart-shaped; ribs spinous, carinated. European seas, Britain. Wood, t. 49. f. 1. and 2.

ciliatum. 15. Slightly heart-shaped, with elevated subtriangular, ciliated grooves. North seas.

tuberculatum. * 16. Somewhat heart-shaped, with obtuse, knotty, transversely striated grooves. Mediterranean. Wood, t. 50. f. 1. and 2.

isocardia. 17. Heart-shaped, with arched imbricated scales along the grooves. Mediterranean. Wood, t. 52, f. 1. and 2.

fragum. 18. Somewhat heart-shaped, subangular. India. Wood, t. 58. f. 1. and 2.

unedo. 19. Subcordate, with lunated, coloured grooves. India. Wood, t. 58. f. 3.

ringens. 20. Rounded, ventricose, white, with deep teeth on the margin; anterior ones rosy. Africa and America. Lister, t. 330. f. 167.

muricatum. 21. Subcordate, grooved, and muricated at the sides. America. Wood, t. 51. f. 2. and 3.

magnum. 22. Oblong, with angular grooves, serrated at the side. America and India.

leucostomum. 23. Oblong, with numerous longitudinal ribs, crenated on both sides, and imbricated at the anterior. Jamaica. Wood, t. 53. f. 3.

maculatum. 24. Ventricose, with longitudinal angular ribs, striated transversely on the posterior side. Virginia. Lister, t. 328. f. 165.

flavum. 25. Subovate, grooved; anterior margin rough, posterior, one toothed. India. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 11.

lævigatum 26. Obovate, with obsolete, longitudinal striæ, and a few transverse ones concealed by a glossy, yellowish brown epidermis. European and American seas. Wood, t. 54. f. 1.

oblongum. 27. Oblong, ventricose, ribbed longitudinally, except at the ends, which are nearly smooth. Mediterranean. Wood, t. 55. f. 1.

lineatum. 28. Heart-shaped, carinated; fore part obliquely truncated, thin, quite smooth, snowy, with gilt striæ above an inch long. Wood, t. 52. f. 3.

serratum. 29. Obovate, smooth, with obsolete striæ; interior margin serrated. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Wood, t. 54. f. 3.

papyraceum. 30. Pellucid, cinereous, with numerous thin longitudinal ribs. India. Wood, t. 55. f. 5.

rugatum. 31. With obsolete slightly crenated longitudinal ribs; anterior end produced and gaping. Jamaica. Wood, t. 56. f. 2.

latum. 32. Broad, unequal sided, within white; ribs flat and spinulous: two inches long, two and a half broad. Tranquebar and Nicobar islands. Wood, t. 57. f. 4. and 5.

rigidum. 33. Roundish, angulated at the anterior end, and produced at the margin; ribs crenulated and somewhat nodulous. Wood, t. 57. f. 2. and 3.

pectiniforme. 34. Roundish, compressed, with triangular ribs, and sides muricated. Chem. vi. t. 17. f. 180.

regulare. 35. Ovate, equilateral, with convex longitudinal ribs, and elevated crescent-shaped transverse striæ; lamellated at the anterior end. St Domingo.

* 36. Antiquated, with 28 depressed ribs, with obsolete recurved scales. Abounds frequently on all sandy coasts, and is lodged a little beneath the sand. This is employed as a wholesome and nourishing food. It is the common cockle of this country. Wood, t. 55. f. 4. *edule.*

37. Heart-shaped with 24 longitudinal ribs; margin fringed. Wood, t. 56. f. 4. and 5. *fimbriatum.*

38. Antiquated, with 20 remote grooves, the intermediate spaces rugged. Mediterranean seas. Wood, t. 55. f. 2. and 3. *rusticum.*

39. Grooved with about 36 triangular, smooth ribs. Iceland and Greenland seas. Chem. vi. t. 19. f. 196. and 7. *islandicum.*

40. Antiquated, glabrous, thin, with angular ferruginous lines; two and three fourth inches long, three and a half broad. Greenland and Iceland. Chem. vi. t. 19. f. 198. *greenlandicum.*

41. Slightly heart-shaped and pectinated. Mediterranean. Wood, t. 57. f. 1. *pectinatum.*

42. Subantiquated, hind part with 20 grooves imbricated upwards. Barbary. *glaucum.*

43. Rounded, whitish, with a brown band; ribs flattened 27, with distant transverse striæ. Montagu, t. 27. f. 6. *fasciatum.*

* 44. Suboval, angulated, compressed, with 21 rounded and slightly wrinkled ribs. Devonshire. *elongatum*

* 45. Minute, rounded, convex, glabrous, and pellucid; hinge with nearly obsolete primary teeth. Devon and Tenby. Montagu, t. 27. f. 4. *rubrum.*

* 46. Minute, heart-shaped, opake, margin muricated. Kent. Walker, f. 84. *muricatulum.*

Gen. 8. Mactra. 31 Mactra.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a tethys; the shell is bivalve, unequal sided and equivalve; the middle tooth of the hinge is complicated, with a small hollow on each side; the lateral ones are remote, and inserted into each other.

Species.

* *Shells subtriangular.*

1. Smooth, with a flat anterior margin, on which is a lunated cape, $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad. Cape of Good Hope. Chem. vi. t. 20. f. 199. to 201. *spengleri.*

2. With transverse, wrinkled plaits, diaphanous; anterior margin flattish, shell thin like paper; from 1 to 2 inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 20. f. 202. to 204. *plicatoria.*

3. Thin, pellucid, white, convex, fore-part a little gaping, finely striated and ribbed. Nicobar islands. Very rare. Chem. vi. t. 23. f. 201. *papyracea.*

4. Somewhat heart-shaped, diaphanous and brittle, transversely plaited; anterior depression lanceolate; posterior ovate-oblong. Chem. xi. t. 200. f. 1959. *vitrea.*

5. Smooth, diaphanous; back substriated, with a smooth marginal impression before them, surrounded with a rim; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, 3 broad. Mediterranean and Coromandel coasts. Chem. vi. t. 21. f. 205. and 206. *striatula.*

6. Three-sided, finely striated transversely; fore-part flattish and slightly wrinkled; 1 inch long and rather broader. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 21. f. 207. *cygnea.*

7. Obtusely triangular, smooth, thin, with pellucid chesnut *maculata.*

chesnut spots; within white, and finely striated; a heart-shaped impression behind the beaks; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and rather broader. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 21. f. 208.

turgida. 8. Inflated, faintly striated, ochraceous and white within; hinge with a supernumerary, triangular, double tooth; $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 21. f. 210. to 212.

violacea. 9. Thin, obsoletely radiated, finely striated transversely; margins on each side the beaks whitish; 2 inches long and 3 broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 200. f. 1954.

cuneata. 10. Wedge-shaped, blue, with fine transverse striæ; margin notched within; 1 inch long, and scarcely so broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 22. f. 213. and 214.

rotundata. 11. Obtusely triangular, whitish, with milk-white bands on the beak; margins on each side the beaks violet; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, and nearly 2 broad. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 263. f. 99.

glabrata. 12. Smooth, diaphanous, striated; beaks smooth, margins on each side of them striated; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long and 2 broad. African and Indian oceans. Chem. t. 22. f. 216. and 217.

nitida. 13. Snowy, glossy, thick, diaphanous, smooth; depressions on each side the beaks striated. Schroeter, t. 8. f. 2.

corallina. 14. Smooth, subdiaphanous, white, with paler bands; 2 inches broad, $1\frac{1}{2}$ long. Mediterranean and Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 22. f. 218. and 219.

lactea. 15. Thin, turgid, pellucid, white; fore-part finely striated, with paler bands. Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 22. f. 220. and 221.

striata. 16. Triangular, thick, with strong, thick crowded, arched striæ. Chem. vi. t. 22. f. 222. and 223.

radiata. * 17. Subtriangular, thin, brittle, compressed, with five transverse and minute longitudinal striæ. Portsmouth. Don. t. 161.

stultorum. * 18. Semitransparent, smooth, glossy, obsoletely radiated, white without, purplish within; sides nearly equal; length $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, breadth $1\frac{3}{4}$. European and American seas, England, and shores of Scotland. Brown, t. xv. f. 2.

grandis. 19. Semitransparent, smooth, fawn colour with pale rays; beak and hinge placed beyond the middle; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, $3\frac{1}{4}$ broad. New Jersey. Chem. vi. t. 23. f. 228.

achatina. 20. Heart-shaped, smooth, radiated towards the margin, with two violet spots on the anterior and two on posterior slope. Tranquebar. Chem. xi. t. 200. f. 1957. and 1958.

solida. * 21. Strong, subtriangular, of a yellowish-white colour, with a few concentric ridges; equal sided; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Common on European shores, and also in Britain. Brown, t. xv. f. 4.

solidissima. 22. Ovate, subtriangular, solid, with obsolete concentric ridges; lateral teeth striated; hinge central. N. Jersey. Chem. x. t. 170. f. 1656.

truncata. * 23. Triangular, equilateral, strong; with concentric ridges; umbones thick and prominent; lateral teeth striated. Britain. Brown, t. xv. f. 5.

subtruncata. * 24. Triangular, thickish, finely striated transversely; umbones thick and prominent. Britain. Brown, t. xv. f. 7.

australis. 25. Transversely oval and wrinkled, compressed, nearly equilateral, and rounded at both ends; hinge with two lateral teeth. N. Zealand. Chem. vi. t. 3. f. 19. and 20.

piperata. 26. Ovate, compressed, transversely striated; hinge teeth very minute, with a large oblique hollow. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 253. f. 88.

tenuis. * 27. Subtriangular, rounded, compressed, and transversely wrinkled; hinge with lateral teeth in one valve only. Britain. Montagu, t. 17. f. 7.

boysii. * 28. Ovate, compressed, glabrous; hinge with lateral teeth in one valve only. Britain. Montagu, t. 3. f. 7.

triangularis. * 29. Subtriangular, minute, strong, opaque; umbones prominent; margin crenated. Britain. Montagu, t. 3. f. 5.

minutissima. * 30. Subtriangular, minute; umbones prominent; margin entire. Britain. Montagu.

** *Shells ovate oblong.*

glauca. * 31. Ovate, dirty white, with glaucous rays, and fine transverse striæ; $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Mediterranean. Brown, t. xv. f. 1.

pellucida. 32. Ovate, thin, pellucid, white, with unequal transverse striæ; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, and 2 broad. Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 24. f. 234.

fragilis. 33. Ovate, thin, smooth, pellucid, flattish; anterior gape transversely striated, and wrinkled. Nicobar islands. Chem. vi. t. 24. f. 235.

rugosa. 34. Ovate, dirty white, with elevated longitudinal striæ, crossing the transverse ones, which are a little more raised; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $2\frac{3}{4}$ broad; thick, and white within. Mediterranean. Chem. vi. t. 24. f. 236.

aegyptica. 35. Oblong-oval, coated with a yellowish epidermis; longitudinally striated. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 200. f. 1955.

planata. 36. Oblong-oval, gaping, compressed, thick, finely striated and ridged transversely; hinge without lateral teeth. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 24. f. 238. and 239.

lutraria. * 37. Oval, oblong, smooth, with irregular concentric striæ; inside glossy white, gaping a little at both ends. Europe, near the mouths of rivers. Found very large on the coast of Caermarthen, and some parts of Cornwall.—The animal which inhabits this shell, according to Montagu, is an ascidia; and he observes that it frequently protrudes not less than 7 or 8 inches from the smaller end in search of food. Brown, t. xii. f. 2.

hians. * 38. Oblong, gaping, marked with irregular rugged transverse striæ, and the upper margin incurved; hinge without lateral teeth. Britain. Brown, t. xii. f. 1.

32

Gen. 9. Donax, or *Wedge-shell.*

Donax.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a tethys. The shell is bivalve, with generally a crenulate margin; the anterior margin very obtuse; hinge with two teeth, and a single marginal one placed a little behind; rarely double or triple.

Species.

scrotum. 1. Triangular, heart-shaped, with a flat frontal margin. Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 25. f. 242 to 247.

pubescens. 2. Ciliated, with spines on the anterior margin. Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 25. f. 248.

rugosa. 3. Wrinkled and gibbous before, with notched margins.

margins. Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Chem. t. 25. f. 250.

serra. 4. Wedge-shaped; anterior end wrinkled; margin crenated; hinge without lateral teeth; cartilage cleft, oblong. Cape of Good Hope. Chem. vi. t. 25. f. 251 and 252.

trunculus. * 5. Oblong, smooth, glossy, finely striated longitudinally; margin crenated; 1 inch broad. European coasts, Wales. Don. t. 29. f. 1.

complanata. * 6. Oblong, smooth, glossy, light yellow, with small spots or streaks of white, and one broad ray of the same from the back to the opposite margin; $\frac{5}{8}$ inch long, $\frac{7}{4}$ broad. Devonshire, but rare. Montagu, t. 5. f. 4.

striata. 7. Obtuse before, striated, the margin denticulated. Southern Europe. Chem. t. 26. f. 255.

denticulata. 8. Obtuse in front, lips transversely wrinkled; finely striated longitudinally; margin denticulated. European and American seas. Lister, t. 376. f. 218.

plebeia. * 9. Oblong, suboval, smooth, glossy, commonly marked with two brown stripes longitudinally from the beak; margin smooth; scarcely $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Weymouth, Dorsetshire. Montagu, t. 5. f. 2.

castanea. 10. Ovate, glossy, and slightly wrinkled transversely; hinge with one large and one small primary tooth, in each valve, and no lateral teeth. Britain. Montagu, t. 17. f. 2.

spinosa. 11. Hind-part smooth and perpendicularly striated; fore-part truncated, and finely cancellated; angles spinous. Tranquebar. Very rare. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. 258.

incarnata. 12. Flesh-coloured, anterior part truncated, wrinkled, and marked with reticulated striæ; hind-part wedge-shaped, and furrowed with fine perpendicular striæ. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. .

cuneata. 13. Wedge-shaped, margins very entire; 1 inch long, $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. 260.

lævigata. 14. Obtuse before; obsoletely striated at the sides; margin very entire; hinge without marginal teeth; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 2 inches broad. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 25. f. 249.

scripta. 15. Ovate, compressed, smooth, marked with purple waved lines; margins crenulate. Malabar coasts. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. 261 to 265.

meroe. 16. Ovate, with narrow transverse grooves; anterior depression excavated; posterior lanceolate; margin crenulated. East Indies. Chem. vii. t. 43. f. 452.

faba. 17. Gibbous, finely striated transversely, spotted with yellow. Malabar. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. 266 and 267.

radiata. 18. Brown, with hyaline spots; outside with crowded, arched, transverse striæ, inside with perpendicular ones; 1 inch broad, $1\frac{1}{2}$ long. Tranquebar. Schroeter, t. 8. f. 3.

muricata. 19. Ovate, striæ muricated; margin denticulated. Indian ocean.

straminea 20. With thin perpendicular striæ, crossing the transverse ribs on the fore-part; straw colour, with darker transverse bands; margin tawney and entire behind; 1 inch long, $\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Schroeter, t. 8. f. 4.

candida. 21. Entirely white, with a few thin, arched, transverse striæ, which are oblique towards the rim; hinge with three oblique middle teeth; margin entire; 1 inch long, and something broader. Tranquebar. Schroeter, t. 8. f. 5.

* 22. Oval, with transverse, waved, erect, striated, membranaceous wrinkles; size of a small kidney bean. Mediterranean, shores of Devonshire and Cornwall, where it is found in the hardest limestone. Chem. vi. t. 26. f. 268 to 270. *irus.*

Genus 10. Venus. 33 Venus.

Gen. Char.—The animal a tethys; shell bivalve, frontal margin flattened, with incumbent lips; hinge with three teeth, all of them approximate; the lateral ones divergent at the tip.

Species.

** With the anterior depression spinous or toothed on the margin.*

1. Transversely grooved, with a double row of spines on the anterior slope. American ocean. This shell is very rare. Lister, t. 307. f. 140. *dione.*

* 2. Somewhat heart-shaped, with thickened wrinkles; flattened side with attenuated wrinkles; lips complicated; 2 inches long, $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. American islands. Lister, t. 279. f. 116. *paphia.*

3. Somewhat heart-shaped, with thick depressed transverse ribs, of an uniform thickness throughout. W. Indies. Chem. vi. t. 27. f. 277 and 278. *fasciata.*

4. Heart-shaped, with decussated striæ, flattened; margin lamellated. American ocean. Very rare. Chem. vi. t. 27. f. 282 to 286. *marica.*

5. Somewhat heart-shaped and compressed, with transverse remote reflected ribs, and longitudinal striæ. W. Indies. Lister, t. 278. f. 115. *cingenda.*

6. Somewhat heart-shaped, with transverse, remote, reflected grooves; margin crenulated. American ocean. Lister, t. 277. f. 114. *dysera.*

7. Heart-shaped, with transverse, remote, excavated grooves; margin crenulated. *succincta.*

8. Somewhat heart-shaped, and angulated towards the auterior end, with a few distant much elevated ribs; striated strongly on the lower sides. E. Indies. Chem. t. 27. f. 279 to 281. *tiara.*

9. Somewhat heart-shaped, and angulated towards the anterior end, with numerous transverse, membranaceous ribs; cordiform depression, nearly smooth. Levant sea. Chem. vi. t. 28. f. 295 and 297. *plicata.*

10. Lentiform, transversely striated, with a deep, heart-shaped depression behind the beaks; flat side, broad. Schroeter, iii. t. 8. f. 10. *excavata.*

* 11. Sub-triangular, with numerous equidistant ribs, becoming confluent in pairs, and forming short obtuse spines on the margin of the anterior slope. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 17. f. 1. *spinifera.*

*** Somewhat heart-shaped.*

* 12. With membranaceous, transverse, striated grooves, forming tubercles towards the outer margin; margin crenulated; 2 inches long, 2 broad. Mediterranean, Antilles islands, Cornwall. Don. t. 44. *verrucosa.*

13. Longitudinally striated forwards, and transversely backwards. American islands. Chem. x. t. 172. f. 1664. *lapicida.*

* 14. With transverse, recurved, acute grooves; posterior margin crenated, and grooved behind the beaks. *cassina.*

European seas. It is often found in a fossil state. Britain. Don. t. 147.

divergens. 15. White, with fine crowded, divergent striæ. American islands. Chem. x. t. 172. f. 1666.

cancellata. 16. With transverse, membranaceous, remote striæ, and a heart-shaped depression behind the beaks; 1 inch long, 1½ broad. Indian ocean. Don. t. 115.

gallina. * 17. Radiate, with transverse, obtuse striæ; hind tooth of the hinge minute; margin crenulated; 1 inch long, 1¼ broad. American and European seas, Cornwall. Don. t. 68.

circinata. 18. With transverse, acute striæ; lips finely striated and rosy; margin very entire. Africa. Lister, t. 306. f. 109.

petulca. 19. Slightly grooved, margin crenated; size of a hazel-nut. South of Europe.

flexuosa. 20. Grooves obtuse, transverse; lips of the anterior margin with an elevated angle; 1 inch long, 1¼ broad. American and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 281. f. 119.

erycina. 21. Grooves transverse, parallel, obtuse; anterior margin glabrous; depression behind the beaks ovate; 2½ inches long, 3 broad. India. Lister, t. 268. f. 104.

mercenaria. 22. Strong and thick, with slight transverse striæ, and covered with a brown cuticle; within, pale violet; margin crenated; 3 inches long, and nearly 3 broad. North America. Shells of this species are found fossil in the mountains of Sweden. In North America they are called *clams*, and the Indians make wampum or money of them. Lister, t. 271. f. 107.

islandica. * 23. Thick and strong, with slight transverse striæ, and covered with a brown cuticle; within pure white, and smooth; margin entire; 3½ inches long, 4 broad. Europe, Africa, Caspian sea, Caermarthenshire, and shores of Scotland. The fish is employed as food by the Icelanders. Don. t. 77.

lusoria. 24. Somewhat heart-shaped, ponderous, with the anterior slope truncated, and the margin very entire. Amboyna. Chem. vi. t. 32. f. 340.

chione. * 25. Smooth, with fine transverse wrinkles; margin entire; hind tooth of the hinge lanceolate; 3 inches long, 3¾ broad. Asiatic seas; Cornwall, where this species is called *queen*. Don. t. 17.

maculata. 26. Smooth, with a few faint spots; 1½ inch long, 2½ broad. American ocean. Lister, t. 270. f. 106.

meretrix. 27. Glabrous, with a brown gibbous slope before, and gaping membranes; margin entire. Near the mouths of rivers, Indian ocean. Chem. vi. t. 33. f. 347 to 352.

paradoxa. 28. Somewhat heart-shaped, solid, compressed at both ends, and the cartilage slope protruded in the middle. Peru. Born, t. 4. f. 12 and 13.

læta. 29. Smooth, radiated with white; lips of the anterior slope violet; 1½ inch long, 1½ broad. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 353.

castrensis. 30. Triangular, rounded, gibbous, smooth, and marked with angular characters; 1½ inch long, 2 broad. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 262. f. 98.

phryne. 31. Smooth, transversely striated before and behind; posterior slope obcordate, with violet veins. Southern ocean. Rumphius, t. 42. f. O.

minuta. 32. Subovate, transversely striated, and subpellucid; membranes closed; from 1 to 2 inches broad, 1½ long. Iceland.

rigida. 33. Heart-shaped, ventricose, with numerous transverse membranaceous reflected ribs; posterior depression kidney-shaped; margin crenulated. Jamaica. Lister, 286. f. 123.

* 34. Heart-shaped, with strong longitudinal striæ, and remote elevated transverse ribs. Montagu, t. 3. f. 1. *subcordata.*

* 35. Rather compressed, very glossy, with broad transverse striæ, and two red streaks at the margin. Falmouth. Montagu, t. 3. f. 3. *minima.*

* 36. Somewhat triangular, with transverse ribs, becoming obsolete towards the umbones, and the depression oblong oval; margin crenulated. Dunbar. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 2. f. 2. *sulcata.*

* 37. Slightly compressed, with many regular parallel transverse ribs; margin entire. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 2. f. 3. *scotica.*

* 38. Slightly compressed, with regular strong equidistant transverse ribs; margin crenulated. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 29. f. 4. *danmonia.*

39. Suborbicular, with numerous, thin, elevated, distant ribs, and the interstices minutely striated, longitudinally; margin crenulated. Gualter, t. 75. f. o. *reflexa.*

* 40. Heart-shaped, much compressed, transversely grooved. Newhaven. Montagu, t. 26. f. 1. *compressa.*

41. Flattish, with transverse, elevated, slightly membranaceous striæ; anterior depression lanceolate and wrinkled. Falkland islands. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1977. *exalbida.*

42. Slightly gibbous, with elevated, decussated striæ; and the margin crenulated. Jamaica. Lister, t. 338. f. 175. *granulata.*

* 43. Oval heart-shaped, slightly compressed, with longitudinal grooves, and transverse striæ; posterior depression oblong, and elevated in the middle; margin crenulated. Britain. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 2. f. 4. *ovata.*

44. Smooth, with the anterior depression oval, and the posterior, cordiform. Coromandel. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1977. *pauperculata.*

* 45. Subtriangular, with a few transverse antiquated ridges, and the margin entire; hinge with three teeth in one valve; and two, besides a semilunar lamina, in the other. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 17. f. 3. *triangularis.*

46. Oblong, heart-shaped, polished, with broad transverse ribs; anterior depression lanceolate, and the posterior cordiform. Ceylon. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1975. *costata.*

47. Oblong, heart-shaped, polished, with flattish transverse striæ, and the posterior depression cordiform. South seas. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1976. *pacifica.*

48. Somewhat heart-shaped, glabrous, thick, and tumid; anterior depression oval; posterior rounded and impressed; margin entire. East Indies. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 355 to 357. *pinguis.*

49. Somewhat heart-shaped, glabrous, with three blackish rays; anterior depression oval; posterior ovate. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 358. *triradiata.*

50. Somewhat heart-shaped, very smooth, without any posterior depression; anterior tooth of the hinge slightly crenulated. Malabar. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 362 and 363. *exilis.*

51. Somewhat heart-shaped, with three longitudinal rays, and transversely striated; posterior depression impressed and oval. Coromandel. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1979. *recens.*

52. Somewhat heart-shaped, ventricose; transversely striated; posterior depression oblong-oval, striated, and rather *pectunculus.*

rather obsolete. Red sea. Chem. vi. t. 35. f. 375 to 377.

lorenzina. 53. Smooth, with dark, transverse, zig-zag stripes; posterior depression cordiform. Ceylon. Chem. vi. t. 200. f. 1961.

ornata. 54. Subtriangular-heart-shaped, smooth, with somewhat reticulated, angulated veins; posterior depression nearly obsolete. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 259. f. 95.

deflorata. 55. Oval, longitudinally wrinkled, semipellucid, faintly radiated with purple and white; 1½ inch long, 1¾ broad. European and American seas. Lister, t. 425. f. 273.

fimbriata. 56. Oval, gibbous, longitudinally striated, and transversely grooved; margin crenated; 2 inches long, 3 broad. East Indies. Lister, t. 1056. f. 1.

reticulata. 57. Striæ elevated, decussated; with a heart-shaped depression behind; margin entire; 2 inches long, 2½ broad. India. Lister, t. 335. f. 172.

squamosa. 58. Striæ reticulated, and scaly on the back part. Amboyna. Chem. vi. t. 31. f. 335.

puerpera. 59. Roundish, with decussated, membranaceous striæ; lips flexuous. India. Gualteri, t. 76. f. G.

crenulata. 60. Ovate heart-shaped, with transverse membranaceous striæ, and the interstices crenulated; posterior depression cordiform; margin crenulated. East Indies. Lister, t. 283. f. 11.

radiata. 61. Triangular-heart-shaped, with decussated striæ; posterior depression cordiform; margin crenulated; umbones violet. Chem. vi. t. 36. f. 386.

cincta. 62. Triangular heart-shaped, ventricose, with broad transverse ribs, and the interstices crenulated; posterior depression cordiform; margin crenulated. Chem. vi. t. 36. f. 387.

tripla. 63. Triangular, smooth, retuse behind and before; 1 inch long, and rather broader. Mediterranean. Lister, t, 252. f. 86.

rigida. 64. Gibbous, with transverse, membranaceous, arched striæ; posterior slope kidney-shaped; margin crenated; 2 inches long, 2 broad. India. Lister, t. 286. f. 123.

caliste. 65. With transverse, acute striæ, anteriorly membranaceous; anterior slope short, posterior indistinct. Red sea. Schroeter, iii. t. 8. f. 8.

imbricata. 66. With perpendicular, imbricated ribs, transversely striated; margin crenated. It has been found in a fossil state in France.

divaricata 67. With fine transverse striæ, crossing some diverging longitudinal ones towards the margin; posterior impression ovate; margin crenated. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 172. f. 1666.

malabaria 68. Oblong, ovate, radiated, with thick, crowded, transverse striæ; anterior slope broad, ovate; posterior impression heart-shaped; 1½ inch long, 2 broad. Malabar. Chem. vi. t. 32. f. 337 and 338.

flammea. 69. Transversely striated, the back glabrous; anterior slope broad, with brown lines; posterior impressions heart-shaped, with brown lines. Red Sea. Schroeter, vii. t. 8. f. 12.

coaxans. 70. Green, within white, with transverse, unequal, membranaceous striæ; margin acute; 2½ inches long, 3 broad. Rivers of Ceylon. Chem. vi. t. 32. f. 336.

casta. 71. Gibbous, snowy; anterior part convex; within pale violet; anterior slope roundish, posterior heart-shaped; margin very entire. India. Chem. vi. t. 32. f. 346.

lacta. 72. Thin, glabrous, convex; white variegated with brown; posterior slope elongated, with oblique tumid lips; four teeth in the hinge. Mauritius. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 353.

nebulosa. 73. Ochraceous, with cinereous and bluish spots; anterior slope oval; posterior slope ovate, bluish. Tranquebar. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 359. to 361.

japonica. 74. Oblong, ovate, inequilateral; lid transverse; striæ crowded at the sides; posterior slope oblong, ovate. Japan. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 364.

striata. 75. Ventricose, anteriorly angular, with transverse, thick, smooth, and slightly arched striæ; posterior slope heart-shaped. Nicobar. Rare. Chem. vi. t. 34. f. 365. and 366.

plumbea. 76. Solid, weighty, inequilateral, wrinkled on both sides; margin crenulated; hinge with two teeth. Southern ocean. Chem. vii. t. 69. f. A. to D.

callipyga. 77. Posteriorly ovate, transversely and unequally striated, and marked with angular lines. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 201. f. 1968.

mactroides 78. Triangular, white or yellow, with transverse parallel striæ; 1½ inch long. Senegal. Lister, t. 251. f. 85.

*** *Suborbicular.*

tigerina. 79. Lentiform, with crenated, decussated striæ; posterior slope impressed, ovate. American and Indian ocean. Lister, t. 337. f. 174.

prostrata. 80. Orbicular, transversely striated, with rough membranaceous lips; 2 inches long, not so broad. Coromandel. Chem. vi. t. 29. f. 298.

pennsylvanica. 81. Lentiform, with glabrous wrinkles, white with a longitudinal groove anteriorly on each side; 2 inches long. America. Lister, t. 305. f. 138.

jamaicensis. 82. Slightly ventricose, with transverse membranaceous striæ, and inflected with a longitudinal furrow at both ends; posterior depression minute. Jamaica. Chem. vii. t. 39. f. 408. and 409.

spuria. 83. White, somewhat glabrous, with a longitudinal groove anteriorly, and hinge without lateral teeth. Shores of Iceland and Ferro islands. Lister, 296. f. 133.

punctata. 84. Lentiform, longitudinally grooved, dotted within; 2 inches long, 2¼ broad. India, but rare. Chem. vii. t. 37. f. 397. to 398.

* *exoleta.* 85. Lentiform, transversely striated, pale with obsolete rays; posterior slope heart-shaped; 2 inches long, and 2 broad. Norway, and coast of Britain, Cornwall. Lister, t. 291. f. 127.

* *undata.* 86. Thin, convex, orbicular, whitish, tinged with yellow, with thin transverse striæ; margins waved. British seas, Falmouth. Don. t. 121.

tumidula. 87. Gibbous, with transverse, remote, rather obsolete grooves; margin entire.

sinensis. 88. Longitudinally striated, with transverse, white, and violet arches; margin interiorly crenated. Chinese shores. Chem. x. t. 171. f. 1663.

excisa. 89. Lentiform, transversely striated, with an oblong gaping vent on the anterior slope; hinge with 4 teeth. Nicobar islands. Lister, t. 294. f. 130.

pectinata. 90. Gibbous, with longitudinal nodulous ribs, branched at the anterior end; margin toothed. Amboyna. Lister, t. 313. f. 149.

* *borealis.* 91. Lentiform, with remote, transverse, membranaceous

naceous striæ; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 2 broad. European seas, Britain. Chem. vii. t. 39. f. 412. to 414.

dispar. 92. With the posterior side transversely striated, and the anterior obliquely ribbed. South seas. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1981. and 1982.

equivoca. 93. Slightly compressed, with angulated diverging ribs; posterior depression lanceolate; margin crenated. E. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 202. f. 1980.

divaricata 94. With narrow transversely striated ribs, obliquely divaricating from the centre; margin crenulated. E. Indies. Lister, t. 310. f. 146.

contraria. 95. Suboval, convex, with oblique curved striæ; margin crenulated. Guinea. Chem. vi. t. 30. f. 317. to 319.

corrugata. 96. Ovate, whitish; striæ transverse, anteriorly thick and strong, posteriorly thin and undulating. Mediterranean. Chem. vii. t. 39. f. 410.

scripta. 97. Lentiform, compressed, striated, angular; the hinder angle straight. Indian ocean, and Red sea. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 40. f. 420. to. 426.

edentula. 98. Subglobular, lenticular, wrinkled, without teeth; posterior slope ovate. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 40. f. 427. to 429.

concentrica. 99. White, suborbicular, compressed, with concentric striæ; margin very entire; posterior slope heart-shaped. Atlantic and American seas. A large shell. Lister, t. 288. f. 124.

juvenis. 100. Lentiform, with transverse, crowded striæ; anteriorly circular, and terminating in wrinkles behind; posterior slope heart-shaped; margin very entire. India. Chem. vii. t. 38. f. 405.

histrio. 101. Lentiform, with transverse, acute, arched striæ; margin entire; posterior slope heart-shaped. India. Rare. Chem. vii. t. 38. f. 407.

globosa. 102. Globular, with fine transverse striæ; margin very entire; hinge with two teeth; 1 inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Red sea. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 40. f. 430. 431.

discors. 103. Orbicular, a little convex, with longitudinal striæ perpendicular in the middle, obliquely divergent towards the outside, and crossed by transverse ones; intermediate grooves and inner margin crenated. Isle of France. Lister, 312. f. 148.

aculeata. 104. Orbicular, subequilateral, with elevated, acute, tuberculated ribs; margin denticulated, and crenated. Schroeter, iii. t. 8. f. 13.

**** *Suboval, and slightly angulated on the anterior side.*

gigantea. 105. Ovate, livid, with numerous, interrupted, bluish rays; posterior slope ovate. Shores of Ceylon and Florida. Chem. x. t. 171. f. 1661.

literata. 106. Ovate, anteriorly angular, with undulated transverse striæ; 2 inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Europe and India. Lister, t. 402. f. 246.

geographica. 107. Inequilateral, thin, with fine decussated striæ; white, reticulated with brown. Mediterranean. Chem. vii. t. 42. f. 260.

rotundata 108. Ovate, anteriorly angular, with transverse striæ; intermediate tooth of the hinge bifid; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 3 broad. Indian ocean. Chem. vii. t. 42. f. 441.

decussata. * 109. Ovate, with decussated striæ anteriorly angular; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, 2 broad. Mediterranean, British coasts. Don. t. 67.

undulata. 110. Oval, quite smooth, inequilateral; slopes oblong; margin very entire; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, $2\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Malabar, Red sea. Lister, t. 400. f. 239.

* 111. Subovate, anteriorly subangular, with unequal, transverse striæ; anterior slope tumid. Adriatic. Britain. Lister, t. 403. f. 247. *virginea.*

112. Oval, with transverse striæ, which are stronger on the anterior side, and undulated in the middle. Mediterranean. Chem. vii. t. 42. f. 144. *obsoleta.*

113. Ovate, with fine decussated striæ; white or flesh-coloured, varied with brown; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad, not 1 inch long. Senegal. Linn. Tr. vi. t. 17. f. 3. *senegalensis.*

* 114. Thin, convex, somewhat triangular, with a deep obtuse sinus in the middle of the front. Britain, Montagu, t. 3. f. 6. *perforans.*

* 115. Suborbicular, inequilateral, transversely striated, and marked with faint longitudinal striæ; 1 inch long, $1\frac{1}{8}$ broad. Dorsetshire. Lister, t. 404. f. 149. *aurea.*

116. Ovate, whitish; striæ decussated; hinge with only two teeth in the left valve. Nicobar islands. Chem. vii. t. 42. f. 445. *monstrosa.*

34 Spondylus.

Gen. 11. Spondylus.

Gen. Char.—The animal a tethys; shell solid, with unequal valves, one of them convex, the other rather flat; hinge with two recurved teeth, separated by a small hollow.

Species.

* *Shells with ears.*

1. Slightly eared and spinous. Mediterranean, Indian, and other seas.—This species varies greatly in size, thickness, and colours. Sometimes it is entirely purple, orange, white or bloom colour, and sometimes it is marked with various streaks, spot, dots, or bands. Lister, t. 206. f. 40. *gædaropus.*

2. White, base deep orange-coloured, longitudinally sulcated; spines very long, and somewhat tongue-shaped; apice subfoliated. S. America. Chem. vii. t. 45. f. 465. *americanus.*

3. Thin upper valve, deep rose-coloured, with short spines; the smaller valve with lamellated foliations, and long submarginated spines. Knorr. Vig. v. t. 9. f. 1. *arachnoides.*

4. With distinct longitudinal striæ, white and unspotted, rough. N. Holland. *candidus.*

5. Round, white, larger valve purple, with longitudinal striæ; with tongue-shaped spines. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 46. f. 472. and 473. *multiladmellatus.*

6. With white and purple longitudinal ribs and stripes; ribs spinous, and with subserrated teeth. Red sea. Knorr. Vig. i. t. 9. f. 2. *costatus.*

7. Longitudinally sulcated and ribbed; ribs with very long white spines. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 45. f. 464. *variegatus.*

8. Longitudinally sulcated and ribbed, thickly spined, of a reddish colour; alternate spines arenated, and tongue-shaped; umbones orange-coloured. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 46. f. 472. and 473. *longispina.*

9. Without ears, and spinous. In this species the shell is sub-globular, white within, without purplish, scarlet, flame colour, orange or white; spines generally two inches long, sometimes cylindrical, with a crenated margin. India, Malta. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 46. f. 471. *regius.*

10. Oblong-

avicularis. 10. Oblong-oval, purple, longitudinally sulcated, ribbed, and spinous; smaller valve, with the base turned upwards, and very much produced. E. Indies. Gualt. t. 101. f. B.

coccinus. 11. Round, longitudinally sulcated, of a scarlet and purple colour, with short subulate spines; base extorted and flexuous. Gualt. t. 99. f. E.

crassisquama. 12. Red on both sides, longitudinally ribbed and sulcated; ribs with distant scales; scales strong, and somewhat spoon-shaped, sometimes palmated. Rumph. t. 48. f. 1.

spathuliferus. 13. Purple, or whitish purple, longitudinally sulcated and ribbed; scales spoon-shaped, erect and undivided. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 47. f. 474. and 475.

ducalis. 14. Whitish, with brown and violet-coloured spots, or longitudinally lineated; scales white, spoon-shaped, or palmated. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 47. f. 477. and 478.

longitudinalis. 15. Oblong-oval, longitudinally sulcated, and scaly; umbones white; scales orange-coloured; underneath scarlet.

microlepos 16. Red on both sides, longitudinally ribbed and striated; ribs with five or six truncated scales. E. Indies. Knorr. vi. t. 12. f. 3.

crocens. 17. Scarlet on both sides, longitudinally costated; with twenty distant ribs, variously spined. E. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 45. f. 463.

aurantenus. 18. Orange on both sides, with longitudinal ribs; and from 20 to 26 subulated spines on each. China. Ency. Method. t. 191. f. 3.

radians. 19. Whitish, spotted, with scarlet and purple, or brown rays, sulcated and spined; spines frequently thin. Nicobar islands. Chem. vii. t. 45. f. 469. and 470.

zonalis. 20. Inequivalve, sulcated, radicated, and spined; umbones white, spotted with black and white; broad. E. Indies.

violacescens. 21. Ash-coloured and violet, with longitudinal ribs and striæ; with sulcated scales, subcylindrical spines.

** *Shells without ears, and base attenuated.*

plicatus. 22. Without ears or spines, and plaited longitudinally. Java. Lister, t. 210. f. 44.

cristatus. 23. Oblong wedge-shaped, rust-coloured, subcrestated; with large simple plaits, and scaly. America. Lister, t. 210. f. 44.

reniformis 24. Round, subarcuated, white; plaits simple, and scaly. Jamaica. Sloan, ii. t. 241. f. 20. and 21.

australis. 25. Round, spined, white; with a waved margin and no plaits. N. Holland.

35 Chama. Gen. 12. CHAMA, or *Gaping Cockle.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a tethys: the shell bivalve, rather coarse; hinge with a callous gibbosity, obliquely inserted in an oblique hollow; anterior slope closed.

SPECIES.

* *Shells detached.*

cor. * 1. Roundish, smooth; beaks recurved; anterior sloped with a gaping fent. Adriatic and Caspian seas, Hebrides. Sometimes it is found of a large size. Chem. vii. t. 48. f. 483.

2. Obtusely triangular, equilateral, plaited; anterior slope elevated, with oblique plates and striæ: size of a hazel nut. Chem. vii. t. 48. f. 484. to 487. *moltkiana.*

3. Plaited, with arched scales; posterior slope gaping, with crenulated margins. Indian ocean.—This species sometimes measures only about an inch in length, but sometimes it is found to be the largest of shells, and equal to 532lb. weight. The fish which it contains is said to furnish a meal to 120 men, and its muscular strength is so great as to cut asunder a cable, or lop off the hand of a man. South Sea. Chem. vii. t. 49. f. 492. to 494. *gigas.*

4. Plaited, muricated, posterior slope retuse, closed, toothed; 5 inches long, and 7 broad. Indian ocean. Chem. vii. t. 50. f. 498. and 499. *hippopus.*

5. Suborbicular, solid, tuberculated, and coated with a brown epidermis; apices recurved, and the margin entire. South Sea. Chem. xi. t. 203. f. 1991. *plumbea.*

6. Somewhat heart-shaped, with longitudinal grooves, and transverse striæ; ribs from 19 to 22. Atlantic and Indian seas. Chem. vii. t. 48. f. 488. and 489. *antiquata.*

7. Somewhat heart-shaped, slightly produced at the anterior end, with longitudinal flattish ribs, and transversely striated and tuberculated; posterior depression suborbicular. Mouth of the Niger. Chem. vii. t. 48. f. 490. and 491. *ajax.*

8. Trapeziform, gibbous, with longitudinal, crenulated grooves; about the size of a pea. Norway seas. Chem. xi. t. 204. f. 2005. *trapezia.*

9. Suborbicular, compressed, coarse, with decussated striæ. Arabia. Chem. vii. t. 50. f. 502. and 503. *semiorbiculata.*

10. Oblong, with imbricated grooves; anterior part retuse; ½ inch long, 1½ broad. American and Indian seas. Chem. vii. t. 50. f. 500. *calyculata.*

11. Heart-shaped, transversely striated; one side elongated, compressed. Indian and Red seas. *cordata.*

12. Roundish, with toothed grooves, mixed with dots; posterior slope retuse; heart-shaped. *satiata.*

13. Oblong, fore-part angular, with anterior acute teeth. Shores of Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 203. f. 1993. *oblonga.*

14. Suborbicular, with very deep grooves; wrinkles slightly imbricated; margin doubly folded. The grooves are about 30 in number. *rugosa.*

15. Transversely wrinkled, and longitudinally striated. In the middle of each valve within is an additional chamber. American ocean. Small, whitish. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 50. f. 506. *concamerata.*

16. Oblong, oblated above, and produced at the base, with smooth longitudinal ribs. Lister, t. 347. f. 185. *pectunculus.*

17. Cylindrical, white, diphanous, with decussated striæ; the transverse striæ arched and imbricated. East Indies. Chem. x. t. 172. f. 1673. *corralio-phaga.*

** *Shells attached to some other substance.*

18. Imbricated, with jagged lamellæ; beak a little spiral obliquely. India. Chem. vii. t. 51. f. 507. *lazarus.*

19. Orbicular, muricated; one valve flatter, the other with a subspiral, produced beak. Mediterranean, American, and Indian seas. Chem. vii. t. 52. f. 514. *gryphoides.*

20. With conic valves, and horn-shaped, oblique, tubular beaks, longer than the valve. Indian and American seas. *cornuta.*

12. Grooved,

arcinella. 21. Grooved, muricated, with excavated dots: hinge with a sessile callus; 2 inches broad and 2 long. American ocean. Lister. t. 355. f. 192.

lamellosa. 22. White, with foliaceous, serrated, transverse, striæ, the insterstices crenated, beaks recurved. Mediterranean and American seas.—This species is found fossil in Campania; it is sometimes round, and sometimes oblong. Chem. vii. t. 52. f. 521.

punctata. 23. Suborbicular, with transverse rows of rather distant scales, and the inside dotted. Guadaloupe. Ency. Meth. t. 197. f. 3.

sinerostra. 24. Ear-shaped, thick, scaly, with one or two longitudinal furrows; margin crenulated, and the summits reversed. West Indies. Chem. xi. t. 116. f. 992. and 993.

arcinella. 25. Somewhat heart-shaped, with spinous longitudinal ribs, and excavated dots; margin crenulated and slightly plaited. Brazil. Lister, t. 355. f. 192.

36 Arca. Gen. 13. ARCA, or *Ark-shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a tethys: The shell bivalve, equivalve; the hinge with a number of teeth, sharp, alternate, and inserted all along the rim.

SPECIES.

* *With the teeth in a straight line.*

tortuosa. 1. Parallelopiped, distorted, with unequal valves and sides, deeply striated longitudinally; lesser valve obliquely carinated. Indian ocean. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 53. f. 524. and 525.

noæ. * 2. *Noah's ark;* oblong, striated, and emarginated at the tip; beaks very remote, bent in; margin gaping. Mediterranean and Atlantic seas, Cornwall. Don. t. 158. f. 1. and 2.

barbata. * 3. Oblong, striated, bearded with byssus; beaks approximate; margin closed. Europe and Indian seas. Lough Strangford, Ireland. Chem. vii. p. 186. t. 54. f. 535.

imbricata. 4. Ovate, rhomboidal, with decussated striæ, of which the transverse are imbricated and acute; apices recurved and very remote. Jamaica and Ireland. Lister, t. 367. f. 207.

navicularis. 5. Oblong, rhomboidal, compresed in the middle, and longitudinally ribbed; apices incurved, and very remote; margin crenulated at both ends. West Indies. Chem. vi. t. 5. f. 533.

plicata. 6. Rhomboidal, with decussated striæ on the sides, and plaited and angulated at the anterior end; margin crenated, and sinuated. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 204. f. 2008.

candida. 7. Oblong, subrhomboidal, with longitudinal, slightly decussated, crenulated striæ, and intermediate smaller ones towards the anterior end; margin obsoletely toothed. Guinea. Lister, t. 229. f. 64.

lacerata. 8. Transversely subovate, depressed, with longitudinal decussated striæ, alternately larger; margins crenulated and closed. East Indies. Chem. vii. t. 54. f. 536. and 537.

bicolorata 9. Transversely oval, tumid, with decussated striæ; summits approximated and recurved. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 204. f. 2007.

modiolus. 10. Oblong, striated, anteriorly angular; posterior slope incurved. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 365. f. 205.

pella. 11. Ovate, pellucid, substriated; anterior slope beaked, prominent; hinge ciliar. Mediterranean. Chem. vii. t. 55. f. 546.

nivea. 12. Ovate, with decussated striæ, snowy, and covered with russet brown epidermis; margin gaping. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 54. f. 538.

lævigata. 13. Pellucid, brittle, round at each end, obsoletely striated; teeth of the hinge very sharp. Nicobar islands. Ency. Method. t. 309. f. 8.

cancellata 14. With cancellated striæ, and bearded; margin gaping in the middle. American ocean. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 2.

fusca. 15. Transversely ovate, with longitudinal granulated striæ; summits approximated; margins nearly entire and closed. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 231. f. 65.

rhombea. 16. Entirely white, rhomboid, heart-shaped, and ribbed; anterior and dorsal ribs knotty; beaks remote. Indian and American oceans. Chem. vii. t. 56. f. 553. a.

* *lactea.* 17. With a rhomboidal, yellowish white shell, and obsolete, decussated striæ; size of a horse bean. European seas, Devonshire. Don. t. 135.

antiquata. 18. Obliquely heart-shaped, with numerous unarmed grooves. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 230. f. 64. a.

senilis. 19. Obliquely heart-shaped, smooth, with grooves; margin plaited; 3 inches long, 4 broad. America, Africa. Lister, t. 238. f. 72.

granosa. 20. Slightly heart-shaped, with muricated grooves; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. American and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 241. f. 78.

corbula. 21. Ovate compressed; with perpendicular knotty striæ; beaks obtuse, approximate. Nicobar islands. Lister, t. 234. f. 68.

concamerata. 22. Ventricose; striæ decussated; anterior slope heart-shaped; 2 inches long, and 3 broad. Nicobar islands. Chem. vii. t. 53. f. 526. and 527.

magellanica. 23. Rounded on each side; chesnut, and marked with decussated striæ; external margin inflected, and repand in the middle; beaks approximate. Straits of Magellan. Chem. vii. t. 53. f. 539.

reticulata. 24. Rhomboidal, white, with decussated striæ; beaks approximate; anterior slope heart-shaped. West Indies. Chem. vii. t. 54. f. 541.

complanata. 25. Pellucid, rhomboid, with decussated striæ; fore-part produced; hind-part truncated. American ocean and African shores. Chem. vii. t. 55. f. 544. and 555.

indica. 26. Inequivalve, ovate, with flat, longitudinal striæ and deep grooves; anterior slope heart-shaped; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 232. f. 66.

senegalensis. 27. Ovate, longitudinally grooved, with slight transverse wrinkles; white; 8 lines long, 10 broad. Africa. Adanson, t. 18. f. 6.

** *With the teeth in a curved line.*

campeachiensis. 28. Ovate, with broad, crenated, or scaly perpendicular striæ; hinge arched. Campeachy bay and Barbadoes, Lister, t. 237. f. 71.

undata. 29. Lenticular, without ears, smooth, with a plaited margin; 2 inches long, 2 broad. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 57. f. 560.

pectunculus. 30. Lenticular, slightly eared, with slightly imbricated grooves; margin plaited; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and something broader. American ocean and Red sea. Lister, t. 239. f. 73.

31. Lenticular

pectinata. 31. Lenticular, without ears, with smooth longitudinal striæ. American ocean. Lister, t. 243. f. 74.

decussata. 32. Lenticular, with longitudinal striæ, crossed by faint, transverse ones; anterior slope closed. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 57. f. 561.

æquilatera. 33. Lenticular, nearly equilateral, perpendicularly striated without and within; white, with chesnut spots. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 57. f. 562.

pallens. 34. Lenticular, a little oblique, with decussated striæ; anterior slope, with a very narrow vent. Indian and American oceans. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 1.

angulosa. 35. Ventricose, with longitudinal striæ and lines; and angular on one side; beaks approximate; hinge arched; brown with a few spots. Shores of Africa and American ocean. Lister, t. 245. f. 76.

glycymeris. * 36. Suborbicular, gibbous, and faintly striated transversely. European and Indian seas. Cornwall. Chem. vii. t. 57. f. 564.

pilosa. * 37. Suborbicular, equilateral, hairy; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $2\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Asiatic and American seas. Britain. Don. t. 37.

stellata. 38. Orbicular, with minute decussated striæ; summits curved obliquely, and stellated; margin crenulated. Coasts of Portugal. Adanson, t. 18. f. 10.

scripta. 39. Suborbicular; convex, with decussated striæ, and transverse zig-zag lines; summits curved obliquely; margin crenated. St Domingo. Lister, t. 246. f. 80.

nummaria 40. Roundish, smooth, slightly eared, and transversely striated; summits incurved, margin crenulated. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 239. f. 81.

multistriata. 41. Ovate, suborbicular, rather compressed, with crowded longitudinal and minute transverse striæ; margin very entire. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 58. f. 573.

*** *With the teeth in a broken line.*

nucleus. * 42. Obliquely ovate, smoothish, with a triangular hinge; size of a hazel nut. European seas. It is sometimes found fossil. Shores of Britain. Don. t. 63.

rostrata. 43. Convex, with transverse striæ; hind-part rounded, fore-part extended into an acute beak; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $1\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Baltic and Norway seas. Ency. Method. t. 309. f. 7.

minuta. * 44. A little compressed, transversely striated, tapering at the remoter end, and rounded at the opposite ones; $2\frac{1}{2}$ lines long, and 4 broad. Greenland seas. Sandwich and Newhaven. Don. t. 78.

tenuis. * 45. Somewhat heart-shaped, smooth; umbones small, with the summits slightly inflected, and placed near to one end; margin entire. Dunbar and Leith. Montagu, t. 29. f. 1.

37 Ostrea.

Gen. 14. Ostrea, *Oyster.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a tethys; the shell bivalve, generally with unequal valves, and slightly eared; hinge without teeth, but furnished with an ovate hollow, and mostly lateral, transverse grooves.

Species.

* *Valves with auricles equal.* Scallops.

maxima. * 1. With 14 or 15 rounded ribs, longitudinally grooved, with fine transverse striæ; 5 inches long, $5\frac{1}{2}$ broad; ears large, with decussated striæ; lower valve convex, white, often varied with red bands or spots; upper valve flat, reddish. Found in large beds in most European seas, where they are dredged up, pickled, and barrelled for sale. It is said, that the greatest quantity is taken after a fall of snow. This is the shell worn formerly by pilgrims on the hat or coat, as a mark that they had crossed the sea for the purpose of paying their devotion to the Holy Land; in commemoration of this it is still preserved in the arms of many families. Donovan, t. 49.

* 2. With about 14 angular and longitudinally striated rays; upper valves flat, with rounded rays, which are finely striated transversely; lower valve with angular rays, which are striated longitudinally. Ears concave and smooth on the upper side. European seas. Dorsetshire, but rare. Don. t. 137. *jacobæa.*

3. With 18 flattened rays; ears finely wrinkled; lower valve convex; rays finely striated transversely; upper valve flat, with about twice as many angular lines as there are rays. American ocean. Lister, t. 168. f. 5. *zic-zac.*

4. With 16 faint rays, and transverse membranaceous striæ; margin very entire; valves nearly equally flat. Indian ocean. *striatula.*

5. With 20 convex rays; lower valve white and very convex; upper valve white, clouded with brown, flatter and plaited. Indian ocean. *minuta.*

6. Equivalve, with 12 doubled rays, and smooth on the outside; $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, gaping at each end. Indian ocean. Chem. vii. t. 61. f. 595. *pleuronectes.*

7. Equivalve, a little convex, margined with yellow; upper valve with faint lines crossing transverse concentric bands, and 48 elevated striæ within; $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, about the same breadth. Guinea and Japan. Chem. vii. t. 62. f. 596. *japonica.*

8. Equivalve, glabrous, with oblong crowded striæ; upper valve more convex, lower flatter than in most others. Straits of Magellan. Chem. vii. t. 62. f. 597. *magellanica.*

9. With 9 or 10 rays; the interstices longitudinally striated; margin repand within. Norway seas. Chem. vii. t. 63. f. 601. and 602. *hybrida.*

10. Nearly equivalve; with 12 convex rays crossed by crenated striæ; $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 175. f. 12. *radula.*

11. Equivalve, flattish, with 9 unequal rays, imbricated with scales. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 69. f. G. *imbricata.*

12. Nearly equivalve, with 16 convex smoothish rays, and striated across; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long, 1 inch broad. India. Chem. vii. t. 62. f. 598. *plica.*

13. Somewhat wedge-shaped, with six convex ribs and longitudinal striæ; auricles small and unequal. Lister, t. 171. f. 8. *pes lutra.*

** *Valves with the auricles equal.*

14. *Ducal mantle.* Equivalve, with 12 convex rays, striated, rough, and imbricated with scales; red, varied with brown and white; ears striated, crenated or scaly. India. Lister, t. 187. f. 25. *pallium.*

15. Equivalve, with 9 thick obtuse rays; interstices longitudinally striated, tuberculated and prickly. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 64. f. 608. *sanguinolenta.*

16. With about 20 angulated ribs, and slightly imbricated transverse striæ. Knorr. i. t. 19. f. 2. *palliata.*

17. With

nodosa. 17. With 9 rays, covered with apparently vesicular tubercles. American and African oceans. Lister, t. 174. f. 11.

pes felis. 18. With 9 striated rough rays; one of the ears very small. African seas. Chem. vii. t. 64. f. 612.

pellucens. 19. Nearly equivalve, with 9 rays; smooth, with spoon-like hemispherical scales on the lower valve; minute, pellucid; upper valve spotted with red. African seas. Lister, t. 184. f. 21.

obliterata. 20. Smooth on the outside, with 24 doubled rays. Indian ocean. Chem. vii. t. 66. f. 622. to 624.

sulcata. 21. Suborbicular, compressed; with about 11 prominent, convex, transversely scaly ribs, and striated longitudinally. Chem. vii. t. 65. f. 614.

senatoria. 22. With about 22 rounded, transversely wrinkled ribs; and granulated striæ in the interstices; valves equal. Molucca islands. Chem. vii. t. 65. f. 617.

exotica. 23. Suborbicular, slender, and smooth; margin acute and entire. Chem. xi. t. 207. f. 2037. and 2038.

sanguinea 24. Equivalve, with 22 rays; ears small; 2 inches long, $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Chem. vii. t. 66. f. 628.

varia. * 25. Equivalve; rays about 30; compressed, and beset with transverse, prickly scales; one ear very small; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, 2 broad. European seas, coasts of Britain. Don. t. 1. f. 1.

pusio. 26. Equivalve, rays about 40, filiform; surface often irregular or distorted; 2 inches long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. European and American seas. Chem. vii. t. 67. f. 635.

sinuosa. * 27. Ovate, irregularly tumid; with about 45 unequal filiform ribs, and the auricles nearly equal. Britain. Don. t. 34.

muricata. 28. Subovate, with numerous muricated filiform ribs, and the auricles nearly equal.

obsoleta. * 29. Equivalve, semi-transparent, smooth; dark purple; with 8 nearly obsolete rays; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. British coasts. Don. t. 1. f. 2.

levis. * 30. Smooth; ears red; $\frac{5}{8}$ inch long. Anglesea, Falmouth. Montagu, t. 4. f. 4.

solaris. 31. Orbicular, flattish, glabrous; with 20 convex rays, and intermediate longitudinal striæ; ears nearly equal. Adriatic. Chem. vii. t. 67. f. 638. to 640.

glabra. 32. Ears nearly equal, equivalve, smooth, with from 10 to 15 smooth flattish rays; inside with elevated double striæ; 2 inches long, 2 broad. European and American seas. Chem. vii. t. 67. f. 641. to 645.

proteus. 33. Suborbicular, with about 5 broad convex plaits, and numerous longitudinal striæ; auricles nearly equal. Mediterranean. Chem. xi. t. 207. f. 2042.

opercularis. * 34. Rays 20; roundish and rough, with decussated striæ; upper valve a little more convex; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter. North seas, Devonshire and Cornwall, where it is called *frill* or *queen*. Don. t. 12.

lineata. * 35. Suborbicular, with about 20 subcarinated ribs, and crowded decussated striæ; upper valve more convex than the lower. Britain, and coast of France. Don. t. 116.

nucleus. 36. With 20 rounded rays; interstices finely wrinkled; margin repand; upper valve more convex. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 179. f. 16.

gibba. 37. Equivalve, gibbous, with 20 glabrous rays, longitudinally striated; slightly wrinkled transversely; smaller auricle oblique. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 65. f. 619. and 620.

sulcata. 38. White, with flesh-coloured spots; rays glabrous, 32 on the lower valve, 35 on the upper; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Malabar. Chem. vii. t. 63. f. 603. and 604.

cinnabarina. * 39. Orbicular, with purple circles, and about 100 rays; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $3\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Mediterranean, Britain. The fish of this species is employed as food. Lister, t. 1057. f. 4.

triradiata. 40. Equivalve, glabrous, immaculate, with minute striæ; upper valve with 3 rays. Norway seas. Chem. xi. t. 207. f. 2043.

fuci. 41. Nearly equivalve, striated, spotted, rough towards the margin. Found on the fucus saccharinus in the North sea. Chem. xi. t. 207. f. 2039.

tigrina. 42. Nearly equivalve, striated, glabrous, red, with whitish spots. On fuci in the North seas. Chem. vii. t. 207. f. 2031.

turgida. 43. Equally convex, both sides with 20 glabrous rays; interstices with transverse, crowded wrinkles; margin with plaited teeth. Indian and American seas. Lister, t. 169. f. 6.

porphyria. 44. Convex, purple; within, white or red, with 25 thick, rounded, scaly rays; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 66. f. 632.

vitrea. 45. Hyaline, with an acute margin, very slender rays, and concentric scaly curves. North seas. Chem. vii. t. 67. f. 637. a.

pyxidata. 46. Suborbicular, with about 30 smooth ribs; upper valve flattish; margin plaited. Malabar. Chem. vii. t. 63. f. 603. and 4.

sauciata. 47. White, with purple spots, and numerous unequal rays; margin crenated. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 69. f. H.

citrina. 48. Orange, with 22 rounded rays, and plaited margin; lower valve flatter. India. Chem. vii. t. 65. f. 618.

*** *Valves more gibbous on one side than on the other.*

flavicans. 49. Nearly equivalve, with 8 striated rays; margin rounded on one side. South sea.

fasciata. 50. Equivalve, with 20 rough rays; interstices striated; ears equal, small. Atlantic seas. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 649. a.

bullata. 51. Convex on each side; closed, oblong, pellucid; 32 rays; twice as long as it is broad. A rare shell. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 649. b.

fragilis. 52. Equivalve, with 25 rays; margin very entire; ears acute; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Nicobar islands. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 650.

lima. 53. Equivalve, with 22 imbricated scaly rays, rounded at one margin; ears obliterated; 3 inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 657.

glacialis. 54. With 50 imbricated, interrupted rays; ears equal; one of them unequally plaited. American ocean. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 652.

hians. 55. Whitish, thin, gaping on each side, and oblique, with obsolete, undulated rays, and transverse, rounded, semilunar striæ; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, $\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Norway. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 4.

scabra. 56. Ovate, compressed, with about 50 narrow scaly ribs, and the scales vaulted and imbricated; hinge slightly oblique; margin crenated. W. Indies. Lister, t. 176. f. 13.

excavata. 57. Dirty white, with longitudinal, undulated striæ, and a few transverse rings; one ear obsolete; margin entire;

entire; 5 inches long, $3\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Norway. Chem. vii. t. 68. f. 654.

**** *Valves coarse and rugged.* OYSTERS.

malleus. 58. Equivalve, 3-lobed, two of them placed transversely like the head of a hammer; 6 inches long, and $4\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Deep parts of the Indian and Southern oceans. Very rare. Chem. viii. t. 70. f. 655. and 656.

regula. 59. Subpellucid, narrow, elongated, lamellated; one end rounded; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, 1 broad. Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 70. f. 657.

figurata. 60. Pellucid, lamellated, and laterally incurved; 1 inch broad, and including the curvature, 3 inches long. Nicobar islands. Chem. viii. t. 70. f. 658.

sinensis. 61. Rough, lamellated, unequal, and glabrous within; lower valve large; 4 inches long. Chinese shores. Chem. viii. t. 72. f. 668.

folium. 62. Ovate, obtusely plaited at the sides; parasitical; found adhering to gorgonia in the Indian ocean. Chem. viii. t. 71. f. 662. to 666.

orbicularis 63. Orbicular, flat, with an entire crenated margin; size of the end joint of the thumb. Chem. viii. t. 74. f. 680.

edulis. 64. *Eatable or common oyster;* orbicular and rugged, with undulated, imbricated scales; one valve flat, and very entire. European and Indian seas. Pennant. iv. t. 62. f. 70.—It is found, either in large beds, or adhering to rocks. The shell is of various sizes, forms, and colours; within white, and often glossy, and of a pearly appearance. The old shells have often an anomia fixed to them, and they are frequently covered with the serpula and lepas, and the sertularia and other zoophytes.

38 Oysters employed as food.

The common oyster has been long known as a nutritious food, and indeed in most countries is greatly esteemed as a delicate luxury of the table. The oyster is supposed by naturalists to be a hermaphrodite animal. The spawn which they cast in May, adheres to the rocks and other substances at the bottom of the sea; and the shell, it is supposed, is formed in the space of 24 hours, and which, according to some, never leaves the spot till removed by violence. But from the observations of M. Dicquemare, who has particularly studied the economy of the oyster, it appears that it possesses the power of moving from place to place, and that it varies its habits according to circumstances. Oysters which are recently taken up from places which are left dry by the sea, open their shell, lose their water, and die in a few days. But the same oysters kept in reservoirs, where they are left occasionally by the sea, exposed to the rays of the sun, to severe cold, or are disturbed in their beds, acquire the habit of keeping the shell close when they are uncovered with water, and exist without injury from this treatment for a long time. The oyster should be fresh, tender, and moist. Those which are most esteemed are caught at the mouths of rivers, and in clear water. The want of fresh water, it is said, renders oysters hard, bitter, and unpalatable. Mud and sea weeds are extremely injurious to the propagation and increase of the oyster. Other shell fish, and crustaceous animals, as mussels, scallops, star-fish and crabs, are their most destructive enemies.

39 Of different kinds.

Oysters are of different colours in different places: in Spain they are found of a red and russet colour; in Illyria brown, with the fish black, and in the Red sea, of the colour of the iris. The green oyster, which is eaten in Paris, is brought from Dieppe. This colour is ascribed to the verdure which encompasses the bed on which they are produced. The oysters from Britanny in France, too, have been long famous; but those which are brought from Marennes in Saintogne, are in highest estimation. The oysters which are edged with a small brown fringe or beard, are generally preferred. These are accounted by the epicures *fecundated oysters.*

40 Adhere to trees in warm climates.

In tropical regions, the common oyster is found attached to trees. This assertion of the growth of oysters on trees has been often ranked among the exaggerated or groundless stories of the marvellous traveller; but this circumstance, when properly explained, will not appear different from the usual economy of this testaceous animal. In warm climates, where vegetation is so much more luxuriant than in northern latitudes, a great variety of plants, among which are seen large trees, grow on the shores to the very edge of the sea; and particularly on those places which are sheltered from the agitation of the waves. In such places, at the heads of bays and harbours, great abundance of mangrove trees grow up from the bottom, where it is several feet deep, covered with water. It is generally on the mangrove tree that the oyster is found in the West Indies. Without the trouble of picking them from the trees, the branches growing under water to which they are attached, are cut off, carried home in baskets, and in this state brought to table, where they are either eaten raw, or roasted, as the European oyster. We have eaten oysters which were produced in this way, in the Lagoons at the head of Port Morant harbour in Jamaica, a few minutes after they were taken from the water. They were of a small size, but extremely delicate and high flavoured.

Britain has been noted for oysters from the time of Juvenal, who, satirizing Montanus an epicure, says,

> ———*Circæis nata forent, an*
> *Lucrinum ad saxum, Rutupinove edita fundo,*
> *Ostrea, callebat primo deprendere morsu.*

> He, whether Circe's rock his oysters bore,
> Or Lucrine lake, or distant Richborough's shore,
> Knew at first taste.

The luxurious Romans were very fond of this fish, and had their layers or stews for oysters as we have at present. Sergius Orata was the first inventor, as early as the time of L. Crassus the orator. He did not make them for the sake of indulging his appetite, but through avarice, and made great profits from them. Orata got great credit for his Lucrine oysters; for, says Pliny, the British were not then known.

Pennant's Brit. Zool. vol. iv. p. 102.

The ancients ate them raw, having them carried up unopened, and generally eating them at the beginning of the entertainment, but sometimes roasted. They also stewed them with mallows and ducks, or with fish.

41 Oysters of Britain.

Britain still retains its superiority in oysters over other countries. Most of our coasts produce them naturally; and in such places they are taken by dredging, and are become an article of commerce, both

raw and pickled. The shells calcined are employed in medicine as an absorbent, and in common with other shells, prove an excellent manure.

Stews or layers of oysters are formed in places which nature never allotted as habitations for them. Those near Colchester have been long famous; at present there are others that at least rival the former, near the mouth of the Thames. The oysters, or their spats, are brought to convenient places, where they improve in taste and size. It is an error to suppose, that the fine green observed in oysters taken from artificial beds, is owing to copper; this substance, or the solution of it, is destructive to all fish. The following is the account of the whole treatment of oysters, from Bishop Sprat's History of the Royal Society, from p. 307 to 309.

"In the month of May the oysters cast their spawn, (which the dredgers call their *spats*): it is like to a drop of candle, and about the bigness of a halfpenny. The spat cleaves to stones, old oyster-shells, pieces of wood, and such like things, at the bottom of the sea, which they call *cultch*. It is probably conjectured, that the spat in 24 hours begins to have a shell. In the month of May, the dredgers (by the law of the admiralty court), have liberty to catch all manner of oysters, of what size soever. When they have taken them, with a knife they gently raise the small brood from the cultch, and then they throw the cultch in again, to preserve the ground for the future, unless they be so newly spat, that they cannot be safely severed from the cultch; in that case they are permitted to take the stone or shell, &c. that the spat is upon, one shell having many times twenty spats. After the month of May, it is felony to carry away the cultch, and punishable to take any other oysters, unless it be those of size, (that is to say) about the bigness of a half-crown piece, or when, the two shells being shut, a fair shilling will rattle between them.

"The places where these oysters are chiefly catched, are called the *Pent-Burnham*, *Malden*, and *Colne-waters*; the latter taking its name from the river of Colne, which passeth by Colchester, gives name to that town, and runs into a creek of the sea, at a place called the *Hythe*, being the suburbs of the town. This brood and other oysters they carry to the creeks of the sea, at Bricklesea, Mersy, Langno, Fingrego, Wivenho, Tolesbury, and Saltcoase, and there throw them into the channel, which they call their *beds* or *layers*, where they grow and fatten; and in two or three years the smallest brood will be oysters of the size aforesaid. Those oysters which they would have green, they put into pits about three feet deep in the salt marshes, which are overflowed only at spring-tides, to which they have sluices, and let out the salt water until it is about a foot and a half deep. These pits, from some quality in the soil co-operating with the heat of the sun, will become green, and communicate their colour to the oysters that are put into them in four or five days, though they commonly let them continue there six weeks or two months, in which time they will be of a dark green. To prove that the sun operates in the greening, Tolesbury pits will green only in summer; but that the earth hath the greater power, Bricklesea pits green both winter and summer: and for a further proof, a pit within a foot of a greening pit will not green; and those that did green very well, will in time lose their quality. The oysters, when the tide comes in, lie with their hollow shell downwards; and when it goes out, they turn on the other side; they remove not far from their place, unless in cold weather, to cover themselves in the oose. The reason of the scarcity of oysters, and consequently of their dearness, is, because they are of late years bought up by the Dutch.

"There are great penalties by the admiralty court laid upon those that fish out of those grounds which the court appoints, or that destroy the cultch, or that take any oysters that are not of size, or that do not tread under their feet, or throw upon the shore, a fish which they call a *five-finger*, resembling a spur-rowl, because that fish gets into the oysters when they gape, and sucks them out.

"The reason that such a penalty is set upon any that shall destroy the cultch is, because they find that if that be taken away, the oose will increase, and the muscles and cockles will breed there, and destroy the oysters, they having not whereon to stick their spat.

"The oysters are sick after they have spat; but in June and July they begin to mend, and in August they are perfectly well; the male oyster is black-sick, having a black substance in the fin; the female white-sick (as they term it), having a milky substance in the fin. They are salt in the pits, salt in the layers, but saltest at sea."

42 Liquid about the oyster seen with the microscope.

The oyster affords the curious in microscopic observations a very pleasing entertainment. In the clear liquor many little round living animalcules have been found, whose bodies being conjoined, form spherical figures, with tails, not changing their place otherwise than by sinking to the bottom, as being heavier than the fluid; these have been seen frequently separating, and then coming together again. In other oysters, animalcules of the same kind were found, not conjoined, but swimming by one another, whence they seemed in a more perfect state, and were judged by Mr Leeuwenhoek to be the animalcules in the roe or semen of the oyster.

A female oyster being opened, incredible multitudes of small embryo oysters were seen, covered with little shells, perfectly transparent, and swimming along slowly in the liquor; and in another female, the young ones were found of a browner colour, and without any appearance of life or motion.

Monsieur Joblot also kept the water running from oysters three days, and it appeared full of young oysters swimming about nimbly in it; these increased in size daily; but a mixture of wine, or the vapour of vinegar, killed them.

In the month of August oysters are supposed to breed, because young ones are then found in them. Mr Leeuwenhoek, on the 4th of August, opened an oyster, and took out of it a prodigious number of minute oysters, all alive, and swimming nimbly about in the liquor, by means of certain exceeding small organs, extending a little way beyond their shells; and these he calls their beards. In these little oysters, he could discover the joinings of the shells; and perceived that there were

were some dead ones, with their shells gaping. These, though so extremely minute, are seen to be as like the large oysters in form as one egg is to another.

As to the size of them, he computes, that 120 of them in a row would extend an inch; and consequently, that a globular body, whose diameter is an inch, would, if they were also round, be equal to 1,728,000 of them. He reckons 3000 or 4000 are in one oyster, and found many of the embryo oysters among the bairds; some fastened thereto by slender filaments, and others lying loose: he likewise found animalcules in the liquor 500 times less than the embryo oysters.

It is not uncommon to see on oyster-shells, when in a dark place, a shining matter or bluish light, which sticks to the fingers when touched, and continues shining and giving light for a considerable time, though without any sensible heat. This shining matter being examined with a microscope, is said to consist of three sorts of animalcules; but it is more probable that it is the phosphorescent light which separates from animal matters, particularly fish, in the incipient stage of the putrefactive process.

orientalis. 65. Parasitical, ovate, yellowish brown, with black rays, and one valve much flatter than the other. East Indies. Chem. viii. t. 71. f. 660.

fornicata. 66. Rough, oblong, linear, with divergent hinges; internally vaulted. Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 71. f. 667.

orbicularis. 67. Orbicular, flattish, parasitical, longitudinally plaited, and transversely wrinkled towards the margin; margin obtuse, and somewhat toothed at the hinge.

denticulata. 68. Suborbicular, with strong, transverse, imbricated wrinkles, and somewhat truncated at the hinge, on both sides of which the margin is toothed. Cape of Good Hope. Lister, t. 193 and 194.

spondyloidea. 69. Equivalve, pellucid, flattened, oval, with perpendicular, undulated striæ on the upper valve; three inches long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. India. Chem. viii. t. 72. f. 669.

forskalli. 70. Plaited, and terminating in a long, incurved, hollow beak; middle ribs with imbricated, spinous wrinkles; 2 inches long, and 1 broad. Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 72. f. 671.

plicata. 71. With longitudinal, wrinkled plaits; lower valve smaller and flatter; varies much in shape and size. American and Mediterranean seas. Chem. viii. t. 73. f. 674.

rostrata. 72. Oblong, rugged; upper valve lamellated, with a denticulated margin; the lower excavated, and longitudinally grooved. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 75. f. 676.

virginica. 73. Nearly equivalve, thick, rough, lamellous; one valve with a prominent beak; 9 inches long, and 4 broad. American and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 200. f. 34.

cucullata. 74. Upper valve flat, lower one hollow and striated; rough with scales, wrinkles and plaits, and terminating in an elongated beak. Indian and African oceans. Chem. viii. t. 74. f. 679.

arborea. 75. Thin; lower valve convex and thicker; the other flat. Atlantic and Indian seas.—This species, like the common oyster, fixes itself to the roots and branches of trees, particularly the mangrove, which grow out of the water. It varies in form and size, and is often as large as the palm of the hand, Chem. viii. t. 74. f. 681.

cristata. 76. Rugged, with imbricated lamellæ; margin with obtusely plaited teeth; 1 inch long. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 7.

senegalensis. 77. Equivalve, roundish, smooth, flat; 2 inches diameter. Shores of Senegal. Adanson, t. 14. f. 5.

ovalis. 78. Oval, thin, terminating in a short, acute, lateral, channelled beak; striæ perpendicular, unequal, obsolete; 1 inch long. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 8.

**** *With the hinge composed of transverse furrows, in a straight line.*

semiaurita 79. Oval, slightly eared, smooth, with an oblique base; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ broad. Mediterranean. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 6.

perna. 80. Equivalve, obovate, unequal, rounder at one end; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; has some resemblance to a gammon of bacon. Indian and American seas. Lister, t. 199. f. 33.

isogonum. 81. Equivalve, with a larger lobe, forming a right angle with the hinge; from 5 to 7 inches long, and $1\frac{3}{4}$ broad in the middle; shell blackish, violet without, pearly within. Indian ocean and South seas. Is a rare shell. Chem. vii. t. 59. f. 584.

picta. 82. Equivalve, thin, pellucid, and pointed at the hinge; the other end dilated; margin acute; 2 inches long, more than an inch broad. Red sea. Chem. vii. t. 51. f. 575.

legumen. 83. Flat, hoary, thin, pellucid, lamellated; interstices of the grooves black; 2 inches long, 4 lines broad. Nicobar islands. Chem. vii. t. 59. f. 578.

ephippium 84. Equivalve, orbicular, compressed, membranaceous; 5 inches long, $5\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Indian ocean and Cape of Good Hope. Very rare. Chem. vii. t. 58. f. 576.

alata. 85. Flat, brittle, pellucid; dilated towards the margin; hinge oblique. W. Indies. Chem. vii. t. 58. f. 575.

Gen. 15. Anomia. 43 Anomia.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a ligula or strap-shaped body, emarginated and ciliated; the bristles being fixed to the upper valve. There are two linear arms, longer than the body, open, stretched out, alternate on the valve, ciliated on both sides; the hairs are fixed to both valves. The shell is inequivalve; one valve being rather flat, the other more gibbous at the base, with a produced beak, generally curved over the hinge; one of the valves is often perforated at the base; the hinge is without teeth. A small linear scar appears prominent, with a lateral tooth placed within; but on the very margin of the flat valve. There are two bony rays for the base of the animal.

Species.

craniolaris. 1. Orbicular; the gibbous valve conico-convex, flat valve with three hollows at the base; 1 inch long, $\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Mediterranean seas and Philippine islands. It is sometimes found fossil. Chem. viii. t. 76. f. 688.

pectinata. 2. Oblong, with branched grooves; the gibbous valve

valve with two hollows behind; an inch long, $\frac{3}{4}$ broad; flat valve perforated. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 76. f. 689 and 690.

ephippium * 3. Roundish, pellucid, with wrinkled plates; flat valve perforated; diameter sometimes $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches, most frequently about two. European and American seas, shores of Britain.—It is often found adhering to the common oyster. Mr Montagu thus accounts for the perforation in these shells. The testaceous plug, he observes, by which the animal fixes itself to other bodies, is firmly attached by strong ligaments to these bodies, and so closely cemented, that they become inseparable. When, therefore, the shell is torn from its native place, the plug is left behind upon the stone or other shell to which it adhered. Don. t. 26.

cepa. * 4. Obovate, unequal, violet; upper valve convex; lower perforated. European and American seas, shores of Britain. Chem. viii. t. 76. f. 694 and 695.

electrica. 5. Roundish, yellow, smooth; one valve convex and gibbous; very thin. Coasts of Africa. Lister, t. 205. f. 39.

squamula. * 6. Small, orbicular, entire, thin like the scale of a fish. European seas, Britain. Chem. viii. t. 76. f. 696.

patelliformis. 7. Ovate, convex, subdiaphanous, striated; posterior beak recurved and smooth. North seas. Chem. viii. t. 77. f. 700.

scobinata. 8. Roundish, smooth, and rough within; beak perforated. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 706.

aurita. 9. Subovate, striated, and slightly eared; beak perforated. Norway seas. Gualteri, t. 96. f. B.

retusa. 10. Obovate, striated, retuse, with a longitudinal cavity; beak perforated. Norway seas, adhering to zoophytes.

truncata. 11. Suborbicular, obsoletely striated; hinge truncated. European seas. Chem. viii. t. 77. f. 701.

pubescens. 12. Obovate, grooved; beak of one valve prominent, the other gaping; about the size of a cucumber seed, covered with small, erect, distant hairs. Norway seas. Gualteri, t. 9. f. C.

caput-serpentis. 13. Obovate, striated, downy; one valve with a longer perforated beak. Norway seas. It is generally found adhering to the madrepora prolifera. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 712.

terebratula. 14. Obovate, smooth, convex; one valve with three plaits; the other with two; the beak of one valve prominent and perforated. Found frequently in a fossil state. Knorr. iv. t. 30. f. 4.

placenta. 15. Orbicular, flat, pellucid; hinge with two linear callosities growing within the shell; 5 inches diameter. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 225. f. 60.

cella. 16. Nearly quadrangular, convex, and almost closed; bronzed; margin repand; 7 inches diameter. Indian ocean. Chem. viii. t. 79. f. 715.

aculeata. 17. Roundish, prickly; crown smooth and recurved behind; lower valve flat, smooth, and perforated at the crown. Norway seas. Chem. viii. t. 77. f. 702.

muricata. 18. Hyaline, ventricose; crown bent towards the right; upper valve longitudinally striated; lower valve flat, very thin, and the circumference of the perforation elevated. Guinea. Chem. viii. vig. p. 65. f. A. to D.

squama. 19. Oblong, with a rounded margin; one valve flat, thin, smooth, with a large ovate perforation at the tip; the other convex, and longitudinally striated. Seas of Norway. Chem. viii. t. 77. f. 697.

20. Orbicular, hyaline, thin, punctured; flat valve perforated at the tip; small, brittle. Ferro islands. Chem. t. 77. f. 698. *punctata.*

* 21. Margin crenated; flat valve thin and smooth, with a large oval perforation; convex valve with transverse arched striæ, crossing undulated longitudinal ones. Mediterranean, North seas, Devonshire. Don. t. 45. *undulata.*

22. Longitudinally striated, a little truncated; with a rounded notched margin. C. of G. Hope. Chem. viii. t. 77. f. 703. *capensis.*

23. Truncated, orbicular, longitudinally striated; flat valve with three ribs within; other valve longitudinally striated within, and divided by a partition in the middle. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 705. *decollata.*

24. Horny, smooth, and convex on each side; upper valve emarginated, and radiated at the sides, with an elevated sanguineous back. India. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 706. *sanguinea*

25. Smooth, ventricose, finely striated transversely; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch broad, something longer. Norway seas. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 707 to 709. *cranium.*

26. Heart-shaped, solid, with arched transverse ring and wrinkles, and longitudinal striæ and grooves. Magellanic seas.—Is often found fossil. Chem. viii. t. 78. f. 710 and 711. *dorsata.*

27. Horny, and finely striated longitudinally; shorter valve gibbous; longer one flat, with an incurved tip, triangularly perforated; rather large, pellucid. Greenland. Very rare. Lister, t. 212. f. 46. *psittacea.*

28. Yellowish, pellucid, thin, finely striated transversely; tricuspidate with tubular points; valves united. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. vig. 13. f. F. and G. *tridentata.*

29. Very thin, cylindrical, and narrowed outwardly; upper valve gibbous, lower hollow. North seas. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 9. *cylindrica.*

30. Roundish, ovate, longitudinally ribbed, and covered with impressed dots; one summit perforated, and slightly inflected over the other. Leach Zool. Misc. i. t. 33. *cruenta.*

31. Suborbicular, with the upper valve conical-convex, and the apex nearly marginal; lower valve flat, and very thin. Poli, ii. t. 30. f. 15. and 21 to 24. *turbinata.*

Gen. 16. Mytilus, *the Mussel.* 44 Mytilus.

Gen. Char.—The animal is allied to an ascidia; the shell bivalve, rough, generally affixed by a byssus or beard of silky filaments; hinge mostly without teeth, with generally a subulate, excavated, longitudinal line.

Species.

* *Parasitical, affixed by claws.*

1. Plaited, spinous; both lips rough. Indian ocean and Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 75. f. 683. and 684. *cristagalli.*

2. Plaited and imbricated, with broad compressed scales; both lips smooth. Inhabits the ocean, on beds of coral. Indian ocean. Chem. viii. t. 75. f. 685. *hyotis.*

3. Plaited towards the margin, and transversely wrinkled, smoothish; one lip rough. American ocean. *frons.*

** *Flat,*

** *Flat, or compressed into a flattened form, and slightly eared.*

margaritiferus. 4. *Pearl-bearing mussel.* Flattened, nearly orbicular, with a transverse base, imbricated with toothed tunics. American and Indian seas. Lister, t. 221. f. 56.—This species is about 8 inches long, and somewhat broader; the inside is finely polished, and produces the true mother-of-pearl; and frequently also it affords the most valuable pearls. When the outer coat of the shell, which is sometimes sea-green, or chesnut with white rays, or whitish with green rays, is removed, it exhibits the same pearly lustre as the inside; the younger shells have ears as long as the shell, and resemble scallops.

radiatus. 5. Roundish, with transverse membranaceous scales, forming spinous processes arranged in longitudinal lines. Tranquebar. Chem. viii. t. 80. f. 719.

unguis. 6. Roundish; longitudinally striated, pellucid, and slightly eared. Mediterranean.

*** *Somewhat ventricose or convex.*

lithophagus. 7. Cylindrical; rounded at both ends. European, American, and Indian seas. It is about an inch broad, and 3 long.—It perforates and eats away coral rocks, and even the hardest marbles. Those which are found in Europe have a thin brittle shell: the shell of those found in India is soft, and nearly coriaceous. Chem. viii. t. 82. f. 731.

aristatus. 8. Subcylindrical, rounded at the hinge, and armed at the opposite extremity with two beak-like processes which cross each other. Senegal. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 6. f. 2.

ambiguus. * 9. Oblong, smooth, rounded at both ends, and gaping on one side. Weymouth and Devonshire. Wood, t. 25. f. 2. and 3.

rugosus. * 10. Rhombic, oval, brittle, rugged, antiquated, and rounded at the ends. Seas and lakes, north of Europe. Britain. Don. t. 101.—It is usually found lodged in limestone; each individual in a separate apartment, with apertures too small for the shell to pass through.

præcisus. * 11. Oblong, distorted, with the valves unequal, and strongly wrinkled transversely; hinge terminal. Britain, adhering to roots of algæ, or burrowed in limestone. Montagu, t. 4. f. 2.

arborescens. 12. Subcylindrical, smooth, compressed at the margin, and marked over one half with minute branching lines. China. Chem. xi. t. 198. f. 2016.

bilocularis 13. Striated, with vaulted knobs, and a white partition. Nicobar islands. Chem. viii. t. 82. f. 736.

exustus. 14. Convex; one of the margins angular; the anterior extremity crenated; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. American ocean and Red sea. Lister, t. 366. f. 206.

striatulus. 15. Very finely striated longitudinally, with the anterior side slightly angulated, and the other incurved; striæ slightly crenated. Northern ocean. Schroeter, iii. t. 9. f. 16.

edulis. * 16. *Eatable* or *common mussel.* Smooth, violet; valves slightly recurved on the obtuse side, and somewhat angular on the acute side; beaks pointed; from 2 to 3 inches long. European and Indian seas. Lister, t. 362. f. 200.—This species is observed to be larger within the tropics, and to diminish gradually towards the north. It is found in large beds, and generally attaches itself to other bodies by means of its long silky beard. The fish is employed as food in many parts of the world, and is esteemed rich and nutritious.

* 17. Very crooked on one side near the beaks, then generally dilated; within with a violet tinge. Coast of Anglesea. Linn. Trans. viii. t. 3. f. 7. *incurvatus.*

* 18. Oval, transparent, and elegantly radiated lengthwise with purple and blue; 2 inches long. Anglesea, in oyster beds. Chem. t. 84. f. 755. *pellucidus.*

19. Smooth, slightly curved; hind margin inflected; hinge terminal, two-toothed. Mediterranean, Cape of Good Hope, and New Zealand. Found at the latter place resembling *M. edulis;* but is 5 inches long, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Lister, t. 360. f. 199. *ungulatus.*

20. Ovate, with the posterior side rather convex, and the apices distant and slightly curved; hinge channelled with a tooth in one valve. N. Holland. Lister, t. 362. f. 201. *latus.*

21. Oblong, smooth, with the sides nearly straight, and the apices acute; hinge with a tooth in each valve, and channelled. Straits of Magellan. Chem. viii. t. 83. f. 738. *perna.*

22. Subtriangular and compressed; hinge with two teeth in one valve, and one in the other. Tranquebar. Chem. viii. t. 83. f. 746. *smaragdinus.*

23. Oblong, longitudinally striated, except on the anterior side next the hinge; summits rounded and approximated. Virginia. Lister, t. 358. f. 196. *demissus.*

* 24. Smooth, blackish, obtuse at the smaller end, and rounded at the other; one side angular, near the beaks; from 6 to 7 inches long, 3 broad. European, American, and Indian seas, Devonshire, Weymouth. Don. t. 23. A variety, with a deep umbilicus under the summit, is not unfrequent on our coasts. Don. t. 40. *modiolus.*

* 25. Ovate, very brittle, transversely wrinkled; anterior end compressed, the other rounded; hinge lateral; from 2 to 5 inches broad, and 3 long. Frequent in the lakes and rivers of Europe, Britain.—It is the largest of British fresh-water shells. It arrives at the greatest size in ponds and stagnant waters. Lister, t. 156. f. 11.—With a suboval shell, of an olivaceous brown colour, with concentric wrinkles; size of the M. *anatinus*, but broader in proportion to its length. The posterior side generally more obtuse and rounded. River Avon in Wiltshire. Montagu, Test. Brit. 172. *Mytilus avonensis.* *cygneus.*

26. Transversely oval, rounded on both sides, and smooth; umbones large and rounded; summits reflected. N. America. About 2 inches long, and 3 broad. Lister, t. 157. f. 12. *fluviatilis.*

27. Oval, flattish, and transversely ribbed; 8 inches broad, $4\frac{1}{2}$ long. In fresh waters. Sowerby, Brit. Misc. t. 16. *stagnalis.*

* 28. Oval, a little compressed; brittle and semi-transparent, with a membranaceous margin. Fresh waters of Europe.—It resembles the last, but is longer and narrower. Ducks and crows, it is said, are extremely fond of both this and the last species. Don. t. 113. *anatinus.*

29. Transversely wrinkled; obtuse at each end; fulvous, *dubius.*

fulvous, within pearly; beaks obsolete; hinge without teeth; 5 inches broad, 2 long. Fresh waters of Senegal. Adanson, t. 17. f. 21.

ruber. 30. Wrinkled; valves oblique and anteriorly dilated. Southern ocean.

discrepens * 31. Transversely ovate, compressed, with the two sides longitudinally ribbed, and plain in the middle. Baltic, and Newhaven near Edinburgh. Montagu, t. 26. f. 4.

discors. * 32. Oval, horny, subdiaphanous; extremities longitudinally striated; middle transversely. European and southern seas, Cornwall and Devonshire. From the South seas it is $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad; in Britain rarely exceeds $\frac{1}{2}$ inch. Don. t. 25.

impactus. 33. Transversely oval, somewhat four-sided, very convex, with the two sides longitudinally ribbed, and the middle transversely wrinkled; inside iridescent. New Zealand. Chem. viii. t. 86. f. 768.

hirundo. 34. Smooth; valves 2-lobed; lobe at the hinge longer and thinner. American, Mediterranean, and Indian seas. Chem. viii. t. 81. f. 722.

morio. 35. Transversely striated, with two lateral lobes, and the epidermis longitudinally undulated, and forming rays from the umbo. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 205. f. 2018.

ala-corva. 36. With two rather obsolete lobes, and marked with minute white dots, forming longitudinal rays. South sea islands. Chem. viii. t. 81. f. 727.

vulgaris. 37. Flattened on one side and inflected; beaks incurved, convergent; hinge 1-toothed. American ocean. Chem. viii. t. 82. f. 732.

plicatus. 38. Rhombic, inequilateral; transversely striated and wrinkled; beaks incurved. Nicobar islands. Chem. viii. t. 92. f. 733.

niveus. 39. Ovate, subdiaphanous; finely striated longitudinally; margin acute; hinge 2-toothed; shell snowy and polished within. Nicobar islands. Very rare. Chem. viii. t. 82. f. 734.

corallophagus. 40. Carinated in the middle, and crenated at the margin, with an obtuse knob; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Indian and American oceans. Perforates rocks like a pholas. Chem. viii. t. 84. f. 752.

lineatus. 41. Triangular and dilated outwards, with angular, decussated, and confluent lines; hinge 2-toothed. A minute shell. Chem. viii. t. 84. f. 753.

fuscus. 42. Oblong, narrow, finely striated transversely; one side emarginated, the other rounded; beaks prominent, curved. A minute brown shell. E. Indies. Lister, t. 359. f. 197.

puniceus. 43. Gibbous, pointed, with 15 grooves; margin toothed; 14 lines long, and half as broad; hinge with 4 minute teeth. Africa. Adanson, t. 15. f. 2.

niger. 44. Flat, thin, with minute grooves, covered with a black skin, under which it is milky, and finely polished; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long; grooves about 100. Africa. Adanson, t. 15. f. 3.

dubius. 45. Transversely wrinkled; obtuse at each end; fulvous, within pearly; beaks obsolete; hinge without teeth; 5 inches broad, 2 long. Fresh waters of Senegal. Adanson, t. 17. f. 21.

lingua. 46. Somewhat tongue-shaped, compressed, very brittle, and the umbones keeled; summits acuminated, and both ends gaping. Amboyna. Chem. x. t. 172. f. 1675. and 1676.

camelli. 47. Oblong, thin, truncated; beak sharp and carinated; valves completely closed. Japan.

bidens. 48. Striated, slightly curved; hind margin inflected; hinge terminal, 2-toothed; scarcely an inch long. Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Lister, t. 356. f. 193.

Gen. 17. Pinna, *Sea-Wing.* 45 Pinna.

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax; the shell bivalve, fragile, upright, gaping at one end, and furnished with a byssus or beard. Hinge without teeth; the valves united into one.

Species.

rudis. 1. Vaulted with arched scales, arranged in rows; from 12 to 16 inches long, and from 4 to 8 broad; red; from 6 to 8 grooves. Atlantic, Indian, and Red seas. Lister, t. 373. f. 214.

nigra. 2. Ovate, ventricose, with the margin rounded on both sides, and striated longitudinally. Amboyna and Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 88. f. 774.

ingens. * 3. Subtriangular, ovate, slightly incurved towards the summit, with irregularly scaly wrinkles, and interrupted longitudinal striæ. Scotland, and Devonshire. Don. t. 152.

pectinata. 4. Longitudinally striated half way; one side slightly wrinkled transversely; 3 inches long, 4 broad. Indian ocean. Chem. viii. t. 87. f. 770.

inflata. 5. Subtriangular, ovate, and slightly keeled longitudinally, with abbreviated ribs on one side, and reticulated wrinkles on the other. Nicobar islands. Chem. viii. t. 87. f. 771.

carnea. * 6. Thin, flesh-coloured, subtriangular; pellucid, with 8 or 10 longitudinal ribs beset sparingly with vaulted spines at the broader end. West Indies, and Dorsetshire. Montagu, t. 5. f. 3.

rigida. 7. Subtriangular, ovate, with about 13 spinous ribs on one side, and the other transversely wrinkled; spines tubular. Curaçoa. Chem. viii. t. 89. f. 775.

nobilis. 8. Striated, with channelled, tubular, subimbricated scales; $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Mediterranean, Adriatic, and American seas. Chem. viii. t. 89. f. 776.

muricata. 9. Striated with concave, ovate, acute scales; from 3 to 9 inches long, and 1 to 3 broad. European and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 370. f. 10.

rotundata. 10. With obsolete scales, margin rounded; sometimes 2 feet long. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 93. f. 787.

squamosa. 11. With fine undulated scales, and flexuous broad wrinkles; smaller end pointed and naked; 13 inches long, $6\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Mediterranean. Chem. viii. t. 92. f. 784.

saccata. 12. Smooth, satchel-shaped; a little erect, and slightly fastigiated; $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, $2\frac{3}{4}$ broad. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 371. f. 212.

digitiformis. 13. Smooth, tubular, finger-shaped, incurved; extreme margin membranaceous; pellucid.

lobata. 14. Naked, lobed, straw-coloured, with purple striæ.

vitrea. 15. Hyaline, with longitudinal waved striæ; the striæ with a few scales, and crossed by other transverse striæ at the margin. Indian ocean. Very rare. Chem. viii. t. 87. f. 772.

incurva. 16. Narrow, long, naked, carinated, with transverse,

verse, undulated wrinkles. Indian ocean. Chem. t. 90. f. 778.

bicolor. 17. Thin, inflected at the lateral margin; yellowish, with black brown rays; thinly striated longitudinally. Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 90. f. 780.

adusta. 18. Flattish, horny, with blackish rays, spots, and clouds; and many smooth striæ. Southern ocean of India. Red sea. Chem. viii. t. 91. f. 782.

vexillum. 19. Truncated at the outer margin; dilated, naked, with a few black clouds; striated longitudinally on the fore-part, and transversely wrinkled behind. India. Very rare. Chem. viii. t. 91. f. 983.

papyracea. 20. Thin, brittle, horny, longitudinally ribbed; extreme margin roundish. Indian ocean. Chem. viii. t. 93. f. 786.

General Observations.—It has been doubted whether the animal which inhabits the pinna be a limax or slug, according to the opinion of Linnæus; and it is even asserted, that it has not the smallest affinity with this animal, but approaches much more nearly to that which belongs to the mytilus. In proof of this, it is said that the pinna possesses no locomotive power, but remains fixed by its byssus or beard to other bodies; and so firmly attached, that it can by no means be disengaged at the will of the animal; for the fibres are strongly agglutinated to the sand, gravel, or other extraneous bodies within reach. Indeed it seems not at all improbable that all testaceous animals, furnished with a similar beard, are intended by this structure to remain attached to the spot where they are orginally produced.

The animal inhabiting the pinna has the power of affixing itself at pleasure to any substance, by throwing out an extensile member, and discharging from its tip a drop of gluten, which by the retraction of the same organ, is formed into a silky filament; and by frequently repeating this operation, a thick tuft is formed, by which the shell is fastened in any situation the animal chooses.

This shell-fish was celebrated among the ancients on account of the cloth which was made of the fine byssus or beard by which it is attached. As a rare and costly production it brought a high price, and was held in great estimation. At the present day even, according to the information of modern travellers, the inhabitants of Palermo and Naples manufacture gloves and stockings from the same substance.

The pinna has obtained a little reputation for the practice of some of the moral virtues, in treating a small species of crab with hospitality and friendship, by receiving it into the shell, and defending it against its enemies. In return for this kindness, the crab, like the jackall with the lion, acts the parts of a provider and monitor, by warning its host of the presence of its prey or of the approach of an enemy. But this friendly intercourse accords ill with the nature of the animals between whom it is practised. The crab, it is far more probable, is a troublesome intruder; and notwithstanding all the service he can repay, is considered as a very unwelcome guest, and is indebted for his lodging to his own activity, and the sluggish nature of his host, rather than to his kindness and hospitality.

III. UNIVALVE SHELLS.

Gen. 18. Argonauta. 46 Argonauta.

Gen. Char.—The animal is a sepia or clio. The shell is univalve, spiral, involute, membranaceous, with a single chamber.

Species.

1. *The paper nautilus.* Keel or ridge of the shell slightly toothed on each side. Lister, t. 556. f. 7. The shell, which is thin as paper, brittle, and transparent, is white or yellowish, with smooth or knotty striæ or ribs, which are sometimes forked; the keel is generally brownish. This shell presents considerable varieties. Sometimes the keel is narrow, and marked with close bifurcated wrinkles; sometimes it has a broad keel with tuberculated ribs; and sometimes a broad tuberculated keel with few and smooth ribs. *argo.*

The singular structure and wonderful economy of this animal very early attracted the attention of naturalists. To its progressive motion on the surface of the ocean, mankind are indebted, it is said, for the first hint of the art of navigation. This is alluded to in the numbers of Pope.

> Learn of the little nautilus to sail,
> Spread the thin oar, and catch the driving gale.

What is the particular organization which enables this animal to rise to the surface or to sink to the bottom at pleasure, seems not to be understood by naturalists; whether it is by throwing out a quantity of water, by which it becomes specifically lighter than the element in which it lives, or by taking in a quantity of air, which will produce the same effect. It is only when the sea is calm and unruffled that the nautilus, with his feeble bark, appears on the surface. In rising through the water, the shell is reversed, the sharp edge of the keel presenting less resistance to the liquid; and when it reaches the surface, the animal, by exerting its arms, restores it to a proper position for its voyage. A quantity of water is taken into the shell to balance it. The animal then employs its arms as oars; or if a gentle breeze sweep the surface, it stretches two of them perpendicularly, by which means the membrane between them is extended in form of a sail; the other arms serve as oars to direct the course, or to keep the bark steady, as well as part of the body which hangs over the shell, and seems to answer for a rudder. Thus equipped, the solitary navigator glides smoothly along the bosom of the ocean. But, on the approach of the smallest danger, the appearance of an enemy, or the slightest ruffling of the surface of the water, it instantly retires within the shell, and taking in a quantity of water, or ejecting a quantity of air, quick as thought it sinks to the bottom. Mediterranean and Indian ocean.

2. With the keel rather broad and bluntly toothed; lateral ridges tubercular. Amboyna. Martini, t. 17. f. 156. *tuberculata.*

3. Keel of the shell toothed in the middle. The shell is conic, transversely ribbed, with a convex keel; *vitrea.*

aperture oval. It is a very rare species. Amboyna. Martini, t. 18. f. 163.

cymbium. 4. Keel of the shell wrinkled, and without teeth; depressed, thin, wrinkled, with fine longitudinal striæ crossing the wrinkles. Mediterranean. Martini, i. t. 18. f. 161. and 162.

cornu. 5. Keel with 4 smooth elevated rings; 1 line high, 5 broad. Cape of Good Hope. Chem. x. t. 137. f. 1271.

arctica. 6. Shell perforated, with an entire keel; 3½ lines diameter. Greenland seas, where it is frequently seen floating in spring and autumn.

hians. 7. With the keel dilating outwards; lateral ridges distant, alternately shorter; aperture dilated. Mexico. Martini, i. t. 17. f. 158. and 159.

gondola. 8. With the keel edged, with compressed teeth; lateral ribs numerous and branched; aperture broad, ovate.

haustrum. 9. With the keel edged, with compressed teeth; lateral ridges smooth and simple; aperture subtriangular. E. Indies. Martini, i. p. 221. f. 2.

Some species of the argonauta are met with in all climates, from the Indian ocean to the shores of Greenland.

47 Nautilus.

Gen. 19. Nautilus.

Gen. Char.—The nature of the animal which inhabits this shell is not well known. The shell is univalve, divided into several compartments, communicating by an aperture with each other.

Species.

* *Spiral, rounded, with contiguous whorls.*

pompilius. 1. Aperture of the shell heart-shaped; whorls obtuse; smooth; spire involuted and concealed. Indian and African ocean. Lister, t. 550. f. 1. and 3.—This species is often very large, and it is finely variegated with brown flexuous streaks, spots, and marks, under the epidermis, which is white; within it exhibits a beautiful pearly gloss. It is employed for drinking cups by the inhabitants of the east.

suborbiculatus. 2. Aperture heart-shaped; whorls obtuse; slightly, obsoletely, striated transversely; spire with an umbilicus, involute, and concealed: very like the preceding species, but may at once be distinguished by the umbilicus. New Guinea. Lister, t. 552. f. 4.

calcar. * 3. Aperture of the shell linear; whorls with elevated joints; minute, white, opaque. Sheppey island. Martini, i. t. 19. f. 169.

rotatus. * 4. Spiral, smooth, keeled; joints six, with the partitions elevated and flexuous; keel entire; aperture semicordate. Rimini and England. Montagu, t. 15. f. 4.

lævigatus. * 5. Spiral, smooth; joints 10, with the partitions slightly elevated; aperture triangular. Kent. Montagu, t. 18. f. 7. and 8.

crispus. * 6. With lateral spires, with about 20 flexuous, crenated joints in the exterior whorl; marked by elevated striæ; aperture semicordate; syphon central; very minute. Mediterranean, Sheppey island, and Sandwich. Montagu, t. 18. f. 5.

beccarii. * 7. Aperture obovate; 4 or 5 volutions, with deep sulcated joints; 10 in the first spire, frequent on most shores; minute. Adriatic, Britain. Montagu, t. 18. f. 6.

perversus. * 8. Similar to the preceding species, but with the spires reversed. Shores of Britain, frequent. Mont. t. 18. f. 6.

depressus. * 9. Spiral, slightly umbilicated on each side, with many depressed joints. Reculver, England. Very minute, and rare. Montagu, t. 18. f. 9.

umbilicatus. * 10. Spiral, umbilicated, with furrowed joints; colour opaque, white. Sandwich. Minute, not common. Montague, t. 18. f. 1.

crassulus. * 11. Thick, spiral, doubly umbilicated, with fine joints; opaque, white. Reculver, England. Minute, rare. Montague, t. 18. f. 2.

lobatulus. * 12. Spiral, lobate; spires rounded on one side, depressed on the other. Whitstable. Walker, t. 3. f. 71.

balthicus. 13. White, convex; aperture linear; first spire largest. Baltic. Schroeter, i. t. 1. and 2.

rugosus. 14. Aperture linear; spires compressed, with thickened margins. Southern ocean. Very small.

umbilicatus. 15. Aperture compressed, linear; spires compressed; umbilicus concave; minute. Croatia, Column. Phytol. ii. t. 38. f. E.

** *Spiral, rounded, with detached whirls.*

spirula. 16. Aperture orbicular; whirls cylindrical and detached; one inch in diameter. American and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 550. f. 2.

spengleri. 17. Smooth, with 4 conic tubercles; very minute. India. Spengler, i. t. 2. f. 9. b. and c.

unguiculatus. 18. Diaphanous, middle partitions protuberant outwards; surface with six conic tubercles; minute. India. Spengler, i. t. 2. f. 9. d.

*** *Elongated, and nearly straight.*

semilituus. * 19. Incurved, spiral at the tip; whirls contiguous; minute, convex; the partitions appearing outwardly. Croatia, Sandwich. Rare. Montagu, t. 19. f. 1.

lituus. 20. Subconic; globular divisions growing gradually less; tip incurved, spiral. Red sea. Frequently found fossil. Spengler, i. t. 2. f. 10. d. to g.

carinatulus. * 21. Oblong, carinated; aperture oval, narrow. Sandwich. Minute, rare. Walker, t. 3. f. 72.

obliquus. * 22. With a slight curvature; divisions obliquely striated; syphon central. Mediterranean and Adriatic seas, Britain. Montagu, t. 14. f. 4.

raphanistrum. 23. Subcylindrical, with thick divisions, marked with 12 elevated striæ; syphon central. Adriatic and Mediterranean seas. Ledermuller, t. 4. f. x. lower figure.

raphanus. 24. Jointed divisions thick, with 17 elevated striæ; syphon sublateral, oblique. Adriatic and Mediterranean. Martini, i. vig. at p. 1. f. A. B.

granum. 25. Ovate, oblong, with thick divisions, marked with 8 interrupted elevated striæ: syphon oblique; minute. Mediterranean.

radicula. 26. Oblong, ovate, with 8 or 9 subglobose articulations; aperture a small syphon. Adriatic, Sandwich. Montagu, t. 6. f. 4.

spinulosus. * 27. Straight, ovate-oblong, with swollen spinous joints. Britain. Montagu, t. 19. f. 5.

subarcuatus. * 28. A little bending, with raised joints; length one-tenth of an inch. Sandwich. Very rare. Montagu, t. 6. f. 5.

bicarinatus. 29. Arcuated, with two opposite longitudinal keels; joints globose. Sandwich.

fascia. 30. Divisions striated; joints smooth, elevated: obtuse at the tip; denticulated at the margin; syphon central. Adriatic. Very small. Gualteri, t. 19. f. O.

inæqualis. 31. Cylindrical, with 8 divisions; aperture margined; very minute. Red sea. Spengler, i. t. 2. f. 10. a. b. and c.

siphunculus. 32. Smooth, with cylindrical, remote divisions; joints tapering, cylindrical. Seas of Sicily. Gualteri, t. 19. f. R. S.

legumen. * 33. Compressed, jointed, margined at one end; syphon lateral. Adriatic, Sandwich. Very rare. Montagu, t. 19. f. 6.

costatus. * 34. Straight, subcylindrical, tapering; joints 12, raised, with 4 equidistant, strong, longitudinal ribs the whole length; ¼ inch long. Coast of Kent. A variety of this has been discovered with only 6 joints. Montagu, t. 14. f. 5.

linearis. 35. Straight, compressed; narrow jointed and ribbed at the smaller end. Dunbar. Montagu, t. 30. f. 9.

rectus. 36. Nearly straight, with smooth depressed joints. Sandwich. Montagu, t. 19. f. 4. and 7.

orthocera. 37. Whirls of the shell with carinated striæ. The ocean. Frequently found fossil.

48 Conus.

Gen. 20. Conus, *Cone-shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a limax. The shell univalve, convolute, turbinate; aperture effuse, longitudinal, linear, without teeth, entire at the base; pillar smooth.

Species.

* *Spire somewhat truncated.*

marmoreus. 1. Brown, with ovate, subangular, white spots; whirls of the spire channelled. American ocean. Lister, t. 787. f. 39.

nocturnus 2. Granulated at the base; blackish, with bands of white; somewhat heart-shaped, confluent spots; spire coronated and channelled. Amboyna. Rare. Martini, ii. t. 62. f. 687.

nicobaricus. 3. Mottled, with black and somewhat heart-shaped white spots, and marked with two darker transverse bands; spire coronated; throat yellow. Chem. x. t. 139. f. 1292.

arachnoides. 4. Reticulated with chesnut, with two or three darker bands; spire crowned and acute. A very rare species. Coromandel. Chem. x. t. 144. A. f. c. and d.

zonatus. 5. With alternate articulated belts and tesselated spots; spire crowned with tubercles; shell often minute, and with a white band. Asiatic ocean. Martini, ii. t. 63. f. 783. to. 785.

imperialis 6. Whitish, with longitudinal livid bands, and divided brown and white linear belts: spire flat, painted with brown undulated stripes, often emarginated. A rare shell. Lister, t. 766. f. 15.

fuscatus. 7. Brownish-green, with longitudinal confluent white streaks, and darker transverse interrupted lines; spire coronated. New Zealand. Martini, ii. t. 62. f. 692. and 693.

literatus. 8. White, with brown dots; spire marked with brown stripes. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 770. f. 176.

eburneus. 9. White, with transverse rows of dark quadrangular spots, and the base transversely grooved; whirls of the spire longitudinally striated. East Indies. Martini, ii. t. 61. f. 674.

tesselatus. 10. White, with transverse rows of red spots; base violet, and slightly grooved transversely. Java. Lister, t. 767. f. 17.

generalis. 11. Polished, with a pointed, muricated spire; whirls channelled. India. Lister, t. 786. f. 35.

monile. 12. Smooth, reddish, with darker transverse dotted lines, and paler bands; spire flattish, mucronated, and the whirls channelled. Nicobar islands. Chem. x. t. 140. f. 1301. to 3.

canaliculatus. 13. White, with reddish-brown interrupted transverse bands and lines; spire mucronated, and the whirls marginated. Ceylon. Chem. xi. t. 181. f. 1748.

virgo. 14. Yellowish with a violet base; spire slightly convex and obtuse. Java. Lister, t. 754. f. 2.

candidus. 15. Conic, snowy; spire prominent, and crowned with tubercles; aperture large. Born, t. 7. f. 9.

capitaneus 16. Glabrous, with a brown base; spire a little convex, sometimes flat, and generally striped. Asia. Lister, t. 780. f. 27.

chemnitzii. 17. Greenish-brown, with two white spotted transverse bands, and numerous scattered white dots; base and throat blue. Ceylon. Chem. xi. t. 182. f. 1764. and 1765.

musteli-nus. 18. Greenish, with white transverse bands spotted with brown; base with granulated lines; spire subconical and striated. Batavia. Chem. x. t. 138. f. 1280.

leopardus. 19. Brownish-yellow, with dark, longitudinal confluent stripes, and two white transverse bands; spire convex and striated.

hyæna. 20. With longitudinal dark red stripes, and transverse rows of dots; spire mucronated. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 181. f. 1750.

centurio. 21. White, with three yellowish bands; spotted with chesnut: spire convex; base transversely striated. St Domingo. Martini, ii. t. 59. f. 655.

miles. 22. Conic, rough with a brown and striated base: spire convex. India. Lister, t. 786. f. 34.

spurius. 23. White, with irregularly alternate rows of broad and smaller spots; spire depressed, mucronated. St Domingo. Martini, ii. t. 56. f. 626. to 628.

leonius. 24. White, with brown contiguous spots forming indistinct bands; spire flattish. Amboyna. Martini, ii. t. 57. f. 640.

characteristicus. 25. Transversely grooved at the base; white, with numerous character-like spots; spire truncated and spotted with brown. West Indies. Chem. xi. t. 182. f. 1760. and 1761.

cœrulescens. 26. Transversely striated, granulated, glaucous, with irregular brown spots. West Indies. Chem. t. 182. f. 1762.

radiatus. 27. With white rays and bands, transversely grooved at the base. Favanne, ii. t. 15. f. O.

** *Pyriform with a rounded base; body half as long again as the spire.*

princeps. 28. Yellow, with purplish brown, longitudinal branched lines, marked with two white bands, which have a few brown spots; spire obtuse and finely striated transversely; 2½ inches long. Indies. Chem. x. t. 138. f. 1276.

janus. 29. Oblong, conical, grooved at the base; white, undulated longitudinally, with yellowish brown; whirls

of spires striated and channelled. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 782. f. 29.

guinaicus. 30. Subconical, reddish, with obsolete brown and white variegated bands; spire obtuse, spotted and striated. Guinea. Ency. Method. t. 337. f. 6.

fulmineus. 31. With chesnut stripes the whole length: spire acute, and with the pillar lip spotted with chesnut; the base acute and obliquely striated. Africa.

lorenzinus 32. Subconical, yellow, with interrupted longitudinal reddish stripes; base dotted with red; spire concave and acute. East Indies. Chem. xi. t. 181. f. 1754.

amadis. 33. Pale brown, with a broad band, and articulated belts above and beneath: spire acute, crowned with tubercles, and finely striated transversely. Java. Chem. x. t. 142. f. 1322. and 1323.

acuminatus. 34. Striated at the base, white, reticulated with brown; whirls concave. Red sea. Martini, ii. t. 57. f. 638. and 639.

ammiralis 35. With rough punctures at the base.—This species is divided into the following varieties. 1. Without bands. 2. With irregular bands. 3. With one regular band. 4. With two regular bands. 5. With three regular bands. 6. With four regular bands. 7. With five or more regular bonds. 8. With punctuated, reticulated belts. To this last division belongs the *cedo nulli*, or celebrated admiral shell, which has been esteemed the rarest and most precious of testaceous productions. Some specimens of the *cedo nulli* have brought the extravagant price of 100 guineas. The endless varieties of this species are found in the seas of South America. Martini, ii. t. 57. f. 634.

thomæ. 36. Smooth, white, with bay characters and rows of dots, with three white belts and spots; the tip reddish; spire conic, with grooved whirls. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 143. f. 1331.

archithalassus. 37. Granulated and brownish yellow, with three transverse bands; spire conical, and the whirls slightly concave. Amboyna. Martini, ii. vig. 26. f. 1.

cedonulli. 38. Granulated, and marked with dotted lines and bands, and confluent or detached spots; spire conical and coronated. South America. Martini, ii. t. 57. f. 633.

aurantius. 39. Conical, granulated, of an orange colour; spire conical and coronated. Philippine islands. Lister, t. 775. f. 21.

leucosticus 40. Subgranulated, white, marbled with brown or yellow; spire acute, coronated, and nodulous at its base. St Domingo. Lister, t. 759. f. 4.

vitulinus. 41. White, marbled with orange, and granulated at the base; spire with dotted striæ.

planorbis. 42. Yellow, more or less granulated; spire depressed, obtuse, and the whirls concave and striated; throat violet. Guinea. Ency. Method. t. 326. f. 8.

senator. 43. Conic, smooth, glabrous; with obtuse, sculptured whirls; yellow spotted with white. Guinea. Martini, ii. t. 59. f. 659.

latus. 44. Subovate, more or less granulated, marbled with brown and yellow, and marked with convex spotted striæ; spire obtuse and striated. St Domingo. Martini, ii. t. 55. f. 609. and 610.

nobilis. 45. Subcylindrical, smooth, glabrous; finely polished; yellow or brown, spotted with white. Amboyna. Chem. x. t. 141. f. 1313. and 1314.

siamensis. 46. Yellowish, with white bands, and numerous spotted narrow belts. China. Rumph. t. 34. f. E.

47. White, with transverse rows of yellow spots and dots; whirl slightly chanuelled. Guinea. Lister, t. 773. f. 19. *papilionaceus.*

48. Conical-oblong, white, with transverse bands of short ferruginous undulated stripes; spire conical, concave, and acumiuated. Java. Lister, t. 771. f. 17. &c. *fluctifer.*

49. Striated at the base, white, with a blue band, and transverse rows of spotted lines; spire obtuse and coronated. China. Ency. Method. t. 322. f. 4. *musicus.*

50. Flesh-coloured, with two white bands, and crowded transverse dotted lines; spire obtuse and coronated. China. Ency. Meth. t. 319. f. 6. *miliaris.*

51. With linear belts, articulated with white and brown: red, with bands alternately tesselated with brown and red. Guinea. Martini, ii. t. 56. t. 623. *genuanus.*

52. Emarginated at the base, striated; spire unarmed, with contiguous whirls. India and Africa. Chem. x. t. 138. f. 1277. and 1278. *glaucus.*

53. Striated and emarginated at the base; yellow, with transverse rows of brown linear spots; spire convex and mucronated; spotted with brown. E. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 181. f. 1752 and 1753. *suratensis*

54. Gibbous, clouded with bluish brown; acute, striated at the base; sometimes dotted in rows. Mediterranean. Martini, ii. t. 55. f. 614. *monachus*

55. White, clouded with red and yellow, or olive, with elevated dotted striæ; spire obtuse, whirls striated. American ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 331. f. 1. *ranunculus.*

56. White, grey, or cinnamon colour, spotted, and finely striated transversely; spire obtuse and striated. New Holland. *anemone.*

57. Scabrous at the base, of a dark colour, with bluish white spots and interrupted dotted lines; spire acute. *achatinus.*

58. Whitish, with brown spotted bands, and transverse milk-white interrupted lines; spire convex, and somewhat coronated. Philippine islands. Ency. Meth. t. 338. f. 6. *luzonicus.*

59. Ovate, rugged, and muricated at the base; spire conico-convex. Var. 1. Without band. 2. With a band, clouded, whitish. Africa. Lister, t. 765. f. 14. *rusticus.*

60. Grooved towards the base, cinereous, clouded with white, and marked with transverse rows of brownish spots; spire convex. East Indies. Chem. xi. t. 183. f. 1784. and 1785. *nisus.*

61. With transverse granulated striæ at the base, and livid, and one or two white bands; spire coronated and obtuse; inside violet. Cape of Good Hope. Ency. Meth. t. 321. f. 5. *lividus.*

62. Ash-coloured, with elevated transverse striæ, one white band, and obsolete longitudinal yellowish brown stripes; spire acute and coronated. American ocean. Lister, 784. f. 31. *mus.*

63. Somewhat elongated, with distant striæ; base and throat violet; spire convex and coronated. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 138. f. 1281. *distans.*

64. Orange coloured, with crowded transverse parallel red striæ; spire acute, coronated. New Caledonia. Ency. Meth. t. 321. f. 10. *caledonicus.*

65. Pyriform, yellowish, with two marbled transverse bands, and obsolete interrupted lines. Asiatic ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 335. f. 3. *vittatus.*

66. Ferruginous, with two white varigated bands; base white. Asiatic ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 335. f. 7. *classiarus.*

67. Ovate,

mercator. 67. Ovate, white, with reticulated yellow bands. Africa. Lister, t. 788. f. 41.

betulinus. 68. Slightly emarginated at the base and wrinkled; spire flattish, mucronate. India. A large shell. Lister, t. 762. f. 11.

figulinus. 69. Slightly emarginated at the base, and wrinkled; spire acuminated, with flattish whirls: three inches long. India. Lister, t. 785. f. 32.

quercinus 70. Yellow, with numerous pale chesnut transverse lines; spire conical, depressed; whirls longitudinally striated. Madagascar. Martini, ii. t. 69. f. 657.

lineatus. 71. Granulated at the base, white, variegated with brown, and marked with crowded interrupted lines; spire obtuse. Isle of France. Ency. Meth. t. 326. f. 2.

eques. 72. Somewhat ventricose, whitish, with a transverse yellow band, and two rows of distant large brown spots; spire convex. New Zealand. Ency. Meth. t. 335. f. 9.

ermineus. 73. Reddish-yellow, with two mottled bands, and blackish granulations at the base; spire conical, and the whirls flat. Isle of France. Ency. Meth. t. 338. t. 8.

vexillum. 74. Yellowish-brown, with two mottled bands, and irregular longitudinal streaks; base blackish; spire spotted with brown and tipped with yellow. Batavia. Chem. xi. t. 182. f. 1758.

testudinarius. 75. Whitish, clouded with dark grey, and marked with two dark bands, spotted with white; spire obtuse. Surinam. Ency. Meth. t. 335. f. 6.

venulatus. 76. Striated at the base; white, with somewhat reticulated yellowish stripes; spire convex. Manilla. Ency. Meth. t. 337. f. 9.

namocanus. 77. Yellowish, with numerous transverse darker bands, and intermediate lines; spire obtuse and striated. South sea. Ency. Meth. t. 338. f. 5.

ebraeus. 78. Ovate, white, with a black band, composed of transverse spots: a small shell. E. Indies. Lister, t. 779. f. 25.

arenatus. 79. Emarginated at the base, white, with transverse rows of black dots; spire coronated. Batavia. Lister, t. 761. f. 10.

pulicarius 80. Emarginated at the base; white, with small brown ovate spots; spire mucronated and coronated. New Guinea. Lister, t. 774. f. 20.

obesus. 81. Emarginated at the base; white, tinged with chesnut colour, and marked with dark-clustered dots; spire depressed, coronated, with a double groove. Madagascar. Ency. Meth. t. 320. f. 8.

piperatus. 82. Emarginated at the base, fawn-coloured, with two white belts, and numerous slightly elevated dotted striæ; spire coronated, and spotted with brown. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 319. f. 8.

cancellatus. 83. White, cancellated with transverse grooves and longitudinal striæ; spire acuminated. Owhyhee, in the South sea. Ency. Meth. t. 338. f. 1.

stercus-muscarum 84. Emarginated at the base, and striated; whirls of the spire channelled. Asia. Lister, t. 757. f. 9.

varius. 85. Elongated, muricated: the spire crowned acute, and striated longitudinally. Indian ocean. Enc. Meth. t. 321. f. 3.

portoricanus. 86. Granulated, white, with brownish yellow spots; spire convex and mucronated. America. Enc. Meth. t. 338. f. 4.

tinianus. 87. Red, clouded with pale bluish spots, and scattered yellowish dots; spire convex. Ency. Meth. t. 338. f. 2.

barbadensis. 88. Slightly grooved transversely, and granulated at the base, reddish, with two white bands; spire obtuse, and coronated. St Domingo. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 8.

roseus. 89. Transversely grooved, and of a rose-colour, with one white band; spire obtuse and coronated. Martini, ii. t. 63. f. 707.

coccineus. 90. Transversely striated, and granulated; scarlet, with a white mottled band; spire convex, and coronated. Martini, ii. t. 61. f. 680.

sponsalis. 91. Gibbous, with the base transversely striated and granulated; white, with one or two rows of large remote spots; spire coronated. S. seas. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 1.

taitensis. 92. Transversely striated, of a blackish, violet colour, with a few white spots and dots; spire obtuse, striated. Otaheite. Ency. Meth. t. 336. f. 9.

scabriusculus. 93. White, with transverse elevated roughish striæ, and five transverse rows of reddish spots; spire obtuse. Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 182. f. 1768. and 9.

punctura-tus. 94. With transverse punctured grooves, livid, and marked with two white zones; spire coronated, obtuse, tip rosy. Botany Bay. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 9.

ceylonensis. 95. Granulated at the base, yellowish, with two white spotted bands, and intermediate, zig-zag stripes; spire coronated and obtuse. Ceylon. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 6.

exiguus. 96. White, with brown longitudinal spots, and distant transverse striæ; spire convex, acute, and coronated. Asiatic seas.

pusillus. 97. White, with longitudinal reddish stripes, and transverse rows of dots; spire conical, depressed, and slightly coronated. Guinea. Chem. xi. 183. f. 1788. and 9.

lamellosus 98. Slightly grooved, and the base granulated; white, spotted with rose colour; spire coronated and lamellated. Ceylon. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 5.

rattus. 99. Greyish violet, with a white band, and scattered distant spots; spire obtuse. American coasts. Ency. Meth. t. 338. f. 9.

jamaicensis. 100. Slightly gibbous, olive, with transverse rows of dots, and white bands marbled with brown; spire convex and acute. Jamaica. Ency. Meth. t. 335. f. 3.

mediterraneus. 101. Dull olive, clouded with two obsolete white bands, and transverse brown lines and dots; spire acute and striated. Algiers and Naples. Ency. Meth. t. 330. f. 4.

punctiulatus. 102. Slightly grooved at the base, white, with transverse rows of dots; spire obtuse, and whirls channelled. St Domingo. Ency. Meth. t. 331. f. 2.

mauritianus. 103. White, with pale brownish yellow spots, and transverse rows of brown crescent-shaped dots; spire obtuse, base grooved. Africa. Ency. Meth. t. 330. f. 9.

sulcatus. 104. White, and transversely grooved; spire coronated, obtuse. W. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 321. f. 6.

verrucosus. 105. Striated, and granulated; spire conical, with the lower whirls concave and crenated on the edge. Africa. Lister, t. 756. f. 8.

columba. 106. Rose-coloured; base striated; spire acute. Isle of France. Ency. Meth. t. 331. f. 3.

madurensis. 107. Greenish, with three or four bands, clouded with

with white and yellow, with transverse brown and white dotted lines; spire acuminated. Asiatic ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 333. f. 3.

radiatus. 108. With white rays and bands, transversely grooved at the base. Favanne, ii. t. 15. f. O.

jaspideus. 109. Light olive, with multifarious white dots, and an oblique band; oblong. Small. St. Domingo. Enc. Meth. 334. f. 4.

coffeæ. 110. Short, brown, with two white bands: that nearest the spire spotted with brown. American seas. Ency. Meth. t. 336. f. 7.

mindanus. 111. White, variegated with scarlet, and white dotted transverse lines; aperture acuminated. Philippine islands. Ency. Meth. t. 330. f. 7.

festivus. 112. Scarlet, with two transverse rows of large white spots, and numerous dotted brown lines; spire conic; whirls convex. Molucca islands. Chem. xi. t. 182. f. 1770. and 71.

fulmineus. 113. With chesnut stripes the whole length; spire acute, and with the pillar lip spotted with chesnut; the base acute and obliquely striated. Africa. Enc. Meth. t. 337. f. 3.

arachnoides. 114. Reticulated with chesnut, with two or three darker bands; spire crowned and acute. A very rare species. Coromandel. Chem. x. t. 144 A. f. c. and d.

costatus. 115. Brown, with a white band, undulated with reddish; thick, and broad striæ; spire nodulous, with a granulated band. South sea. Chem. ii. t. 181. f. 1745.

citrinus. 116. Citron, with black lines, interrupted beneath; spire crowned with tubercles, with the base white. Curaçoa. Ency. Meth. t. 322. f. 3.

coronatus. 117. With alternate articulated belts and tesselated spots; spire crowned with tubercles; shell often minute, and with a white band. Asiatic ocean. Martini, ii. t. 63. f. 713. to 15.

*** *Elongated and rounded at the base; body as long again as the spire.*

clavus. 118. With convex smooth striæ; the base bluish. Indian ocean. Very rare. Lister, t. 774. f. 34.

aureus. 119. Transversely striated; yellow, with orange longitudinal stripes, and white triangular spots; spire acute.

terebellum 120. White, shaded with blue; subcylindrical, with annular striæ and yellow bands. Isle of France. Lister, t. 745. f. 6.

australis. 121. Transversely grooved, yellowish, with transverse rows of brown spots, and irregular longitudinal stripes; spire acuminated. New South Wales. Chem. xi. t. 183. f. 1774. and 5.

laevis. 122. Transversely striated, of a pale yellowish red, with brown and white spots, and variegated with yellow; spire smooth.

strigatus. 123. Transversely striated, of a pale violet colour, with yellowish spots and dots; spire convex. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 342. f. 1.

mitratus. 124. With transverse granulated striæ; white, with brownish-yellow bands; spire pyramidal. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 342. f. 3.

glans. 125. Transversely striated, brown, with an obsolete white band; spire longitudinally striated, and convex. Isle of France. Chem. x. t. 143. f. 1331.

tenellus. 126. Transversely striated and dotted; white, with interrupted yellow bands; spire depressed; whirls channelled. Moluccas. Chem. xi. t. 183. f. 1782 and 3.

nausatella 127. Transversely striated; white, clouded with yellow, and marked with transverse rows of dark dots; spire conical. Amboyna. Lister, t. 744. f. 35.

fusus. 128. Elongated, transversely ribbed, dull yellowish white; spire conical, striated; whirls convex and channelled at the sutures.

ochroleucos. 129. Subcylindrical, yellow; the base obliquely striated, with a white band near it; spire pointed with striped spots. America. Ency. Meth. t. 343. f. 6.

affinis. 130. Bluish white, with four fulvous linear bands, and intermediate dull purple dots. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 342. f. 4. and 5.

granulatus. 131. Rough, unarmed, with smooth, grooved striæ. African ocean. Shell red, with white bands, and purple linear dots. Lister, t. 760. f. 5.

aurantiacus. 132. *Orange flag*, smooth, with whitish bands; whirls grooved at the tips. India. Ency. Meth. t. 339. f. 4.

terebra. 133. Elongated with distant ribs; spire conical, obtuse, and the whirls flattish. Batavia. Ency. Meth. t. 339. f. 2.

raphanus. 134. Elongated, transversely ribbed; white, with brownish yellow dotted bands; spire obtuse; apex rosy. Asiatic ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 341. f. 1. and 2.

adansoni. 135. Grayish yellow, with a white interrupted band, and numerous rows of brown dots; spire convex, acute, striated and spotted. Senegal. Ency. Meth. t. 343. f. 7.

augur. 136. White, grooved at the base, with numerous transverse rows of reddish dots, and two oblong brown streaks. Ceylon. Lister, t. 755. f. 7.

magus. 137. Subcylindrical, with longitudinal bands, dotted with white. India, Isle of France. Chem. xi. t. 183. f. 1778. and 9.

striatus. 138. Ovate, oblong, gibbous, clouded with fine parallel brown striæ; 4 inches long. Africa. Ency. Meth. t. 340. f. 1, 2, and 3.

gubernator. 139. Reddish white, grooved at the base, with irregular, longitudinal undulated stripes, and two transverse brown bands; spire mucronated. Asiatic ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 340. f. 4, 5, and 6.

gloriamaria. 140. Subcylindrical, elongated, white, with minute brown reticulations, and transverse orange bands; spire acuminated; upper whirls nodulous. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 47. f. 7.

pyramidalis. 141. Yellowish, with numerous longitudinal zig-zag brown lines, and irregular white spots; spire elevated, acuminated; upper valve nodulous. Torrid zone. Ency. Meth. t. 347. f. 5.

textile. 142. With zig-zag yellow veins, and yellow and brown spots. Asia, Isle of France. Lister, t. 788. f. 40.

abbas. 143. Orange, striped with brown, and marked with a few white spots, and three or four transverse bands. Isle of France. Ency. Meth. t. 345. f. 3.

archipiscopus. 144. Ventricose, yellowish, with cancellated brown lines, and four bands of blue violet and white reticulations; spire acuminated. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 345. f. 5.

canonicus. 145. Brown, reticulated with crowded very unequal

equal white angular spots; spire acuminated; upper whirls acuminated. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 345. f. 1.

episcopus. 146. Dark brown, with triangular white spots, and transverse dotted lines; spire obtuse. E. Indies. Lister, t. 790. f. 43.

prælatus. 147. Yellow, with transverse dotted lines, and two bands, variegated with brown, white, gray, and flesh-coloured; spire acute. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 345. f. 4.

pennaceus. 148. Orange brown, with transverse dotted lines, and heart-shaped white spots; spire obtuse. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 344. f. 4.

rubiginosus. 149. Orange brown, with irregular large oblong white spots; spire convex, obtuse. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 344. f. 2.

omaria. 150. Yellowish brown, with large, three-sided white spots, and transverse dotted lines; spire obtuse; lip rosy. New Guinea. Ency. Meth. t. 344. f. 3.

aulicus. 151. White, with brown reticular veins, and interrupted logitudinal bands. Asia. It varies much in its colours. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 343. f. 4.

elongatus. 152. Striated at the base, yellowish brown, with transverse bands, of brown and white spots and dots; spire acute.

**** *Ventricose, with a wide aperture.*

spectrum. 153. Bluish, with yellow clouds and yellowish thick dots and striæ; spire rather acute. Asiatic seas. Ency. Meth. t. 341. f. 9.

informis. 154. Striated at the base, often deformed, white, with brown and bluish spots; spire convex, acute. N. Zealand. Ency. Meth. t. 337. f. 8.

timorensis. 155. Flesh-coloured, mottled with white, and marked with a dotted transverse zone; spire acuminated, channelled; aperture effuse. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 341. f. 3.

nimbosus. 156. Transversely grooved, whitish, with transverse brown lines and dots, and rose-coloured bands; spire depressed and striated. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 341. f. 5.

bullatus. 157. Yellow clouded with white; aperture large and bluish; spire sometimes flat, sometimes acute. Molucca. Ency. Meth. t. 389. f. 6.

rosaceus. 158. Subventricose, rose-coloured, with two narrow whitish bands; spire conical; aperture effuse. East Indies. Chem. xi. t. 181. f. 1756 and 1757.

tulipa. 159. Oblong, gibbous, smooth; aperture gaping. India, South America. Lister, t. 764. f. 12.

geographicus. 160. Oblong, gibbous, crowned; aperture gaping; wrinkled at the base, and a little narrower; aperture white; spire sometimes rosy. Indian and African seas. Lister, t. 747. f. 41.

ventricosus. 161. Brown, barred with white, beneath narrower, shaded with bluish, and smooth; spire conic, exserted. African ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 337. f. 5.

40. Cypræa.

Gen. 21. CYPRÆA, *Cuvier.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a slug; shell univalve, involute, subovate, smooth, obtuse at each end; aperture effuse at each end; linear, extending the whole length of the shell, and toothed on each end.

SPECIES.

* *Spire not quite concealed.*

1. Slightly turbinated, ferruginous, with whitish round spots and eyes; line down the back a little branched. American and Atlantic seas. Lister, t. 669. f. 15. *exanthema.*

2. Slightly turbinated, and marked with irregular characters; line down the back branched. Indian and African seas, and Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 352. f. 4. *mappa.*

3. Slightly turbinated with irregular characters; stripe down the back simple. India. Lister, t. 658. f. 3. *arabica.*

4. With the character like markings confluent, and inclosing paler spots. Amboyna. Lister, t. 659. f. 3. A. *histrio.*

5. Slightly turbinated, subcylindrical, sprinkled with eyes; beneath 4 brown spots; about 4 inches long. Indian and Atlantic seas. Lister, t. 705. f. 54. *argus.*

6. Obtuse, subcylindrical; extremities depressed. Persian gulf and Indian ocean. This is the largest shell of this genus. Lister, t. 689. f. 36. *testudinaria.*

7. Slightly turbinated, gibbous, with livid and testaceous spots; emarginate on each side, and flat beneath. Guinea. Lister, t. 587. f. 34. *stercoraria.*

8. Ventricose, orange, with a white unspotted margin and base; teeth orange. This rare and beautiful shell is a native of Otaheite, is about 4 inches long, and about $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. It is exceedingly valuable; and not unfrequently sells for 50l. or 60l. *aurora.*

9. Slightly turbinated, pale, with flesh-coloured bands; mouth violet; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 664. f. 8. *carniola.*

10. Slightly turbinated, subcylindrical, with pale bands; beneath thickened and brown; 3 inches long. India. Lister, t. 668. f. 14. *talpa.*

11. Slightly turbinated, lurid and slightly barred; extremities pale yellow, with 2 black spots. Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Lister, t. 671. f. 17. *lurida.*

12. Slightly turbinated, spotted, and marked with yellowish dots; extremities spotted with brown; throat rufous. Barbadoes. Lister, 684. f. 31. *vanella.*

13. Slightly turbinated, white, with subulate denticles. Sicily. Martini, i. t. 30. f. 322. *lota.*

14. Thin, gibbous, fulvous, dotted with white, with a horizontal line in the middle; beneath white with yellow teeth. Lister, t. 676. f. 23. *guttata.*

15. Thin, oblong, barred with brown, and dotted with red at the sides. Ency. Meth. t. 356. f. 12. *sanguinolenta.*

16. Cylindrical, milk-white; one side bordered and varied with a few pale yellow, narrow marks, back with three brownish waved bands. Schroeter, i. t. 1. f. 7. *teres.*

17. Turbinated, undulated with brownish, clouded with pale ochre, and deeper bands. Mauritia islands. Chem. x. t. 144. f. 1337. *undata.*

** *Obtuse, spire quite concealed.*

18. With the sides dark brown, and thickly coated with enamel; aperture wide. Otaheite. Martyn Univ. Conch. i. t. 14. *achatina.*

19. Triangularly gibbous; behind depressed, acute; beneath *mauritiana.*

beneath black; a large shell, spotted with brown. Java, Mauritius, and Nussatella. Lister, t. 703. f. 52.

caput-serpentis. 20. Triangularly gibbous, and rather obtuse behind; brown, spotted and white; beneath white; 1½ inch long. Mauritius and Nussatella islands. Lister, t. 702. f. 50.

vitellus. 21. Livid, with small white spots; 2 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 693. f. 40.

mus. 22. Retuse, gibbous, cinereous, with a longitudinal brown band; teeth of the aperture blackish. American and Mediterranean seas. Ency. Meth. t. 354. f. 1.

tigris. 23. Ovate, obtuse behind, and rounded before; ferruginous, with deep brown spots, and a yellow longitudinal, dorsal line; 4½ inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 748. f. 42.

pantherina. 24. Reddish, with small dark spots; base white, and the dorsal line undulated. Red sea. Lister, t. 681. f. 28.

lynx. 25. Oblong, ovate, with brown dots, and a yellowish line; hind part a little acute, with a rufous mouth; 2 inches long. Madagascar. Lister, t. 683. f. 30.

cinerea. 26. Thin, ventricose, reddish gray, with paler bands. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 667. f. 11.

cylindrica. 27. Cylindrical, above; pale violet, and spotted with brown at the sides, with two brown spots at each end. Born, t. 8. f. 10.

felina. 28. Oblong, narrow, plumbeous, with ferruginous dots and spots, and paler bands; marked at each extremity with 2 brown spots. Maldives. Lister, t. 680. f. 7.

isabella. 29. Subcylindrical, with pale yellow extremities; 1½ inch long. Mauritius. Lister, t. 660. f. 4.

scurra. 30. Ovate, oblong; beneath flat; yellowish, with greenish and livid confluent drops; sides varied with scattered brown dots. India. Ency. Meth. t. 352. f. 2.

*** *Umbilicated.*

onyx. 31. Beneath brown, above whitish; small. Asia. Lister, t. 657. f. 2.

clandestina. 32. With fine transverse lines here and there meeting together. India.

succincta. 33. Interior lip rounded at each extremity. Chem. xi. t. 180. f. 1741 and 1742.

zic-zac. 34. Pale yellow, with brown dots; the extremities with 2 brown spots. E. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 661. f. 5.

zonata. 35. Bluish, with 4 transverse zones, marked with brown moon-shaped spots. Guinea. Chem. x. t. 145. f. 1342.

hirundo. 36. Above bluish; extremities marked with two brown spots. Maldivia islands. Lister, t. 674. f. 20.

asellus. 37. White, with 3 brown bands; oblong; minute. Madeira islands. Lister, t. 666. f. 10.

erronea. 38. With an equal testaceous spot. E. Indies. Martini, i. t. 27. f. 278 and 279.

ursellus. 39. Oblong, white; above smooth, varied with brown, and marked with 2 brown dots at the umbilicus or perforation. Martini, i. t. 24. f. 241.

pyrum. 40. Pale brown, with paler bands and ochraceous spots; beneath and at the sides fulvous; within blue. Sicily. Martini, t. 26. f. 267 and 268.

felina. 41. Oblong, narrow, plumbeous, with ferruginous dots and spots, and paler bands; marked at each extremity with 2 brown spots. Maldives. Lister, t. 680. f. 7.

atomaria. 42. Oblong, snowy, dotted with brown; each end marked with 2 dusky dots; ½ inch long. Ency. Meth. t. 255. f. 10.

subflava. 43. Oblong, gibbous, smooth, yellowish. Gualteri, t. 13. f. D.

lutea. 44. Brownish, with two white bands; beneath pale yellow, dotted with brown. Gronovius, t. 19. f. 17.

punctata. 45. Ovate, white, with ferruginous dots. Ency. Meth. t. 355. f. 10.

**** *With the margin thickened.*

cribraria. 46. Umbilicated, pale yellow, with white round spots. China. Lister, t. 695. f. 42.

moneta. 47. Whitish, with a knotty margin. Mediterranean, Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Indian seas.—This species is collected in great quantities, and transported to Bengal, Siam, and other parts of India, where it is employed by the natives as the medium of commerce. Lister, t. 709. f. 59.

annulus. 48. Surrounded on the back with a yellow ring. Amboyna and Alexandria. Ency. Meth. t. 356. f. 7.

caurica. 49. Gibbous, unequal, whitish; margin dotted with brown; back marked with testaceous clouds. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 677. f. 24.

cruenta. 50. Pale glaucous, specked with ferruginous; margin slightly tumid, with bright red spots. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. i. t. 29. f. 303.

crosa. 51. With a jagged margin; yellow, dotted with white; sides with a brownish spot. Mauritius and Ascension islands. Lister, t. 692. f. 39.

dracæna. 52. With a jagged margin, flesh-colour, with a greenish back, marked with fulvous dots; sides dotted with brown. Mediterranean. Ency. Meth. t. 356. f. 10.

flaveola. 53. With a jagged margin; yellow, dotted with white; sides marked with obsolete scattered brown dots.

spurca. 54. Slightly margined, yellowish, with deeper specks; sides dotted with brown. Mediterranean. Martini, i. t. 31. f. 335.

stolida. 55. Cinereous, variegated with testaceous; white beneath, and at the sides; 1½ inch long. Amboyna. Martini, i. t. 29. f. 305.

tabescens. 56. Glaucous, with somewhat tesselated bands, and sprinkled with ferruginous dots; margin thickened on one side. Lister, t. 678. f. 25.

helvola. 57. Triangularly gibbous, dotted with white, jagged behind; beneath yellow, immaculate. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 691. f. 38.

ocellata. 58. Slightly margined, pale yellow with black eyes; margin white, dotted with brown; 1½ inch long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 696. f. 43.

poraria. 59. Pale violet, dotted with white; a very small shell. Jamaica. Lister, t. 694. f. 41.

gangrenosa. 60. Bluish, with scattered white and ferruginous spots, and two brown spots at each extremity. China. Martini, i. t. 26. f. 261 and 262.

oniscus. 61. Ventricose, transversely ribbed, with a broad dorsal groove, and the ribs thickened at its edge; aperture broad. Adriatic sea. Lister, t. 706. f. 55.

sulcata. 62. With numerous transverse furrows, some of which are forked; a small shell, and ovate, with various tints of red or white; marked with a longitudinal groove,

groove, or sulcus, down the back. W. Indies. Lister, t. 706. f. 56.

europea. * 63. Transversely ribbed, without any groove, and with three spots on the middle of the back. Europe. Britain. Don. t. 43.

nucleus. 64. Margined on each side, slightly produced and rugged, with raised tubercles above; 1 inch long. Nussatella island. Ency. Meth. t. 355. f. 3.

madagascariensis. 65. Whitish, produced on each side; back tuberculated, and marked with transverse undulated striæ. Madagascar. Lister, t. 710. f. 61.

pustulata. 66. Lead-coloured, with raised striæ and orange tubercles, surrounded by brown rings. China. Lister, t. 710. f. 62.

staphylæa 67. Somewhat produced, with elevated dots; extremities pale yellow. E. Indies. Lister, t. 708. f. 58.

cicircula. 68. Produced on each side, and sprinkled with raised dots. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 700. f. 60.

margarita 69. Subglobular, white, smooth, beaked at both extremities, and umbilicated. Amboyna. Martini, t. 24. f. 242.

globulus. 70. Produced on each side, and smooth, white or yellow. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 356. f. 2.

fimbriata. 71. White or gray, with obsolete ferruginous spots and transverse bands; lips of the mouth marked with violet spots. Martini, i. t. 26. f. 263 and 264.

angustata. 72. Narrow, brown, with reddish spots at the side. Gualteri, t. 13. f. Q Q.

50 Bulla.

Gen. 22. Bulla, *Dipper.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax; the shell univalve, convoluted, unarmed with teeth; aperture a little straitened, oblong, longitudinal, very entire at the base; pillar oblique, smooth.

Species.

ovum. 1. Ovate, obtuse, slightly doubly beaked; one of the lips toothed, from which it has the appearance of a cypræa; 4 inches long. Amboyna and Friendly islands. Lister, t. 711. f. 65.

imperialis. 2. Obtuse, beaked at both ends, and the outer lip toothed; inside of a pale pink colour. Otaheite.

volva. 3. Two beaked; the beaks long, striated and acute. Jamaica. A rare shell. Lister, t. 711. f. 63.

lepida. 4. Ovate-oblong, slightly beaked, of an orange-colour, and the outer lip toothed; pillar with one plait. Leghorn. Petiver, t. 66. f. 2 and 3.

birostris. 5. Two-beaked, margin thickened outwardly; beaks long, smooth; size of a bean. Rare. Java. Petiver, t. 66. f. 2. and 3.

secale. 6. Subcylindrical, acuminated at both ends; outer lip very slightly thickened at the margin. America. Lister, t. 711. f. 66.

spelta. 7. Oblong, rather obtuse at both ends; equal; lip arched; margin thickened within; twice the size of a grain of wheat. Mediterranean and Adriatic. Lister, t. 712. f. 68.

verrucosa. 8. Transversely angular, ovate, with a bony dot on each side. India. Lister, t. 712. f. 67.

gibbosa. 9. Angular, with an elevated central belt. Brazil. Lister, t. 711. f. 64.

10. Rounded, pellucid, slightly striated transversely; perforated at each end; an inch long. African and Indian seas. Lister, t. 714. f. 73. *naucum.*

11. Subovate, equable; pale grey, undulated with brown, and marked with ferruginous spots, and two white bands. Martini, i. t. 22. f. 209. and 210. *ferrugi-nosa.*

* 12. Roundish, pellucid, transversely substriated; outside a little wrinkled; glossy; one inch long. Europe, Africa, Devonshire. Don. t. 120. *aperta.*

* 13. Rounded, pellucid, slightly striated longitudinally; crown umbilicated; size of a pea. Mediterranean, Devonshire. Don. t. 88. *hydatis.*

14. Rounded, obtuse at one end; crown umbilicated. Frequent on most shores. Amboyna. Lister, t. 713. f. 69. *ampulla.*

15. Oval-oblong, opake; dotted in waves; apex umbilicated; outer lip contracted in the middle. W. Indies. Lister, t. 714. f. 72. *amygdalus*

* 16. Oblong, oval, transversely striated; crown narrow, and slightly umbilicated; 3 inches long. European shores, Britain. Lister, t. 714. f. 72. *lignaria.*

17. Rounded, glabrous, pellucid, marked with transverse lines; spire retuse. India. Ency. Meth. t. 359. f. 4. *physis.*

* 18. Thick, white, opaque; aperture compressed in the middle; minute. Reculver, England. Walker, f. 62. *obtusa.*

19. Obovate, with a clavated crown, indistinct spire, and elongated beak; surface marked with reticulated striæ; 3 inches long. American and Indian oceans. Lister, t. 750. f. 46. *ficus.*

20. Rounded, turbinated, slightly striated, with a curvated beak, and finely wrought spire; from 2 to 3 inches long. Indian ocean. Martini, iii. t. 68. f. 747. to 749. *rapa.*

21. Cylindrical; whirls of the spire grooved. *canalicu-lata.*

22. Oblong, turbinated, smooth; base a little striated; sutures crenulated; size of an acorn. *conoidea.*

* 23. Ovate, pellucid; spire obsolete; whirls contrary, or turning from right to left; aperture ovate, oblong; ½ inch long. Shores of the Danube; lakes and rivers of Europe; Britain. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 4. f. 1. *fontinalis.*

24. Oval, pellucid, with the whirls reversed; spire prominent, acute; aperture ovate-oblong. W. Indies. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 46. f. 2. *rivalis.*

* 25. Ovate, pellucid; spire contrary, prominent; aperture ovate, lanceolate. Europe, Britain. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 4. f. 3.—Linnæus supposes that this species may be a variety of the last; but according to Mr Montagu, the form of the shell, the structure of the animal, and its *habitat*, are always distinct. Linnæus says, that this species is found among wet moss. Mr Montagu found it only in ditches, and in a place occasionally overflowed by the river Avon. *hypnorum*

26. Brittle, with a depressed contrary spire; aperture ending in a beak; 2½ lines long. Rivers of Denmark. *gelatinosa.*

27. Sides cylindrical, with a subulate spire, truncated at the base; 2 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 736. f. 30. and 31. *terebellum*

28. Ovate; spire indistinct, prominent at the top; aperture more dilated behind; pillar twisted; size of an acorn. Mediterranean. Martini, ii. t. 61. f. 731. *cypræa.*

virginea. 29. With party-coloured double bands, and purple truncated pillar; aperture semilunar. Rivers of Asia. Lister, t. 15. f. 10.

ventricosa 30. Ovate-ventricose, and of a yellowish orange-colour; aperture effuse, with a white, smooth, oblique enlargement on the pillar. Lister, t. 746. f. 40.

fasciata. 31. Conic, pointed with transverse bands and undulated spots; aperture white. South America, India. Lister, t. 12. f. 7.

strigata. 32. Conic, pointed, glabrous, with undulated fulvous streaks; 2 inches long; 8 whirls in the spire.

striatula. 33. Conic, white, striated; pillar straight and reflected.

exarata. 34. Oblong, pointed, white, grooved; spire with 6 or 7 whirls. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 120. f. 1031. and 1032.

zebra. 35. Ovate, pointed, with longitudinal brown bands; pillar inflected, entire. Tranquebar. A land species. Lister, t. 11. f. 6.

achatina. 36. Ovate, pointed, with a wide crimson mouth and lip; pillar truncated; 8 inches long. American ocean. Lister, t. 579. f. 34.

pectinata. 37. Ovate, rough, with the aperture pectinated at its base; apex truncated. Denmark. Muller, ii. t. 71. f. 10. to 12.

soluta. 38. Subcylindrical, transversely striated, with the outer whirl detached; apex truncated and channelled. Ceylon. Chem. x. t. 146. f. 1359. to 1361.

nitidula. 39. Oval, white, with straight, transverse, and waved longitudinal red lines; spire convex. W. Indies. Lister, t. 715. f. 74.

amplustre. 40. Roundish; spire elevated, obtuse, with flesh-coloured bands; shell white. Asia. Ency. Meth. t. 359. f. 2.

velum. 41. Thin, umbilicated on each side; white, with capillary brown lines, and a snowy band, edged with brown on each side; 1 inch long. Tranquebar. Chem. x. t. 146. f. 1348.

pyrum. 42. Pear-shaped, thick, and faintly striated transversely; beak produced; aperture spreading. Lister, t. 877. f. 1.

crassula. 43. Ovate, ventricose, rather thick; whirls reversed; spire prominent. Virginia. Lister, t. 135. f. 35.

ampla. 44. Elongated, semicylindrical, white; spire very small; aperture effuse, with a striated oblique enlargement on the pillar. Martini, ii. t. 65. f. 722.

truncata. 45. Oblong, turreted, white, striated longitudinally; sutures crenulated; pillar truncated and inflected. Chem. ix. t. 120. f. 1028. to 1030.

priamus. 46. Ovate, ventricose, with transverse rows of distant spots; pillar sinuated; outer lip acute. Guinea. Chem. ix. t. 120. f. 1026. and 1027.

bicarinata 47. Ovate, obtuse, ventricose, with the whirls reversed and bicarinated; pillar truncated. Lister, t. 37. f. 36.

cylindrica. 48. Cylindrical, involuted, umbilicated at the apex, and striated at the two extremities. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 146. f. 1356. and 1357.

cylindracea. * 49. Cylindrical, smooth, white, thin, slightly umbilicated; twice as large as a grain of wheat. Europe, Britain.

umbilicata * 50. Oblong, oval, smooth, white, apex rounded, umbilicated; aperture very narrow; $\frac{1}{8}$ inch long. Falmouth. Montagu, t. 7. f. 4.

retusa. * 51. Subcylindrical, opaque, white; upper part longitudinally striated, lower plain; apex truncated, and largely umbilicated. Falmouth. Montagu, t. 7. f. 5.

* 52. Cylindrical, involuted, with the spire somewhat prominent. Britain. Montagu, t. 7. f. 3. *obtusa*

53. Smooth, cylindrical, olive; aperture effuse; pillar inflated, truncated; 7 whirls in the spire. Chem. xi. t. 117. f. 1009. *voluta.*

54. Subcylindrical, spiral, reddish, with longitudinal striæ, and spotted; sutures crenulated; pillars sinuated and truncated. St Domingo. Chem. ix. t. 117. f. 1011. *dominicensis.*

55. Ventricose, rugged, and longitudinally streaked; aperture ovate, with a pointed lip, and deep black border within. Africa, in rice fields. Lister, t. 581. f. 35. *purpurea.*

56. Ovate, rough, slightly carinated on the back, and marked with decussated striæ; white with rosy lines; pillar scalloped, reflected. Java. Chem. x. t. 146. f. 352. and 353. *scabra.*

* 57. Ovate, pellucid, with a truncated channelled crown; 6 lines long. Norway seas, Banff in Scotland, and near Portsmouth. Don. t. 79. *akera.*

58. Ovate, flesh-coloured, gibbous; lip arched, thickened and toothed within. Shores of Africa. Ency. Meth. t. 357. f. 2. *carnea.*

* 59. Smooth, glossy, white, pellucid, oblong, involuted; aperture large, terminating in a short canal, most contracted at the top; length 1 inch. Weymouth. Don. t. 142. *patula.*

* 60. Suboval, thin, pellucid, white, resembling a haliotis; a little wrinkled; aperture oval; length $\frac{3}{4}$ inch. Weymouth. Montagu, t. 7. f. 6. *haliotoidea.*

* 61. Ovate, oblong, depressed, pellucid, thin; strongly wrinkled concentrically; length $\frac{1}{2}$ inch. Milton sands, Devonshire. Montagu, t. 15. f. 9. *plumula.*

* 62. Pellucid, white, finely striated transversely; the striæ, magnified, have the appearance of the links of a chain; one-tenth inch diameter. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 7. f. 7. *catena.*

Gen. 23. Voluta, *Volute.* 51 Voluta.

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax; the shell is one-celled, spiral; aperture without a beak, and sometimes effuse; pillar twisted or plaited, generally without lips or perforation.

Species.

* *With the aperture entire.*

1. Contracted, oval, oblong, with a rugged spire; pillar 2-toothed; 4 inches long. India. In marshy woods and swamps. Lister, t. 1058. f. 6. *auris-midæ.*

2. Contracted, oblong; spires smooth; pillar 3-toothed. Fens of India. Lister, t. 32. f. 10. *auris-judæ.*

3. Ovate-oblong, longitudinally wrinkled; aperture ear-shaped, contracted; pillar with one tooth. N. Holland. Chem. x. t. 149. f. 1395. *australis.*

4. Fusiform, granulate, with an ovate aperture; pillar cut, spreading; 3 inches long. New Caledonia. Chem. ix. t. 121. f. 1037. *auris-malchi.*

5. Ovate, banded transversely round the sutures; aperture ear-shaped; pillar with one tooth. Australasia. Chem. xi. t. 121. f. 1041. *fasciata.*

6. Oval-

auris-virginis. 6. Oval-oblong, rose-coloured, with a white band at the suture; aperture ear-shaped; pillar toothless. E. Indies. Lister, t. 24. f. 22.

auris-vulpinæ. 7. Oval, with the whirls crenated and flattened at top; aperture ear-shaped; pillar without teeth. St Helena. Chem. xi. t. 210. f. 2086 and 2087.

auris-cati. 8. Oval, with the whirls longitudinally plaited; aperture contracted, with 3 folds on the pillar, and the lip reflected. Chem. xi. t. 177. f. 1711 and 1712.

flammea. 9. Oval, oblong, with a wide aperture; pillar 1-toothed. Lister, t. 814. f. 24.

flava. 10. Contracted on the upper part; yellow, with a crenulated lip; pillar with two plaits; 4½ lines long. E. Indies. Martini, ii. t. 43. f. 444.

minuta. 11. Oval, oblong, banded; outer lip crenulated; pillar with three plaits. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 834. f. 60.

pusilla. 12. Thin, brown; whirls of the spire cancellated; pillar 3-toothed; very minute. Martini, ii. t. 43. f. 446.

glabra. 13. Oval, oblong, glabrous, with a reflected grooved lip; pillar 1-toothed. Martini, ii. t. 43. f. 447 and 448.

auris-sileni. 14. Oval, gibbous, umbilicated; pillar with one thick, flexuous plait; 2 inches long. Chem. xi. t. 176. f. 1701 and 1702.

tornatilis. * 15. Oval, pointed at each end, and spirally striated; pillar with a single fold; ¾ inch long. Europe, Wales. Don. t. 57. f.

denticulata. * 16. Ovate, glabrous; spire elevated, acute; outer lip denticulated; pillar toothed. Britain. Montagu, t. 20. f. 5.

triplicata. 17. Ovate, smooth, with the spire elevated; aperture narrow, contracted; pillar with 3 teeth. W. Indies. Don. t. 138.

pusilla. 18. Ovate, striated, with the spire elevated; pillar with 3 teeth. Martini, ii. t. 43. f. 446.

bidentata. * 19. Ovate, slightly wrinkled longitudinally; spire elevated, conical; pillar with 2 teeth. Scotland. Montagu, t. 30. f. 2.

alba. * 20. White, opaque, longitudinally striated. Very minute. Sandwich. Walker, f. 61.

pellucida. * 21. Conical, minute; body striated transversely at its base, and longitudinally ribbed above. Salcomb bay, Devonshire. Montagu, t. 12. f. 9.

unidentata. * 22. Conical, smooth, with 5 or 6 rather depressed whirls; pillar with a single tooth. Devonshire.

interstincta. * 23. Turreted, minute, with 5 flattish whirls, longitudinally ribbed; pillar with a small tooth. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 12. f. 10.

insculpta. * 24. Subconical, minute, with 5 or 6 transversely striated whirls; pillar with a small tooth. Devonshire.

plicatula. * 25. Acuminated, minute, smooth, with 6 flattish whirls; pillar with a tooth-like fold. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 21. f. 2.

ambigua. * 26. Acuminated, minute, smooth, with 6 or 7 flattish whirls; aperture suborbicular; pillar slightly folded. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 21. f. 4.

solidula. 27. Contracted, oblong, ovate, opaque, striated; spire elevated and a little pointed; pillar slightly plaited. Southern ocean. Martini, ii. t. 43. f. 440 and 441.

livida. 28. Contracted, ovate, cylindrical; spire a little elevated, obtuse; pillar with 5 plaits; 1 inch long. Africa. Gualteri, t. 25. f. 13.

** *Subcylindrical, and emarginated.*

29. Smooth; spire obliterated at the base; lip reflexuse in the middle; pillar obliquely striated; 5 inches long. Brazil and W. Indies. Martini, ii. t. 46. f. 485 and 486. *porphyrea*

30. Cylindrical; spire small, conical, with a projecting appendage over the upper angle of the aperture; throat orange-coloured. Martini, ii. t. 45. f. 476 and 477. *erythrostoma.*

31. Smooth; spire short, depressed, reflected at the base; pillar obliquely striated. Indian seas. Lister, t. 728. f. 15. There are 20 varieties of this species, distinctly made out; but the variety in the markings is almost endless. Lamarck has formed distinct species of almost all the above varieties. *oliva.*

32. Subovate, slightly gibbous; spire elevated, with a wide and deep suture; bulb simple. Amboyna. Lister, t. 720. f. 4 and 5. *cruenta.*

33. Smooth, white, with a keel-shaped ring on the back; sometimes with reddish waves. Amboyna. Lister, t. 717. f. 1. *annulata.*

34. Suboval; spire depressed, with the whirls convex; pillar transversely ridged, with the upper ridge thickest. Mindanao and Molucca islands. Lister, t. 735. f. 25. *ventricosa*

35. Ovate, gibbous; spire rather depressed, with the whirls thickened at the base; outer lip somewhat angular, and very thick. Moluccas. Martini, ii. t. 47. f. 499 and 500. *incrassata*

36. Somewhat cone-shaped; spire short and depressed, with a vitreous mass concealing the whirls, and forming a callosity over the pillar lip; belt double. Brazil. Chem. x. t. 147. f. 1367. and 1368. *pinguis.*

37. Ovate, gibbous; spire elevated, with a vitreous mass extending over the base of the whirls, and forming a callosity over the pillar lip; belt double. Coromandel. Lister, t. 723. f. 10. *gibbosa.*

38. Cylindrical, with a prominent conic spire; and the base of each whirl coated with enamel; belt double. Isle of France. Lister, t. 722. f. 9. *ispidula.*

39. Elongated, smooth, with a prominent spire. Indian and Ethiopic seas. *utriculus.*

40. Thin, with a cinereous spotted back, callous beneath; aperture large; pillar toothed at the base. Shores of Spain. Lister, t. 729. f. 17. *hiatula.*

41. White, dotted with greenish brown, or violet; spire prominent; whirls with a band composed of spots at the base; an inch long. Shores of Spain. Lister, t. 725. f. 13. *jaspidea.*

42. Snowy, elongated, smooth, banded. Spanish seas. W. Indies. Martini, t. 50. f. 557. and 558. *nivea.*

43. Subcylindrical; spire short, depressed, covered with enamel; throat dark violet. Eastern ocean. Lister, t. 721. f. 6. *tigrina.*

44. Orange with blue bands; spire flattened; aperture white. Java and Isle of France. Martini, ii. t. 46. f. 495. *carniola.*

45. Suboblong; spire short, covered with enamel; pillar lip thickened; belt double. Moluccas and Philippines. Lister, t. 733. f. 22. *micans.*

46. Subovate; spire conical, prominent; pillar lip thickened; *nitidula.*

thickened; belt double. Philippines. Martini, ii. t. 50. f. 545 to 547.

oryza. 47. Ovate-conical, minute, white, without any spots; and the spire conoidal. Martini, ii. t. 50. f. 548.

*** *Ovate, effuse, and emarginate.*

dactylus. 48. Smooth, with decussated striæ, obtuse; pillar with six plaits; ½ inch long. India. Lister, t. 813. f. 23.

fenestrata. 49. Ovate, with strong decussated striæ, of which the longitudinal are more obtuse; pillar with 8 plaits. Indian seas. Ency. Meth. t. 372. f. 3.

crenulata. 50. Subcylindrical, with decussated striæ, and the whirls nodulous and crenulated at the suture; pillar with 8 plaits. E. Indies. Lister, t. 813. f. 23. A.

texturata. 51. Ovate-acute and granulated, with transverse grooves and longitudinal striæ; pillar with 4 plaits. Lister, t. 819. f. 36.

miliaria. 52. Slightly emarginated, white, with an obliterated pale yellow spire; pillar obliquely striated. Mediterranean. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 428.

monilis. 53. Entire white, with an obliterated white spire; pillar obliquely striated; 1½ inch long. China; where it is employed for making beads and necklaces. A variety is found in Africa only 2½ lines long, with 8 or 10 thin plaits in the pillar. China. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 426.

exilis. 54. Obovate, entire, yellowish, with two brown bands; spire prominent; pillar obliquely striated. Senegal. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 427.

persicula. 55. Smooth, with a retuse umbilicated spire; pillar with seven plaits; lip with a crenated margin; 1 inch long. African sea. Lister, t. 803. f. 10.

cingulata. 56. Ovate, smooth, transversely striped, and the spire retuse and umbilicated; pillar with 6 plaits. Cape Verde. Lister, t. 803. f. 9.

guttata. 57. Ovate-oblong, reddish, spotted with white; spire concealed; pillar with 4 plaits. Jamaica. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 417 and 418.

porcellana. 58. Oval, white, with transverse rows of dark spots; spire obtuse, under lip gibbous and toothed; pillar with 5 plaits. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 337. f. 5.

pallida. 59. Shell entire, oblong-ovate, with an elevated spire; pillar with four plaits. African and European shores. Lister, t. 714. f. 70.

catenata. * 60. Ovate, glabrous, involuted at the apex; pillar with 4 plaits. Guernsey and W. of England. Montagu, t. 6. f. 2.

lævis. * 61. Ovate, very smooth, with an obtuse spire; pillar with two plaits; outer lip gibbous, and slightly denticulated. Devonshire. Don. t. 165.

faba. 62. Slightly emarginated, smooth, a little plaited; spire prominent; pillar with four plaits; lip with a crenulated margin; one inch long. African ocean. Lister, t. 812. f. 22.

chemnitzii. 63. Ovate, smooth, with the spire nodulous; pillar 4-plaited; outer lip with a thickened toothed margin. Guinea. Chem. x. t. 150. f. 1422.

glabella. 64. Very entire, smooth, with a levigated spire; pillar with four plaits; lip gibbous; margin toothed; from one to two inches long. African and American seas. Lister, t. 818. f. 29.

picta. 65. Ovate, smooth, body transversely angular; spire conical; pillar 4-plaited; outer lip margined. Brazil. Ency. Meth. t. 377. f. 2.

castanea. 66. Ovate, shining, slightly striated longitudinally; pillar 4 plaited; outer lip thickened, and toothed within. Brazil. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 430.

strigata. 67. Ovate, smooth, obtuse; pillar five-plaited; outer lip marginated; thickened and toothed within. Guinea. Ency. Meth. t. 377. f. 7.

prunum. 68. Very entire, smooth, with a levigated spire; pillar with four plaits; lip without tooth, or margin; 1½ inch long. Island of Goree. Lister, t. 817. f. 28.

reticulata. 69. With slight decussated grooves; lip internally striated; pillars slightly perforated; two inches long. American ocean and Guinea. Lister, t. 830. f. 22.

ziervogelii. 70. Ovate, rugose; plaited longitudinally; grooved transversely at the base; sutures channelled and crenated; pillar 4-plaited; outer lip denticulated. Ency. Meth. t. 375. f. 9.

mercatoria. 71. Striated, with an obtuse spire; pillar retuse, toothed; lip gibbous, denticulated; ¾ inch long. Mediterranean, American, and Indian seas. Lister, t. 824. f. 43.

rustica. 72. Smooth, with a prominent spire; pillar retuse, toothed; lip gibbous, denticulated. Mediterranean and American seas. Lister, t. 824. f. 44.

torva. 73. Oval, oblong, smooth, obsoletely striated at the base; spire elevated; subventricose; pillar retuse, slightly toothed; outer lip gibbous and denticulated. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 826. f. 48 and 49.

pauperculla. 74. Entire, smooth, with a striated base; spire little prominent; pillar with four plaits; lip obtuse. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 819. f. 35.

pica. 75. Ovate, transversely striated throughout; spire prominent; pillar five-plaited. Saint Bartholomew. Ency. Meth. t. 372. f. 7.

ferrugata. 76. Suboval, ventricose, transversely ribbed; pillar 4-plaited. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1398. and 1399.

patriarchalis. 77. Ovate, solid, transversely striated, and angulated, with longitudinal plaits, forming nodules on the margins of the whirls; base granulated; pillar 4 plaited. East Indies. Chem. x. t. 150. f. 1425. and 1426.

muricatula. 78. Ovate, solid, transversely grooved; grooves granulated; spire short, angulated, and coronated; pillar with 4 plaits. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 150. f. 1427.

mendicaria. 79. Slightly striated, with a slightly granulated spire; pillar smooth; lip gibbous and denticulated; size of a kidney bean. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 826. f. 47.

nana. 80. Ovate, ribbed longitudinally, and at the base transversely grooved; pillar three-plaited; outer lip denticulated. Mediterranean. Martini, ii. t. 44. f. 459.

microzonias. 81. Ovate, obtusely ribbed longitudinally; transversely wrinkled at the base; pillar 3-plaited. East Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 374. f. 8.

cancellata. 82. Entire, plaited, reticulated; pillar with three plaits, slightly umbilicated, and a little produced. African ocean. Lister, 830. f. 33. and 34.

nassa. 83. Entire, ovate, transversely striated and sharply ridged longitudinally, with the whirls flattened at the sutures;

sutures; pillar umbilicated and three-plaited. Guinea. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1172. and 1173.

elegans. 84. Smooth, white, with blue bands and yellow mouth; spire nearly obliterated; pillar six-toothed; scarcely one inch long. Martini, ii. t. 42. f. 424. and 425.

bullata. 85. Smooth, greenish white, with numerous bands; lip inflected; pillar with four plaits; 2¾ inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 803. f. 11.

marginata 86. Spire obsolete; sides with thickened margins; four plaits in the pillar. Guinea. Ency. Meth. t. 376. f. 9.

nucea. 87. Substriated, glabrous; spire obtuse, smooth, prominent; five plaits in the pillar. Indian ocean. Gronovius, t. 18. f. 11.

conus. 88. Conic, white, with hollow punctured grooves at the base; whirls crenated; six plaits in the pillar. Lister, t. 814. f. 23. b.

**** *Fusiform.*

tringa. 89. Nearly entire, oblong, smooth, with a prominent excoriated spire; three plaits in the pillar; lip slightly toothed inwardly. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 825. f. 45.

cornicula. 90. Oblong, slightly emarginated, smooth, and horn-coloured; spire rather long; pillar four-plaited; outer lip equal and toothless. Mediterranean. Chem. xi. t. 179. f. 1731. and 1732.

schroeteri. 91. Oblong, fusiform, nearly entire, smooth, of a horn-colour, clouded with white and yellowish brown spots; pillar four plaited. Guinea. Ency. Meth. t. 371. f. 2.

virgo. 92. Entire, tapering, plaited, and transversely striated; three plaits in the pillar, which is perforated. About a finger's length, and marked with about twelve grooves. Haynam.

fissurata. 93. Fusiform, emarginate, very smooth, of a pale colour, irregularly reticulated with white lines; pillar four-plaited. Ency. Meth. t. 377. f. 1.

scabricula 94. Emarginated, striated, and transversely wrinkled; four plaits in the pillar, which is perforated; lip notched; two inches long. India. Ency. Meth. t. 371. f. 5.

ruffina. 95. Nearly entire, transversely wrinkled; four plaits in the pillar; lip crenulated. India. Lister, t. 822. f. 40.

nubila. 96. Nearly entire, smooth, yellowish with red clouds transversely striated; lip crenulated; four plaits in the pillar. Friendly islands. Chem. xi. t. 177. f. 1705. and 1706.

sanguisuga. 97. Emarginated, longitudinally grooved and transversely striated; lips smooth; four plaits in the pillar; 1½ inch long. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 821. f. 38.

caffra. 98. Emarginated, round, smooth; whirls of the spire with plaited striæ; four plaits in the pillar; 2½ inches long. Asiatic sea. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 4.

morio. 99. Slightly emarginated, round, smooth; about three plaits in the pillar. W. Indies.

acus. 100. Tapering, marked with transverse rays of red dots; spire pointed, smooth: scarcely an inch long. Martini, iv. t. 157. f. 1493. and 1494.

vulpecula. 101. Emarginated, subangular, unarmed, and transversely striated; four plaits in the pillar; throat striated; two inches long. India. Amboyna. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 5.

costellaris. 102. Turreted, emarginate, longitudinally ribbed, and striated transversely; whirls angulated above; pillar four-plaited. East Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 3.

melongena 103. Fusiform, with small longitudinal ribs and transverse striæ, which are strongest under the sutures; pillar four-plaited. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 3.

tæniata. 104. Turreted, elongated, longitudinally plaited, ribbed and angular, and transversely grooved; pillar four-plaited. Bombay. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 7.

plicaria. 105. Emarginated, angular, anterior angles a little spinous; four plaits in the pillar; lip smooth; 2 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 820. f. 37.

cruentata. 106. Turreted, emarginate, angular, with longitudinal knotty ribs; and transversely striated; pillar three-plaited. East Indies. Chem. x. t. 157. f. 1438. and 1439.

scutulata. 107. Tapering, black with white spots, transversely striated, first whirl a little ventricose; four plaits in the pillar. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 151. f. 1428. and 1429.

nigra. 108. Tapering, emarginated, blackish; whirls flattish; four plaits in the pillar. Guinea, Greenland. Chem. x. t. 151. f. 1430. and 1431.

subdivisa. 109. Tapering, emarginated, longitudinally ribbed, plaited, and transversely striated; three plaits in the pillar. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 1.

turricula. 110. Turreted, with the whirls transversely angular; outer lip thick, pillar two-plaited. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1376.

abbatis. 111. Fusiform, elongated, subemarginate, and transversely striated; outer lip rather thick; pillar four-plaited. East Indies. Chem. xi. t. 177. f. 1709. and 1710.

serpentina 112. Subfusiform, with transverse punctured striæ, and longitudinal undulated chesnut stripes; pillar five-plaited. Indian ocean. Ency. Meth. t. 370. f. 4.

olivaria. 113. Ovate, fusiform, nearly smooth, with obsolete transverse striæ; pillar five-plaited. Ency. Meth. t. 371. f. 3.

digitalis. 114. Oblong, fusiform, emarginate, with transverse crenulated grooves, and the margin of the whirls toothed; outer lip denticulated; pillar above five-plaited. East Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 370. f. 5.

exasperata 115. Tapering, emarginated, granulous, with decussated striæ and longitudinal ribs barred with brown; five plaits in the pillar. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 151. f. 1440. and 1441.

granosa. 116. Tapering, emarginated, transversely striated and longitudinally grooved, with elevated dots and reddish lines; three plaits in the pillar. Indian ocean. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 151. f. 1442. and 1443.

casta. 117. Tapering, smooth, brown with white bands; six plaits in the pillar, which is emarginated at the base. Shores of Amboyna. Chem. x. vig. 20. f. C. and D.

leucogonias. 118. Tapering, chesnut, with flexuous white bands; pillar obsoletely plaited: two inches long. Martini, iv. t. 148. f. 1371. and 1372.

maculosa. 119. Tapering, white with reticulated and spotted brown bands: one inch long. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1377.

119. Tapering,

nodulosa. 120. Tapering, brown, cancellated; angles of the section nodulous, and whitish: four plaits in the pillar. West Indies. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1385.

spadicea. 121. Tapering, chesnut with yellow clouds and spots; eight whirls in the spire, which are longitudinally plaited and transversely striated; five plaits in the pillar. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1392.

aurantia. 122. Tapering, orange; a white band in the four first whirls of the spire; lip denticulated; four plaits in the pillar. Ency. Meth. t. 375. f. 5.

decussata. 123. Tapering, with decussated striæ; the longitudinal ones undulated; about four plaits in the pillar. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1395.

polygona. 124. Tapering, punctured, whirls longitudinally ribbed, and finely striated transversely; three first angular, about five plaits in a slightly umbilicated pillar. East Indies. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1401. and 1402.

acuminata 125. Tapering, cancellated; beak short and cancellated; four plaits in the pillar. Tranquebar. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1403. and 1404.

biplicata. 126. Tapering, smooth, white with yellow spots and black dots; pillar doubly plaited. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1375.

lineata. 127. Tapering, with perpendicular black lines crossing a white band; 3 plaits in the pillar. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1376.

discors. 128. Tapering, beneath brown dotted with white; above white, with perpendicular waved yellow stripes; a minute shell. West Indies. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1400.

striata. 129. Tapering, finely striated transversely; dusky, with red dots, and two paler bands; minute. Minorca. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1405. and 1406.

sulcata. 130. Tapering and grooved longitudinally; brown, with a transverse white nodulous band; pillar five-toothed. Tranquebar. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1407.

lævigata. 131. Tapering, smooth, brown; spire with a paler band; narrow, small. Mediterranean. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1408.

ocellata. 132. Tapering, chesnut, with white eyes; minute. W. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1409.

nasuta. 133. Tapering, red, with rows of black dots; lip prominent; beak reflected. W. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1411.

marmorea 134. Tapering, varied with white and brown; lip inflected. W. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1411.

barbadensis. 135. Tapering, reddish, finely striated transversely; aperture oblong, oval; spire obtuse; 1½ inch long. American seas, Barbadoes. Lister, t. 819. f. 33.

turrita. 136. Tapering, chesnut brown, with undulated brown lines; aperture striated; 3 plaits in the pillar. Lister, t. 836. f. 62.

rugosa. 137. Tapering, a little ventricose; longitudinally wrinkled, and transversely striated; whitish, with piceous lines. E. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 373. f. 8.

strigosa. 138. Tapering, cinereous, striated with red; spire glabrous; whirls rather tumid.

clathrus. 139. Tapering, whitish, cancellated; whirls with a band of yellow spots. China. Knorr. iii. t. 27. f. 2.

leucostoma 140. Tapering; spire acute, with longitudinal ribs, which reach half down the body; transversely striated transversely; pillar with 8 plates: the whole shell covered with longitudinal undulated clouds of a brown colour; outer lip crenulated. E. Indies. Very rare. Knorr. iv. t. 11. f. 3.

variegata. 141. Tapering, transversely striated; yellow, with a brown band and spots. Knorr. v. t. 18. f. 6.

filaris. 142. Emarginated, tapering, marked with decussated striæ, and red thread-like lines; pillar 3-plaited.

costata. 143. Tapering, white; spire with fine transverse striæ, and rounded ribs; first whirl with 3 brown bands; 4 plaits in the pillar. Schroeter, i. t. 1. f. 17.

spuria. 144. Ovate, white; spire spotted with brown; six brown bands in the first whirl; tail emarginated; lip impressed; pillar 6-plaited.

pertusa. 145. Emarginated, striated, and marked with hollow punctures; lip denticulated; 5 plaits in the pillar; 3 inches long. India. Lister, t. 858. f. 65.

episcopalis 146. Emarginated, smooth; margin of the whirls entire; lip denticulated; 4 plaits in the pillar; 5 inches long. India. Lister, t. 839. f. 66.—The animal of this shell is said to be poisonous when it is eaten, and has the power of inflicting a wound on those who touch it, with a kind of pointed trunk. The natives of the island Tanna employ the shell as a hatchet, fixing it in a handle.

papalis. 147. Emarginated, transversely striated; margins of the whirls and lip denticulated; pillar 4-plaited. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 839. f. 67.

tiara. 148. Emarginate, with transverse, hollow, punctured striæ; whirls contracted below, and strongly toothed at the margins; outer lip denticulated, and pillar 4-plaited. Madagascar. Lister, t. 840. f. 68.

coronata. 149. Ovate, fusiform; transversely striated and punctured, with the sutures nodulous; pillar 5-plaited. W. Indies. Ency. Meth. t. 371. f. 6.

musica. 150. Margined, with obtuse spines in the whirls; lip smooth and very thick; pillar 8-plaited. American ocean. The plaits in the pillar are from 9 to 12 in some varieties. Lister, t. 806. f. 15.

virescens. 151. Emarginate, with pointed nodules on the whirls; spire produced at the summit; plaits on the pillar numerous. Guinea. Ency. Meth. t. 382. f. 3.

plicata. 152. Emarginate, longitudinally plaited and angular, and transversely grooved; spire nodulous; pillar with 12 plaits. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 149. f. 1403 and 4.

vespertilio 153. Emarginated, with acute spines on the whirls; lip smooth; pillar 4-plaited; from 3 to 6 inches long. Indian seas. Lister, t. 807. f. 16.

imperialis. 154. Emarginate; spire with curved spines; summit slightly mamillary; pillar 4-plaited. Molucca and Philippine islands. Ency. Meth. t. 382. f. 1.

pacifica. 155. Oblong, fusiform, emarginate; spire much produced, and transversely angulated and nodulous; pillar with 5 plaits. Otaheite and New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 178. f. 1713 and 14.

ebræa. 156. Emarginated; whirls with subacute spines; 5 stronger and 3 obsolete plaits in the pillar; 6 inches long. India, Jamaica. Very rare. Lister, t. 809. f. 18.

turbinellus. 157. Nearly entire, turbinated, with conic somewhat erect spines; upper ones larger; pillar 4-plaited; 3 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 811. f. 20.

capitellum. 158. Ovate, rugged, knotty; 3 plaits in the pillar; 2¾ inches long. Indian and American seas. Chem. xi. t. 179. f. 1723 and 4.

rhinoceros 159. Ovate, triangular, rugged, knotty, transversely grooved and umbilicated; pillar 3-plaited; lip toothed; throat

throat striated; whirls muricated with knobs. Shores of New Guinea. Chem. x. t. 150. f. 1407 and 8.

muricata. 160. Ovate, with alternately smaller ribs; base nodulous; whirls spinous; pillar 5-plaited. Jamaica. Lister, t. 810. f. 19.

ceramica. 161. Ovate, acute, with divergent spires; about 5 plaits in the pillar; spines on the outer whirls gradually lessening into tubercles. Coromandel and Ceram. Lister, t. 829. f. 51.

pyrum. 162. Obovate, slightly tailed, with striated whirls on the spire; tip produced and quite glabrous; pillar 3-plaited; 7 inches long. Tranquebar and Ceylon. Lister, t. 815. f. 25.

gravis. 163. Ovate, somewhat beaked; striated, and slightly reticulated; spire rather depressed; whirls convex; pillar 3-plaited. Molucca. Ency. Meth. t. 390. f. 1.

globosa. 164. Subglobular, emarginate, solid, longitudinally plaited and grooved, with transverse striæ; spire nodulous; pillar 3-plaited. Chem. xi. t. 178. f. 1715 and 16.

lapponica. 165. Obovate, smooth, with a pointed spire, and ventricose; pillar 5-plaited. Indian and American seas. Ency. Meth. t. 381. f. 3.

zebra. 166. Ovate, fusiform, emarginate, smooth, with the spire somewhat papillary at the summit; pillar 5-plaited, with the uppermost plait obsolete. New Holland. Rare. Leach. Zool. Misc. i. t. 12. f. 1.

flavicans. 167. Pyriform, smooth, with yellowish clouds; spire varied with chesnut spots; 4 plaits in the pillar. E. Indies. Martini, iii. t. 95. f. 922.

vexillum. 168. Ventricose, yellowish-white, with orange bands; first whirl tuberculated and larger than the rest; pillar 6-plaited. Indian ocean. Very rare. Ency. Meth. t. 381. f. 1.

rupestris. 169. Elongated, ribbed; ribs crossed with fine transverse lines; lip margined; spire papillary at the tip; many plaits in the pillar; 4 inches long. Japan. Martini, t. 98. f. 941. and 2.

undulata. 170. Ovate, fusiform, emarginate, scored at the base; spire short, and conical; pillar 4-plaited. Australasia and Van Diemen's Land. Shaw's Nat. Misc. xvii. t. 702.

volva. 171. Cylindrical, whitish, glabrous; spire projecting, obtuse, emarginated at the base; pillar 4-plaited; 2 inches long. Shores of Guinea. Chem. x. t. 148. f. 1389 and 90.

junonia. 172. Ovate, smooth, transversely striated at the base; spire striated longitudinally, and the summit papillary; pillar with 7 plaits. Pacific ocean. Shaw's Nat. Misc. xix. t. 815.

nivosa. 173. Ovate, smooth; whirls transversely angular, and subpapillary at the summit; outer lip sharply angulated above; pillar 4-plaited.

scapha. 174. Coarse, clouded, with zig-zag brown lines; lip subulate; pillar bluish, with 4 plaits. Cape of Good Hope. Very rare. Lister, t. 709. f. 6.

spiralis. 175. Longitudinally ribbed, and finely striated transversely; a row of acute tubercles on the two first whirls; 3 plaits on the pillar. Indian seas. Rumphius, t. 29. f. X.

magellanica. 176. Ventricose, ochraceous, with white and brown lines; lip subulate; whirls of the spire convex; first largest; 2 inches long. Straits of Magellan. Ency. Meth. t. 385. f. 1 and 3.

filosa. 177. Finely reticulated and striated, with elevated transverse belts; lip crenated; 4 plaits in the pillar, which is a little umbilicated. E. Indies. Gualteri, t. 53. f. H.

magnifica. 178. Ovate, emarginate, subventricose, glabrous; whirls transversely angulated; summit papillary; aperture effuse; pillar 4-plaited. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 174. f.

***** *Ventricose, and the summit of the spire papillary.*

colocynthis 179. Subglobular, with a transverse row of nodulous plaits on the body whirl; spire short; elevated pillar 2-plaited. Chem. xi. t. 176. f. 1695 and 6.

æthiopica. 180. Emarginated; spire crowned with vaulted spines; 4 plaits in the pillar; 7 or 8 inches long. Persia, Asia, and the Cape of Good Hope. Lister, t. 797.

corona. 181. Ovate, emarginate, with longitudinal striæ, ending on spines on the upper margin of the body; pillar 4-plaited. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 148. f. 1387 and 8.

cymbium. 182. Emarginated; whirls of the spire with grooved margins; 4 plaits in the pillar; lip callous. Spain, Africa, and America. Lister, t. 796. f. 3.

cymbiola. 183. Ovate, glabrous; whitish, with longitudinal red lines; whirls knotty; 3 plaits in the pillar; 2 inches long. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 148. f. 1385.

porcina. 184. Somewhat cylindrical, whitish, with the spire truncated, rather concave, and its margin keeled; pillar 3-plaited. Philippine islands. Ency. Meth. t. 386. f. 2.

olla. 185. Emarginated; spire smooth; pillar 3-plaited; 4 inches long. Spain, America, Philippine isles. Lister, t. 794. f. 1.

neptuni. 186. Emarginated; covered with a brown cuticle, under which it is reddish; lip a little prominent; 4 plaits in the pillar; 4 whirls in the spire; 8 inches long; nearly as broad. Persian gulf. Lister, t. 802. f. 8.

navicula. 187. Emarginated; lip a little prominent; pillar 4-plaited; 2 inches long. Guinea. Lister, t. 795. f. 2.

indica. 188. Elongated, yellow, with 3 bands of brown dots; 4 plaits in the pillar. India. Ency. Meth. t. 389. f. 1.

præputium. 189. Subovate, testaceous, with reddish bay spots, emarginated at the base; 4 plaits in the pillar. Coromandel coast. Lister, t. 798. f. 5.

glans. 190. Cylindrical, yellowish, emarginated; aperture effuse, spreading; 3 plaits in the pillar. Eastern shores of Africa. Chem. x. t. 148. f. 1393 and 94.

Gen. 24. Buccinum, *Whelk.* 52 Buccinum.

Gen. Char.—Shell univalve, spiral, gibbous; aperture ovate, terminating in a short canal which bends to the right, with a retuse beak; pillar-lip flattened.

Species.

* *Inflated, rounded, thin, slightly transparent and brittle.*

olearium. 1. Roundish, transversely ribbed, with an elevated line in the interstices; aperture without teeth; 6 inches long. Indian ocean. Rumphius, t. 27. f. D.

galea. 2. Ovate, transversely ribbed; ribs convex, and becoming

coming double near the edge; aperture toothless; 10 inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 898. f. 18.

perdix. 3. Ovate, inflated, slightly grooved and undulated with white; aperture toothless; 6 inches long. West Indies. Lister, t. 984. f. 43.

pomum. 4. Ovate, with transverse convex ribs; pillar wrinkled; outer lip toothed and thickened; 2½ inches long. Amboyna, &c. Lister, t. 792. f. 45.

sulcosum. 5. Ovate, with transverse flat ribs; pillar-lip smooth; outer lip toothed and thickened; 4 inches long. China. Martini, iii. t. 118. f. 1081.

dolium. 6. Ovate, inflated, with remote semi-cylindrical ribs; beak prominent; 4 inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 899. f. 19.

chinense. 7. Globose, inflated, ribbed and striated transversely; aperture spreading; outer-lip crenated; 7 inches long. Java and China. Chem. xi. t. 188. f. 1804. and 1805.

caudatum. 8. Ovate, with transverse rounded ribs, beak somewhat prominent; outer-lip plaited and toothed within; 1¾ inch long. Martini, iii. t. 118. f. 1083. and 1084.

** *With a short exserted reflected beak, and the outer-lip unarmed outwardly.*

echinophorum. 9. With four tuberculated belts, and the beak prominent; and with transverse elevated striæ; 3½ inches long. Lister, t. 1003. f. 68.

nodosum. 10. With five acute transverse belts; upper one tuberculated; beak prominent; 1½ inch long. Lister, t. 1011. f. 71. f.

rugosum. 11. With crowded transverse elevated striæ, of which two of the upper are tuberculated, and broader than the others; aperture toothed on both sides; 3¼ inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1011. f. 71. e.

abbreviatum. 12. With crowded transverse, elevated equal striæ; whirls inflated, and decreasing gradually; base abbreviated; aperture toothed on both sides; beaks truncated; 1½ inch long. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 153. f. 1465. and 1466.

plicatum. 13. Slightly plaited on the fore-part, with decussated striæ; aperture toothed, beak recurved; 2½ inches long. Jamaica. Lister, t. 1002. f. 67.

cornutum. 14. Turbinated, and armed with three transverse rows of tubercles; inner-lip much dilated and rounded; aperture toothed; beak much recurved; 13 inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 1006. f. 70.

rufum. 15. With decussated striæ, and nodulous transverse belts, between which is a double line; aperture toothed; beak recurved; 7 inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 1007, f. 71.

tuberosum 16. Turbinated, and armed with 3 transverse rows of tubercles; inner-lip much dilated and triangular; aperture toothed, beak recurved; 7 inches long. W. Indies. Gualteri, t. 41.

flammeum 17. Shell longitudinally plaited, transversely nodulous, and slightly coronated; plaits on the spire imbricated; aperture toothed, beak recurved; 4½ inches long. West Indies. Lister, t. 1004. f. 69.

testiculus. 18. Shell ovate, with elevated longitudinal and decussated striæ; aperture toothed; beak recurved; 3 inches long. West Indies. Lister, t. 1001. f. 66.

decussatum. 19. With decussated striæ, covered with small square scales; aperture toothed; beak recurved; 1¾ inch long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1000. f. 63.

20. Body whirl smooth; spire elevated, rough, with decussated striæ; aperture toothed; pillar wrinkled; beak recurved; 2½ inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1012. f. 76. *areolatum.*

21. Subventricose; body whirl rather smooth, and the spire rough with decussated striæ; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar wrinkled; 3½ inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1014. f. 78. *strigatum.*

22. Whirls inflated and rounded, with narrow transverse grooves; aperture toothed; pillar-lip strongly wrinkled transversely at the base; beak recurved; 2¼ inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1012. f. 76. *saburon.*

23. Shell transversely grooved, and longitudinally striated; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar-lip granulated; 4 inches long. Lister, t. 1056. f. 9. *granulatum.*

24. Thick, with transverse broad convex ribs; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar-lip granulated; 3½ inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 996. f. 61. *undulatum.*

25. Ventricose, and slightly ribbed transversely; upper whirls with decussated striæ; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar-lip wrinkled and granulated; 4½ inches long. Indian ocean. Chem. xi. t. 186. f. 1792. and 1793. *inflatum.*

26. Slightly plaited longitudinally, and granulated above; spire rather depressed; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar lip wrinkled and granulated; 4¼ inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 997. f. 62. *tesselatum.*

* 27. Smooth, with a double row of tubercles on the body whirl; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar lip wrinkled and granulated; size of a hazel nut. Weymouth. Lister, t. 998. f. 63. *bilineatum.*

28. Ovate, smooth, covered with hollow dots; spire elongated; aperture toothed; beak recurved; pillar lip wrinkled and granulated. Indian ocean. Gronovius, t. 19. f. 1. and 2. *cicatricosum.*

29. Slightly striated longitudinally; body whirl inflated; spire rather prominent; outer lip toothed; beak recurved; pillar smooth; 2¾ inches long. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 1016. f. 75. *recurvirostrum.*

30. Slightly striated transversely; beak recurved; inner lip membranaceous, and united to the pillar, with crowded transverse elevated striæ; outer lip thin; 1½ inch long. Bay of Naples. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1456. *cassis.*

*** *Resembling the last division, but the outer lip on the outside is spinous at the base.*

31. Slightly plaited longitudinally, and crowned with papillæ; outer lip muricated at the base; 1½ inch long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 1015. f. 73. *erinaceus.*

32. Slightly plaited longitudinally, and crowned with papillæ; outer lip with two rows of sharp spines; 1 inch long. Schroeter, i. t. 2. f. 9. *bicarinatum.*

33. Longitudinally plaited, and nodulous on the shoulder; crowned with papillæ; spire cancellated; outer lip toothed within, and muricated at the base; 2¾ inches long. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 153. f. 1459. and 1460. *fimbria.*

34. Smooth, and crowned with papillæ; spire cancellated; outer lip toothed within, and muricated at the base; 4 inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 996. f. 60. *glaucum.*

35. Quite smooth and level; outer lip externally muricated towards the base; pillar slightly plaited; 2 inches long. Jamaica, &c. Martini, ii. t. 35. f. 364. 5. and 6. *vibex.*

36. Covered

papillosum 36. Covered with rows of tubercles; outer lip muricated at the base; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 969. f. 23.

glans. 37. Smooth; summit of the spire longitudinally grooved; outer lip muricated; inside delicately striated; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 981. f. 40.

gibbum. 38. Subventricose, smooth, slightly striated; outer lip muricated at the base; upper part of the pillar lip becomes abruptly rounded by the inflated contour of the whirl; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Bay of Naples. Lister, t. 975. f. 30.

**** *With the pillar lip dilated and thickened.*

arcularia. 39. Plaited longitudinally, and transversely striated; whirls papillary above; pillar lip dilated and thickened; outer lip crenated on the margin, and striated within; 14 lines long. Isle of France. Lister, t. 970. f. 24.

coronatum. 40. Striated at the base; whirls smooth, and with white tubercles at the sutures; outer lip spinous; 1 inch long. Madagascar. Schroeter, i. t. 2. f. 4.

hepaticum * 41. Ribbed longitudinally, and papillary at the sutures; spire sharp-pointed; with 7 strongly ribbed whirls; pillar lip dilated, and rugose; 1 inch long. Dorsetshire coast. Montagu, t. 8. f. 1.

pullus. 42. Gibbous, obliquely striated, and cancellated; pillar lip dilated and thickened; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 970. f. 25.

thersites. 43. Gibbous, with half the body whirl, and the whole spire longitudinally plaited; pillar lip dilated and thickened; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 971. f. 26.

verrucosum. 44. Gibbous and tuberculated; pillar lip dilated and thickened; has 4 rows of tubercles on the body whirl, in which it differs from B. thersites; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. E. Indies. Lister, t. 972. f. 27.

gibbosulum. 45. Gibbous, smooth; pillar lip dilated and thickened; spire short, pointed, and half buried in the lip; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 973. f. 28.

mutabile. 46. Oblong-oval, smooth; upper whirls longitudinally grooved; pillars two plaited; 13 lines long. Senegal. Chem. xi. t. 188. f. 1010. and 1011.

neritium. 47. Convex, obtuse, depressed, and smooth; pillar lip obsoletely dilated and thickened; aperture emarginate at the base; $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Adriatic. Chem. v. t. 166. f. 1602.

***** *Pillar lip appearing as if worn flat.*

harpa. 48. With longitudinal, keeled, mucronate, remote ribs, and longitudinally striated; pillar smooth; from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 994. f. 57.

This beautiful shell has very properly been instituted a new genus, of which there are about 10 species; one of which, the many-stringed harp, a native of Amboyna, is often sold for 50l. or 60l. sterling.

cancellatum. 49. With 16 longitudinal mucronate ribs, with their interstices transversely striated; pillar smooth; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Tranquebar. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1453.

costatum. 50. With crowded longitudinal mucronate ribs; pillar smooth. Philippine islands. Martini, iii. t. 119. f. 1093.

persicum. 51. Scabrous, with a crenated outer lip and flat pillar; brown, with transverse bands and lines. Amboyna. Lister, t. 987. f. 47.

52. Muricated; outer lip crenated without, and the pillar oblique and falcated; with six or seven spinous elevated belts on the body; 2 to 4 inches long. America and E. Indies. Lister, t. 989. f. 49. *patulum.*

53. Transversely ribbed, and longitudinally wrinkled, which gives it a scaly appearance; outer lip crenulated, and armed with a subulate tooth at its base; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Cape Horn. Martini, iii. t. 69. f. 761. *monodon.*

54. Transversely ribbed, and the spire short; pillar oblique; outer lip crenulated, and striated within. Resembles the former; but is smooth, and has no teeth; 2 inches long. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1449 and 50. *haustrum.*

55. Spire obliquely recurved; aperture very large; outer lip reflected; pillar lip with two obsolete teeth at the base; external surface rugged; inside smooth; 4 inches long. Peru. Favanne, i. t. 4. f. H. 2. *concholepas.*

56. Submuricated; outer lip striated within; pillar flatteued; throat and aperture fulvous; transversely striated, with four elevated belts; upper two nodulous; 4 inches long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 988. f. 48. *hæmostoma.*

57. Turbinated, armed with three transverse rows of large conical tubercles on the body whirl; aperture white; 3 inches long. South sea. Chem. xi. t. 187. f. 1798 and 9. *armigerum.*

58. With crowded transverse striæ, and four rows of tubercles on the body whirl, and two on the spire; aperture yellowish; 2 inches long. South sea. Chem. xi. t. 187. f. 1800 and 1801. *lutecostomum.*

59. Deeply channelled transversely, with longitudinal remote and narrow ribs; body whirl lamellated towards the outer lip, and the inside bright blue; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. New Zealand. Chem. x. Vig. 21. f. A. and B. *lamellosum.*

60. Ribbed transversely, and longitudinally wrinkled, with curled imbricated membranes; aperture ovate; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 187. f. 1802 and 3. *crispatum.*

* 61. Ovate, acute, striated longitudinally and transversely, without any protuberances; pillar flattish; aperture oval; outer lip slightly toothed; 2 inches long. Coasts of Great Britain. Don. i. t. 11. *lapillus.*

The famous purple dye, supposed to be the same as the indelible *Tyrian purple*, is extracted from a vein on the back of the animal which inhabits this shell.

62. Ovate, whitish, with red transverse striæ; spire rather prominent; aperture oval; outer lip striated with red, and the pillar subumbilicated; 1 inch long. Martini, iii. t. 121. f. 1113 and 14. *filosum.*

63. Oblong-ovate, with the whirls contiguous and transversely grooved; outer lip crenulated and striated within; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 976. f. 31. *sulcatum.*

64. Ovate-oblong, with transverse crenulated striæ; the pillar livid; 2 inches long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 986. f. 45. *sertum.*

65. Ovate, acute, and very smooth; outer lip crenulated, and striated within; pillar slightly plaited; aperture beaked; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 831. f. 55. *smaragdulus.*

66. Ovate, coarse, with transverse elevated nodulous ribs; aperture ovate, and the pillar without plaits; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Martini, iii. t. 121. f. 1106. *varium.*

67. Subfusiform; body nearly smooth, and thrice as long as the spire, which is cancellated; $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. *tuba.*

long. Indian ocean. Martini, iii. p. 201. t. 94. f. 908.

pyrum. 68. Pyriform, with a short depressed spire, and the body ventricose; pillar smooth, transversely striated at the base; aperture orange; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Martini, iii, t. 94. f. 908 and 10.

plumbeum 69. Subglobose, ponderous, glabrous, with a deep transverse groove near the base of the body whirl, and an obsolete one lower down, and ends in a projecting tooth on the pillar lip, which is thick; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. California. Chem. xi. t. 188. f. 1806 and 7.

spadiceum 70. Pyriform, smooth, chesnut-coloured, with transverse undulated white lines; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. W. Indies. Martini, iii. t. 94. f. 911.

umbilicatum. 71. Oblong, subturbinated, and slightly plaited longitudinally; spire nodose, transversely striated at the base; aperture grooved within, and the pillar subumbilicated; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Martini, iii. t. 94. f. 915.

candidum 72. Ovate, ventricose, ponderous; smooth, white, without any markings; spire short; 2 inches long. Martini, iii. Vig. 31. p. 191. f. 3.

crassum. 73. Subglobose, ventricose, and glabrous; aperture oval, and the pillar thickened, with two callosities; spire small, with five whirls; 2 inches long. Martini, iii. t. 120. f. 1099 and 1100.

orbita. 74. Ovate, thick, with transverse, distant, knotty, reflected ribs, and intermediate smaller ones; outer lip plaited; 3 inches long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 154. f. 1473.

scala. 75. Ovate, with distant recurved elevated transverse white belts, and their interstices longitudinally striated; whirl faced, flattened at top; aperture toothed on the outer lip, and strongly grooved within; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Cape. Lister, t. 1059. f. 2.

****** *Somewhat polished, and not enumerated in the former divisions.*

spiratum. 76. Smooth, with the whirls separated by a deep canal, somewhat sunk into each other; pillar abrupt and perforated; 2 inches long. E. Indies. Lister, t. 983. f. 42. c.

zeylanicum. 77. Smooth, with the whirls produced; pillar abrupt, with a large umbilicus, and toothed at the margin. Amboyna. Lister, t. 982. f. 42.

glabratum 78. Umbilicated, highly polished, with obsolete sutures; body whirl channelled and produced at the base; 3 inches long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 974. f. 29.

turgitum. 79. Ovate, subumbilicated, smooth, with transverse rows of red spots, and a sinus in the outer lip; spire with 6 whirls; upper 3 slightly plaited longitudinally; under ones smooth and level; 2 inches long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 156. f. 1475 and 1476.

scutulatum. 80. Ovate, smooth, brown, with longitudinal veins; whirls flattish, and beak obtuse; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. New Zealand. Chem. vig. 21. f. C. and D.

testudineum. 81. Oblong-ovate, smooth, with transverse rows of crowded dark brown spots, and somewhat produced at the base; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1454.

catarracta 82. Ovate, rough, with crowded, minute, transverse grooves; and marked longitudinally with undulated decurrent stripes; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1455.

lævissimum. 83. Oblong-ovate, polished; obliquely truncated at the base; apex obtuse; pillar-lip concave; 2 inches long. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 127. f. 1215 and 1216.

cyaneum. 84. Ovate-oblong, brittle, transversely striated, and bluish; whirls imbricated at the sutures; pillar with one plait; striated minutely; $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1448.

læve. 85. Ovate-oblong, smooth, brown, with darker bands; and minute, distant, transverse striæ; aperture oval, ending in a canal; body ventricose, double the length of the spire; 16 lines long. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1150.

igneum. 86. Oblong, narrow, glabrous, yellowish, clouded with red, upper part longitudinally striated; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Martini, iv. t. 127. f. 1217.

plumatum 87. Oblong, transversely striated; pillar lip with a tooth at the upper end, and the outer lip striated; 2 inches long. Jamaica. Lister, t. 822. b. f. 41.

ocellatum. 88. Smooth, black, with rows of white spots and dots; body whirl ventricose, and the spire rather prominent and nodulous; inside blue; 1 inch long. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1160 and 1161.

glaberrimum. 89. Very smooth, minute, with the base truncated; 7 lines long. Martini, iv. t. 125. f. 1177.

nucleus. 90. Oblong-ovate, transversely striated; pillar obliquely grooved; aperture truncated at the base; 7 lines long. Madagascar. Lister, t. 976. f. 32.

lineatum. 91. Oblong, smoothish, transversely striped; spire acute, pyramidal; outer lip a little expanded; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. W. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 125. f. 1188 and 1189.

exile. 92. Oblong, cancellated; aperture expanded; spotted and crenated; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Martini, iv. t. 125. f. 1190 and 1191.

prærosum 93. Ovate, smooth, black; spire carious and abrupt; pillar glabrous; 7 lines long. S. of Europe. Fluviatile. Chem. ix. t. 121. f. 1035 and 1036.

cochlidium 94. Oblong, smooth, white; whirls flattened at the sutures; aperture oval and effuse; 3 inches long. S. sea islands. Terrestrial. Chem. xi. t. 209. f. 2053 and 2054.

australe. 95. Oblong, smooth, with narrow, transverse, varie-gated bands and veins; aperture oval, and entire; 3 inches long. New Zealand. Fluviatile. Chem. ix. t. 120. f. 1033 and 1034.

******* *Angulated, and not included in the former divisions.*

undosum. 96. Ovate, with transverse, elevated, glabrous striæ; body obtusely 5-angled; pillar slightly plaited at the base; 2 inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 938. f. 33.

affine. 97. Ovate, with transverse, elevated, glabrous striæ; body rounded; outer lip swollen; pillar toothed; 2 inches long. Straits of Malacca. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1135.

fulmosum. 98. Nearly oval, longitudinally plaited, and transversely ribbed; interstices striated; aperture effuse; 2 inches long. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1145 and 1146.

indicum. 99. Ovate, reticulated, with transverse ribs, and elevated longitudinal striæ; aperture effuse; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1138 and 1139.

tranquebaricum. 100. Ovate, with 12 angles; nodulous, striated transversely; aperture toothed; outer lip orange; pillar toothed;

toothed; 2 inches long. Coromandel. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1146 to 1149.

versicolor. 101. Coarse, transversely striated, with 2 intermediate rows of black dots; spire with 4 concave whirls; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1145.

cruentatum. 102. Ovate, white, minutely striated transversely, with squarish red spots; whirls convex. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1143 and 1144.

bezoar. 103. Roundish, whirls lamellated above; pillar perforated; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. China. Martini, iii. t. 68. f. 754 and 755.

bulbosum. 104. Roundish, obliquely contracted at the base, with two transverse rows of vaulted spines; whirls channelled at the sutures; aperture and umbilicus very wide; 4 inches long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 894. f. 14.

glaciale. 105. Ovate-oblong, smooth, and somewhat striated transversely; body slightly keeled; 3 inches long. Northern ocean. Chem. x. t. 152. f. 1446 and 1447.

carinatum 106. Oblong, transversely striated; upper whirls with many oblique and obtuse angles; lower whirls single keeled; 2 inches long. Spitsbergen. Phipps' Voyage, t. 13. f. 2.

lamellatum. 107. Oblong, lamellated longitudinally; white, with a purple inside, and white pillar lip; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Kæmmer Cab. t. 9. f. 2.

undatum. * 108. Oblong, coarse, with transverse striæ, and longitudinal oblique ribs; whirls ventricose; 5 inches long. Britain. Don. iii. t. 104.

ciliatum. 109. Turreted, patulous; somewhat beaked, angulated, longitudinally ciliated; pillar slightly plated; 6 inches long. Greenland.

solutum. 110. Ovate, with unequally distant longitudinal tubercles on the body; outer lip channelled, and somewhat detached. Hermann, t. 2. f. 3 and 4.

papyraceum. 111. Ovate-oblong, slender; obsoletely striated transversely, and the whirls depressed at their summits. Lister, t. 963. f. 17.

otaheitense. 112. Oblong, transversely grooved, with the grooves wrinkled and dotted, and the sutures finely crenulated. Otaheite. Chem. x. t. 154. f. 1477.

porcatum. 113. Ovate-oblong, subventricose, thick, transversely ribbed, and the interstices striated; pillar convex. Mexico. Lister, t. 963. f. 16.

lyratum. 114. Fusiform, longitudinally ribbed, and the ribs transversely striated; apex blackish. Martini, iv. t. 127. f. 1221 and 1222.

pyrozonias. 115. With transverse plaits, and undulated striæ; the base and spire a little prominent; body whirl with a double, and the other whirls with a single fulvous band. Martini, iii. t. 109. f. 1017.

textum. 116. Shell turreted, longitudinally ribbed, and transversely striated; whirls flattish at the top. Martini, iv. t. 125. f. 1201 and 1202.

clathratum. 117. Ovate, ventricose, longitudinally ribbed; decussated with transverse undulated striæ, and channelled at the sutures. E. Indies. Born, t. 9. f. 17 and 18.

niveum. 118. Suboval, with elevated cancellated striæ, and the body whirl ventricose, and produced at the base. Martini, iv. t. 122. f. 1122 and 1123.

lima. 119. Oval, ventricose, acuminated, and channelled with longitudinal ribs, and transverse elevated striæ; aperture roundish and effuse. E. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 188. f. 1808 and 1809.

reticulatum. * 120. Ovate-oblong, transversely striated, and longitudinally ribbed; aperture toothed. Mediterranean and Britain. Don. t. 76.

ambiguum. * 121. Subpyramidal, with distant longitudinal ribs, and striated transversely; outer lip slightly denticulated. Britain. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 4. f. 5.

macula. * 122. Ovate, longitudinally ribbed, and transversely striated; outer lip gibbous. Norway and Britain. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 4. f. 4.

stolatum. 123. Oblong-ovate, with one side of the body nearly smooth, and the rest plaited longitudinally and obsoletely striated transversely; aperture roundish. Tranquebar. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1167 to 1169.

cinctum. * 124. Conical, closely ribbed longitudinally, and the interstices obsoletely striated transversely; apex acute; aperture oval. Weymouth. Montagu, t. 15. f. 1.

minimum. * 125. Acuminated, minute, and reticulated, with longitudinal elevated ribs, and transverse striæ; aperture oval. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 8. f. 2.

plicatulum 126. Oblong, longitudinally plaited, and transversely striated; brownish white, with darker brown bands, and the inside violet. Martini, t. 124. f. 1158 and 1159.

piscatorium. 127. Cancellated, and nodulous at the intersections on the lower whirls; pillar with one plait, and umbilicated; aperture effuse. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1151 and 1152.

mauritii. 128. Ovate, with longitudinal ribs, which form on the body four transverse rows of tubercles; outer lip six toothed. Island of St Maurice. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1153. and 1154.

armillatum. 129. Ovate, with each whirl crowned by a row of tubercles; aperture large and toothless. Martini, iv. t. 124. f. 1155. to 1157.

nitidulum. 130. Ovate, oblong, polished, transversely striated, and marked with articulated bands; outer lip toothed within. Mediterranean. Gualteri, t. 52. f. 6.

ventricosum. 131. Ovate, oblong, brown, striated with white, and somewhat plaited. St George's Bay. Martini, ii. t. 47.

******** *Turreted, subulate, and slightly polished.*

maculatum. 132. Subfusiform, with smooth undivided very entire whirls. Amboyna. Lister, t. 846. f. 74.

oculatum. 133. Subfusiform, with the upper half of the whirls convex and ocellated. East Indian seas. Martini, iv. t. 153. f. 1442.

subulatum 134. Subulate, smooth, with undivided very entire whirls. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 841. f. 69.

felinum. 135. Pellucid, with all the whirls slightly emarginate on the back. Gualteri, t. 56. f. G.

crenulatum. 136. With the whirls transversely divided, and crenulated on their margins. Amboyna. Lister, t. 846. f. 75.

hecticum. 137. With the whirls transversely divided, and the upper margin compressed and attenuated. African ocean. Chem. xi. t. 188. f. 1817. and 1718.

geminum. 138. Whirls transversely divided, with the lower divisions slightly striated, and the upper more protuberant.

proximatum. 139. With the whirls transversely divided; lower division striated, and the upper filiform.

monile. 140. Whirls transversely divided, with the lower division grooved, and the upper moniliform.

vittatum. 141. Striated transversely, with a double crenulated suture

suture on the upper margin. Ceylon. Lister, t. 977. f. 34.

digitale. 142. Conical, subturreted, glabrous, with the aperture effuse at the base.

strigilatum. 143. Whirls transversely divided, and obliquely striated. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 846. f. 145. C.

concinnum 144. Longitudinally striated, whirls undivided, and marked at the sutures with a spotted belt. Gualteri, t. 57. f. O.

duplicatum. 145. Whirls transversely divided, and longitudinally grooved. Coasts of Hainan. Lister, t. 837. f. 64.

cinereum. 146. Subulate, with the upper part of the whirls longitudinally plaited. Amboyna. Rumphius, t. 30. f. 1.

succinctum. 147. Minutely striated transversely, and whirls transversely divided. East Indian ocean. Martini, iv. t. 154. f. 1451.

acus. 148. Whirls transversely divided, crenulated, and wrinkled; pillar twisted spirally. Martini, iv. t. 154. f. 1449.

lanceatum 149. Smooth; whirls entire, and marked with testaceous longitudinal stripes. Amboyna. Rumphius, t. 30. f. G.

dimidiatum. 150. Whirls transversely divided and smooth, orange spotted. Amboyna. Lister, t. 843. f. 71.

murinum. 151. Whirls somewhat angular, with three muricated striæ. Africa. Gualteri, t. 57. f. P.

pertusum. 152. With longitudinal elevated striæ, and transverse rows of excavated dots; whirls transversely divided. Martini, iv. t. 155. f. 1457.

hastatum. 153. Subfusiform, with alternate brown and white bands, and longitudinal striæ. Martini, iv. t. 154. f. 1453. and 1454.

sinuatum. 154. Whirls longitudinally plaited, and attenuated near the sutures; aperture emarginate at both ends. East Indian rivers. Martini, iv. t. 155. f. 1464. and 1465.

bifasciatum. 155. Glabrous, white, with two bands; whirls continuous. East Indies. Petiver, t. 53. f. 5.

radiatum. 156. With transverse granulated striæ; whirls convex, and the first twice as large as the next. Coast of Naples. Gualteri, t. 52. f. D.

virgineum 157. Whirls of the spire flattish; aperture large and oval. Virginian rivers. Lister, t. 113. f. 7.

acicula. * 158. Minute, with the whirls well defined by an oblique suture; aperture oblong. Mosswold, walls about Paris, and in Kent. Montagu, t. 8. f. 3.

53 Strombus.

Gen. 25. Strombus.

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax: the shell univalve, spiral; aperture much dilated; the lip expanding, and produced into a groove leaning to the left (c).

Species.

** The lip projecting into linear divisions or claws.*

fusus. 1. Tapering, smooth, and slightly ventricose, with a subulate beak and toothed lip. Red sea. Lister, t. 854. f. 12.

unicornis. 2. Turreted, smooth; aperture ending in a long straight beak, and the outer lip toothed. E. Indies. Lister, t. 916. f. 9.

fissus. 3. Turreted, smooth, with a longitudinal fissure extending from the aperture to the summit, of which the acute margin, and also the outer lip, are toothed. Chem. xi. t. 195. A. f. 1869.

pes-pelicani. * 4. *Corvorant's Foot;* lip with four palmated angular claws; mouth smooth; whirls tuberculated; 2 inches long. European and American seas, shores of Britain. Lister, t. 865. f. 20.

chiragra. 5. Lip with 6 curved claws, and recurved beak; lip striated; two hind claws divergent and bent outwards; beak tuberculated. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 870. f. 24.

scorpius. 6. Lip with 4 knotty claws; hinder one very long; 4 inches long. Amboyna. Lister, t. 867. f. 22.

lambis. 7. Lip with seven straightish claws; mouth smooth. Asia. A large shell. Lister, t. 866. f. 21.

truncatus. 8. Ovate, with the spire very obtuse and knotty; aperture with straightish claws, of which one is smaller. China. Lister, t. 882. f. 24.

millipeda. 9. Lip with 10 inflected claws; mouth substriated; back compressed; gibbous. Asia. Rare. Lister, t. 868. f.

*** Outer lip lobed.*

lentiginosus. 10. Lip thickened, and 3-lobed on the fore-part; back warty, and crowned with tubercles; beak obtuse; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Asia, America. Lister, t. 861. f. 18.

papilio. 11. Transversely striated, and transverse nodulous bands; spire coronated; outer lip growing to the spire, and situated at the base. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 158. f. 1510 and 11.

fasciatus. 12. Lip entire; back crowned with 3 rows of protuberances, and rosy between them. Africa. Lister, t. 860. f. 17.

polyfasciatus. 13. Subovate, with dark transverse interrupted stripes, and a row of pointed tubercles on each whirl; outer lip sinuated only outwards at the base. Red sea. Chem. x. t. 155. f. 1483 and 84.

gallus. 14. Lip mucronate on the fore-part, and very long; back crowned with tubercles; beak straight; 6 inches long. Asia and America. Lister, t. 874. f. 30.

lacinatus. 15. Transversely ribbed and nodulous; outer lip sinuated near the base, and much scolloped towards its upper angle. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 158. f. 1506 and 1507.

auris-dianæ. 16. Lip projecting into a sharp point; back muricated; beak erect and acute; 3 inches long. Asia. Lister, t. 872. f. 28.

pugilis. 17. Anterior lip prominent, rounded, smooth; spire spinous; beak 3-lobed, obtuse. South America. Martini, iii. t. 81. f. 830 and 31.

marginatus. 18. Lip a little prominent; beak entire; back margined, smooth. China.

luhuanus. 19. Lip a little prominent; back smooth; whirls rounded, equal; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Asia. Lister, t. 850. f. 5.

20. Lip

(c) It ought to be observed, that these shells, in their young state, want the lip, and then have a thin turbinated appearance; from which circumstance they have been sometimes referred to a different genus.

gibberulus 20. Lip a lip prominent; beak smooth; whirls gibbous, unequal. Asia. Lister, t. 847. f. 1.

oniscus. 21. Obovate, with knotty belts, and a subulate, smooth projection; an inch long. South America. Lister, t. 791. f. 44.

*** *With the outer lip very large.*

gigas. 22. Lip rounded, and very large; shell crowned; belly and spire with conic expanded spines; glossy white; within, a rich rose colour; 10 inches long. South America and W. Indies. Lister, t. 886. f. 7.

latissimus. 23. Lip rounded, very large; belly unarmed; spire a little knotty; 14 inches long. Asia. Lister, t. 856. f. 12. c.

accipeter. 24. Body crowned with spinous tubercles, and their interstices striated; first whirl of the spire ribbed, and the next striated transversely. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 863. f. 18. b.

epidromis. 25. Lip rounded, short; belly smooth; spire a little knotty; 3½ inches long. Southern Asia. Lister, t. 853. f. 10.

minimus. 26. Lip retuse, gibbous; belly and spire with knotty plaits; aperture 2-lipped, smooth; 2½ inches long. India. Rumphius, t. 36. f. P.

canarium. 27. Somewhat heart-shaped; with a round, short, retuse, smooth lip; pillar smooth; 1½ inch long. Asia. Lister, t. 853. f. 9.

vittatus. 28. Lip rounded, short; belly smooth; spire elongated; whirls divided by an elevated suture; 4 inches long. Lister, t. 852. f. 8.

sulcatus. 29. Transversely grooved, with the spire produced and channelled at the sutures; outer lip rounded, short, and sinuated. China. Lister. t. 852. f. 8.

accinctus. 30. Lip rounded, retuse; belly smooth, with 4 pale, linear, punctured belts. Asia. Lister, t. 859. f. 16.

fissurella. 31. Lip continued into a longitudinal cleft ridge. India. Frequently found fossil in Campania. Martini, iv. t. 158. f. 1498 and 1499.

urceus. 32. Lip tapering, retuse, short, striated; belly and spire with knotty plaits; aperture 2-lipped, unarmed; 2½ inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 857. f. 13.

erythrinus. 33. With nodulous plaits on the body and spire; outer lip striated on both sides; inner lip white and reflected. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 195. A. f. 1874 and 1875.

samar. 34. Thin, white, with orange spots and clouds; back smooth, plaited; whirls grooved; lip 3-toothed; beak violet. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 858. f. 14.

dentatus. 35. Lip tapering, short-toothed; belly and spire plaited; 1¼ inch long. Isle of France. Chem. x. t. 157. f. 1501 and 1502.

vexillum. 36. Solid, subcylindrical, with alternate, reddish and ochraceous bands; lip denticulated within; pillar flat, glabrous, and emarginated at the base. Indian ocean. Very rare. Chem. x. t. 157. f. 1504 and 1505.

norwegicus. 37. Oblong, subulate, white, with round whirls; aperture spreading; ovate; beak a little ascending. Norway. Chem. x. t. 157. f. 1497 and 1498.

**** *Turreted, with a very long spire.*

tuberculatus. 38. Oblong, ovate, tuberculated; lip thickened. Mediterranean. Martini, iv. t. 157. f. 1490.

39. Smoothish; lip separated behind. Savannahs of the Indian ocean. Lister, t. 837. f. 63. *palustris.*

40. Smooth; lip separated before and behind; 26 lines long. Fens of Amboyna. Lister, t. 115. f. 10. *ater.*

41. Barred with brown; whirls 7, muricated; each with 7 yellow compressed tubercles; aperture ovate; 10 lines long. Africa. Lister, t. 121. f. 16. *auritus.*

42. Subangulated, and armed with spinous nodules; outer lip separated on the anterior side. Chem. xi. Part ii. t. 136. f. 1269 and 1270. *lividus.*

* 43. Very thick; first whirl crowned with tubercles; interstices of the tubercles plaited; the next whirl transversely ribbed; the rest transversely striated; 6 inches long. W. of England and Bantry Bay. Montagu, t. 30. f. 7. *costatus.*

Gen. 26. Murex. 54 Murex.

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax: the shell univalve, spiral, rough, with membranaceous sutures; aperture oval, terminating in an entire, straight, or slightly ascending canal.

Species.

* *Spinous, with a produced beak.*

1. Ovate, tuberculated; with a long subulate, straight, muricated beak. Asia, America, Red sea. Lister, t. 903. f. 23. *haustellum.*

2. Triangular, with three thick, somewhat spinous varices, and transversely grooved; beak rather long, subulate, and slightly ascending. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 163. f. 1563. *motacilla.*

3. Subovate, with 3 spinous varices, and darker transverse ribs; beak very long, straight, and armed with similar long spines. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 189. f. 1819 and 1820. *scolopax.*

4. *Thorny woodcock.* Ovate, with a triple row of setaceous spines: beak elongated, subulate, with similar spines. Var. 1. With spines shorter than the beak. 2. With spines as long as the beak. This last is rare. Asia, America, Red sea. Lister, t. 900. f. 22. *tribulus.*

5. Roundish, surrounded with subulate, oblique spines; beak long, subulate, straight, with a few short spines; 8 inches long; spines 2 inches. Africa. Very rare. Lister, t. 901. t. 21. *cornutus.*

6. Subovate, surrounded with straight spines; beak subulate, straight, obliquely surrounded with spines. Mediterranean, Adriatic. Lister, t. 900. f. 20. *brandaris.*

7. Ovate, knotty, and surrounded with spines on the fore part; beak short, perforated, truncated. Mediterranean, Jamaica. Lister, t. 947. f. 42. *trunculus.*

8. Ovate, with 7 furbelowed spinous varices; beak short and perforated. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1528 and 1529. *rosarium.*

9. Ovate, knotty, with 3 to 7 protuberances; beak broad; coarse and ponderous. Eastern shores of Africa. Lister, t. 994. f. 30. a. *pomum.*

10. Ovate, scabrous, with 9 crenulated, subfoliated, oblique varices; outer lip double and toothed; beak short, ascending, and narrow. Nicobar. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1532 to 1535. *miliaris.*

11. Transversely striated, with 8 rows of hollow black *melanomathos.*

black spines; spire a little knotty and prickly; beak subulate. E. Indies. Martini, iii. t. 188. f. 1015.

** *Foliated, and the beak short.* PURPURA.

ramosus. 12. A triple row of foliations; spire contiguous; beak truncated. America, Asia, Red sea. Lister, t. 946. f. 41.

foliatus. 13. A triple row of foliations; aperture 1-toothed. North America. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1568 and 1569.

lingua. 14. Subtriangular, ovate, with three membranaceous varices, and somewhat nodulous; whirls contracted at the sutures; beak closed. Coasts of Goree. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1540. and 1541.

tripterus. 15. Long, narrow, and subtriangular, with three membranaceous varices; beak rather long. Batavia. Martini, iii. t. 110. f. 1031 and 1032.

triqueter. 16. Long, narrow, and subtriangular, with reticulated ribs, and three membranaceous varices; beak rather long, and closed. Tranquebar. Martini, iii. t. 111. f. 1038.

scorpio. 17. Four rows of foliations; spire capitate; beak truncated. Asia. Very rare. Gualteri, t. 37. f. M.

saxatilis. 18. Five rows of foliations; spire contiguous; beak abbreviated. Mediterranean, Asia. Martini, iii. t. 107. f. 1004 to 1010.

erinaceus. * 19. Subangular; whirls crowned with tubular and subspinous rays, scales or points; beak short and covered; 2 inches long. European seas, shores of Britain. Don. t. 35.

sacellum. 20. Umbilicated with muricated ribs; whirls flattish above, with acute margins; lip crenated; beak straight, ascending. Nicobar. Chem. x. t. 163. f. 1561 and 1562.

*** *With thick, protuberant, rounded varices.*

lyratus. 21. Protuberances crossed by smooth belts; aperture ovate. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1634.

rana. 22. Rough, with opposite, impressed protuberances, and one or two muricated belts. Asia. Lister, t. 995. f. 58.

spinosus. 23. With two opposite varices, and remote transverse spinous belts; whirls flattened; spines on the varices very long; aperture ovate. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 949. f. 44.

crassus. 24. With two opposite very thick varices, and remote transverse obsolete belts, and granulated striæ; whirls rather flattened; aperture ovate; outer lip very thick. Madagascar. Martini, iv. t. 133. f. 1272. and 1273.

gyrinus. 25. Protuberances opposite, continued, and barred with tuberculated dots; aperture orbicular. Mediterranean, Atlantic, India. Lister, t. 939. f. 34.

bufonicus. 26. Nodulous, with two opposite varices, and transverse granulated striæ; outer lip furrowed, and ending in a channel above. South sea. Chem. xi. t. 192. f. 1843. to 1846.

argus. 27. With two subalternate varices, and rounded nodules on transverse ribs; outer lip double, and strongly toothed within. Amboyna. Martini, iv. t. 127. f. 1223.

lampas. 28. Protuberances nearly opposite, gibbous, with longitudinal tuberculated protuberances; from 4 to 14 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 1023. f. 88.

olearium. 29. Protuberances alternate, and numerous tubercles; back unarmed and striated behind; aperture toothless. Mediterranean and African seas. Lister, t. 937. f. 32.

femorale. 30. Protuberances decussated, triangular, wrinkled and knotty on the fore-part; aperture ovate, toothless; from 5 to 7 inches long. Asia, Guinea, and America. Lister, t. 941. f. 37.

cutaceus. 31. With a single protuberance; angular, and a little wrinkled with knots; pillar perforated; aperture toothed; 3 inches long. Barbary, Guinea, South America. Lister, t. 942. f. 38.

lotorium. 32. Protuberances decussated, angular, with longitudinal tuberculous knots; beak flexuous; aperture toothed. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 934. f. 29.

pileare. 33. Protuberances decussated, and a little wrinkled with knots; aperture toothed; beak subascending. Mediterranean. Chem. xi. t. 191. f. 1837. and 1838.

caudisatus. 34. Turreted, with alternate varices, and granulated all over; aperture channelled above, and the outer lip toothed within; beak short and straight. Chem. x. t. 162. f. 1544. and 1545.

bufonius. 35. Six opposite, continued, vaulted protuberances, and knotty belts; beak oblique. A rare shell. Chem. xi. t. 192. f. 1843. to 1846.

maculosus. 36. Turreted, elongated, with alternate varices, and decussated striæ, forming granules at their intersections; beak short and slightly ascending. Amboyna. Lister, t. 1022. f. 86.

spengleri. 37. Angulated with decussated varices, and a concatenated row of granules in the interstices of the transverse ribs; beak short and straight. Chem. xi. t. 191. f. 1839. and 1840.

pyrum. 38. Varicose, ovate, transversely grooved and knotty; beak long, flexuous, subulate. Indian ocean. Martini, iii. t. 112. f. 1050. and 1051.

clavator. 39. Ovate, with two varices, longitudinally plaited and striated, and transversely ribbed; beak long and flexuous. Ceylon. Chem. xi. t. 190. f. 1825. and 1826.

caudatus. 40. Thin, transversely striated; beak subulate; spire a little prominent, tipt with brown; whirls grooved; first gibbous. Coromandel. Lister, t. 893. f. 13.

rubecula. 41. Protuberances decussated, obtuse, with knotty wrinkles; belly equal; aperture toothed. Africa, India, South America. Rare. Chem. x. t. 162. f. 1546. and 7.

scrobiculator. 42. Protuberances hollowed, smooth, nearly opposite; aperture toothed. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 943. f. 39.

reticularis. 43. Protuberances nearly opposite, reticulated with tuberculated spots; pillar almost toothless; beak ascending; 6 inches long. Mediterranean, America. Lister, t. 935. f. 30.

mulus. 44. Whirls unequally gibbous; ribs decussated, and slightly tuberculated at their intersections; aperture surrounded by a thin dilated membrane, and the beak produced and ascending. Coasts of Chiloe. Martini, ii. t. 41. f. 405 and 6.

anus. 45. Protuberances and lips membranaceous, dilated; gibbous and reticulated with tubercles; aperture sinuous; beak erect; 3 inches long. Mediterranean and Asia. Lister, t. 833. f. 57.

**** *Somewhat spinous, and without a beak.*

ricinus. 46. Obovate, with subulate spines in rows; aperture and lip toothed; 1½ inch long. Asiatic ocean. Lister, t. 804. f. 12 and 13.

nodus. 47. Obovate, with conic spines; lip toothed; pillar smooth, coloured; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Jamaica. Lister, t. 991. f. 53.

neritoideus. 48. Knots in numerous rows; lip with pointed angles; pillar flattish. India. Lister, t. 990. f. 50.

hystrix. 49. Subovate, with acute spines in 4 rows; aperture toothless, repand. Friendly islands.

mancinella. 50. Ovate, with obsolete spines, which are blackish; aperture toothless; pillar transversely striated. Amboyna. Lister, t. 957. f. 9.

hippocastanum. 51. Ovate, striated, with 3 or 5 rows of obtuse spines or tubercles; aperture transversely striated. Guinea, India. Martini, iii. t. 99. f. 945 and 6.

nodatus. 52. Whirls knotty; aperture violet; lip toothed; beak straight. New Holland. Martyn's Univ. Conch. ii. t. 51.

lacerus. 53. Ovate, transversely striated, and armed with two rows of compressed spines; spire muricated, and the whirls keeled. Guinea. Lister, t. 958. f. 11.

plicatus. 54. Ovate, ventricose, with the whirls longitudinally plaited and striated transversely; throat violet. E. Indies. Martini, iii. t. 100. f. 954. and 5.

morbosus. 55. Ovate, transversely striated, and the whirls nodulous; aperture roundish. W. Indies. Lister, t. 990. b. f. 51.

senticosus. 56. *Small prickly whelk.* Tapering, longitudinally ribbed, and transversely cancellated; aperture striated; ribs prickly; 2 inches long. Indian ocean. Gualteri, t. 51. f. G.

melangena 57. Obovate, glaucous, with a subspinous whirl; spire somewhat prominent; aperture smooth; $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. India, America. Lister, t. 904. f. 24.

calcaratus 58. Somewhat turbinated, with transverse striæ and spinous belts; aperture subovate. Amboyna. Martini, ii. t. 40. f. 400 and 401.

consul. 59. Thick, ventricose, transversely grooved and knotted; aperture repand, ovate; lip sinuous, inwardly plaited and denticulated. India. Chem. t. 160. f. 1516 and 17.

stramineus. 60. Ovate, grooved and striated transversely, and the upper ends of the whirls flattish and nodulous; aperture wide, and lips thickened.

australis. 61. Ovate, longitudinally striated, with 4 plaits on the body, and 3 on the next whirl; whirls channelled, and the outer lip undulated.

***** *With a ong, straight, subulate, closed beak, and unarmed with spines.*

babylonius 62. Tapering, with acute spotted belts, and straight tail; lip cleft; 4 inches long. Indian and American islands. Lister, t. 717. f. 11.

javanus. 63. Tapering, with immaculate knotty belts; lip with a separate scoop. India. Chem. xi. t. 190. f. 1827 and 28.

dubius. 64. Longitudinally plaited; and transversely ribbed; spire a little prominent; aperture ovate; lip crenulated. Martini, iv. t. 150. f. 1396 and 1397.

clavatulus 65. Somewhat turreted and coronated, with decussated striæ and prickly nodules; whirls excavated at the sutures; outer lip with a notch at the summit, and the beak short and obtuse. Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 190. f. 1550 and 1551.

gibbosus. 66. With longitudinal plaits and transverse grooves, and an elevated belt at the sutures; outer lip with a notch at the summit, and the beak short and obtuse. Red sea. Chem. xi. t. 190. f. 1829 and 1830.

virginicus 67. With longitudinal grooves and transverse granulated striæ; whirls with a belt at the sutures; outer lip sinuated; beak short. Guinea. Chem. xi. t. 190. f. 1835 and 1836.

colus. 68. Tapering, striated, knotty; carinated, with a long straight beak; lip crenulated; beak 3 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 917. f. 10.

fenestratus. 69. Oblong, angulated, nodulous, with decussated striæ, and the interstices excavated; outer lip double and toothed; beak rather short and straight. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1536.

tornatus. 70. Smooth, with the whirls concave above and convex below; outer lip with a notch at the summit, and the beak rather long.

morio. 71. Black, with a white band; beak dilated; pillar wrinkled; whirls knotty; 6 inches long. Africa. Lister, t. 988. f. 22.

cochlidium 72. Beak dilated; whirls of the spire flat above. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 164. f. 1569.

spirillus. 73. Beak long, spire mucronated; whirls convex above. Tranquebar. Martini, iii. t. 115. f. 1069.

canaliculatus. 74. Beak dilated; whirls of the spire separated by a small canal. Canada, Frozen sea. Lister, t. 878. f. 2.

carica. 75. With the body ventricose, and armed at the shoulder with large compressed nodules; aperture dilated; beak long. Lister, t. 880. f. 3. b.

ficus. 76. Beak dilated; whirls separated by a small canal; first crowned with knobs at the base. Red sea. Martini, iii. t. 66. f. 741.

clandestinus. 77. Subovate, with 6 rounded whirls, and transverse minute longitudinal striæ; aperture toothed; outer lip double, ending in a straight somewhat produced beak. Lister, t. 940. f. 36.

aruanus. 78. Ventricose, beak dilated; spire crowned with spines. New Guinea. Martini, iv. vig. 39. p. 143. f. D.

perversus. 79. Beak dilated and repand; spire recurved and slightly crowned. American ocean. Exceedingly rare. Lister, t. 907. f. 27.

* 80. Beak dilated; shell oblong; 8 round whirls, first ventricose; 4 to 6 inches long. European seas, Scotland. Donovan, t. 31. *antiquus.*

* 81. Oblong, striated, and somewhat rugged; beak dilated; whirls 8, with two elevated lines; 5 inches long. European seas, shores of Britain. Don. t. 180. *despectus.*

* 82. Oblong, with 8 whirls, angulated, and strongly keeled transversely; aperture dilated; beak short. Britain. Don. t. 117. *subanticuatus.*

83. Ovate-oblong; beak dilated; whirls ventricose; a little angular and longitudinally striated; 7 inches long. Greenland seas. Martini, iv. t. 138. *fornicatus*

84. Ventricose, umbilicated, transversely striated; whirls of the spire with parallel ribs; the first large. Straits of Magellan. Chem. x. t. 164. f. 1570. *magellanicus.*

85. Ventricose, turreted, with parallel membranaceous longitudinal ribs, and transverse striæ; beak short. Falkland Islands. Chem. xi. t. 90. f. 1823 and 1824. *lamellosus*

86. Ventricose, oblong, smooth, with rounded whirls; aperture toothed; beak short; 16 inches long. India and the South seas.—This shell is used by the natives of *tritonis.*

of New-Zealand as a musical instrument, and by the Africans and many nations of the East, as a military horn. Lister, t. 959. f. 12.

nerei. 87. Ventricose, with alternate varices, decussated striæ, and transverse nodulous ribs; inner lip with a transverse callosity, and the beak short. South sea. Lister, t. 960. f. 13.

fiscellum. 88. Ovate, longitudinally plaited, and transversely ribbed; outer lip double, and toothed; beak short. Coasts of Pulo Condore. Chem. x. t. 160. f. 1524.

virgatus. 89. Ovate, longitudinally plaited, nodulous, and transversely ribbed; aperture ovate, and the outer lip toothed within. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 123. f. 1441 and 1442.

amplustre 90. With dark blue, yellow, and white bands, and transverse, tuberculated keel, near the margins of the whirls; beak short and straight, and the pillar three plaited. Friendly Islands. Chem. xi. t. 191. f. 1841.

pusio. 91. Ventricose, oblong, smooth; spire striated with rounded whirls; aperture smooth; beak short; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Mediterranean and Africa. Rare. Lister, t. 914. f. 7.

tulipa. 92. Ventricose, oblong, smooth; whirls rounded with a double suture; pillar with two plaits; beak dilated, striated. South America. Lister, t. 910. f. 1.

clathratus 93. Oblong beak, and grooved with longitudinal membranaceous plaits. Iceland. Lister, t. 926. f. 19.

nassa. 94. Solid, black or pale brown, with a white subdiaphanous band; whirls knotty; pillar a little plaited. Lister, t. 828. f. 50.

scala. 95. Umbilicated, with distant, wedged, ribbed, and transversely striated whirls; aperture heart-shaped. E. Indies. Martini, iv. vig. 37. p. 1. f. a, b, c.

corona. 96. Fastigiated with brown and yellowish bands; beak straight, entire. Mexico. Chem. x. t. 161. f. 1526 and 1527.

dolarium. 97. Ovate, with a few elevated obtuse belts on the whirls; size of a walnut. Portugal. Martini, iii. t. 118. f. 1087 and 1088.

corneus. * 98. Oblong, slender, white; margins of the whirls complicated; aperture toothless; 3 inches long. British and North seas. Don. t. 38.

lignarius. 99. Oblong, coarse, with obtusely knotty whirls; aperture toothless; beak short. South of Europe. Bonanui, t. 3. f. 32.

trapezium 100. Oblong, obtusely angular, with slightly knotty whirls; aperture toothed; 6 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 931. f. 26.

pugilinus. 101. Solid, ventricose, smooth, with an oblong oval aperture; beak and crowned spire striated; 4 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 885. f. 6. b.

scolymus. 102. Thin, diaphanous, ventricose, and transversely striated; middle of the beak smooth; spire with obtuse, undulated knots; pillar 3 plaited. Martini, iv. t. 142. f. 1325.

harpa. 103. Ventricose, longitudinally ribbed; ribs transversely striated; spire a little prominent; whirls distant. Martini, iv. t. 142. f. 1328. and 1329.

tuba. 104. Fusiform, transversely striated; white, with a brown tip to the spire, which has 8 whirls distant, and crowned at the base with knots. China. Martini, iv. t. 143. f. 1333.

syracus. 105. Oblong, with striated plaited whirls, covered with tuberculated ridges; aperture toothless; beak short. Mediterranean; rare. Bay of Naples. Chem. x. t. 162. f. 1542. and 1543.

craticulatus. 106. Oblong, with rounded, plaited, and transversely reticulated whirls; aperture toothed, striated within. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 919. f. 13.

scriptus. 107. Nearly without a beak; fusiform, smooth, pale, with longitudinal brown striæ; lip toothed; very small. Mediterranean.

ternatanus. 108. Transversely striated, with distant undulately tuberculated whirls; aperture oblong; beak straight; 4 inches long; yellow. Ternate island. Lister, t. 892. f. 82.

infundibulum. 109. Umbilicated, undulately knotty; striæ elevated, brown; perforation funnel-shaped; pillar two-plaited; 4 inches long. W. Indies. Lister, t. 921. f. 14.

polygonus. 110. Ventricose, undulated with tubercles; striated, grooved, and obtusely angled; black, with an oval aperture, and short beak; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Indian ocean. Martini, iv. t. 140. f. 1306. to 1309.

undatus. 111. Solid, ventricose, with waved angles; and finely striated transversely; spire mucronate; whirls knotty at the base; lip denticulated; $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches long; ponderous. India. Chem. xi. t. 192. f. 1851. and 2.

lancea. 112. Narrowed; whirls of the spire transversely ribbed, and longitudinally crenated; aperture ovate; ribbed with white within, and toothed at the margin; pillar two-plaited. Amboyna. Martini, iv. t. 145. f. 1347.

versicolor. 113. Subcylindrical; spire obtuse; whirls round and striated; lower ones mostly glabrous. India. Martini, iv. t. 146. f. 1348.

verrucosus. 114. Umbilicated and surrounded with belts; middle ones more raised; whirls crowned with tubercles, which are spotted with brown. Red sea. Martini, iv. t. 146. f. 1349. and 1350.

striatulus. 115. Thin, transversely striated; spire mucronate; whirls round; lip crenulated; 4 inches long. Martini, iv. t. 146. f. 1351. and 1352.

pardalis. 116. Rounded, white, with violet spots, longitudinally ribbed, and transversely striated; spire obtuse. Martini, iv. t. 149. f. 1384.

valpinus. 117. Oblong, ventricose; whirls with a striated margin; aperture glabrous; beak short, and bent outwards. Born. t. 11. f. 10. and 11.

arenosus. 118. Whirls of the spire with decussated ribs, the first large, three outermost smooth; lip toothed outwardly; very small. Sandy shores of India. Spengler, t. 2. f. 8.

maroccensis. 119. Narrow, transversely striated; spire mucronated; whirls distant, contrary, round, and longitudinally ribbed; beak prominent; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Shores of Morocco. Chem. ix. p. i. t. 105. f. 896.

lineatus. 120. Oblong, whitish, with transverse, reddish striæ; beak short, straight. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 164. f. 1572.

perron. 121. A little tapering; whirls carinated above, margined and flattened; beak long and straight. Southern ocean. Chem. x. t. 164. f. 1573.

prismaticus. 122. Ovate, angular, iridescent; longitudinally grooved and plaited; beak short; lip denticulated. India, and South seas. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1635.

128. Ribs

columbarium. 123. Ribs longitudinally plaited, and transversely grooved; angular, spinous, carinated; alternately varied with white and brown; whirls suddenly diminishing; beak short, straight. Pulo Condore. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1637. and 1638.

bamffius. * 124. Ventricose, white with acute longitudinal ribs; beak rather short and slightly ascending. Frith of Forth. Donovan, t. 169. f. 1.

gracilis. * 125. Turreted, with longitudinal ribs interrupted by a flat space at the sutures, and transversely striated; beak rather long and slightly ascending. Britain. Montagu, t. 15. f. 5.

attenuatus * 126. Fusiform, with the whirls subcontinuous, and nine equidistant strong ribs; beak rather long and straightish. West of England. Montagu, t. 9. f. 6.

nebula. * 127. Turreted, with longitudinal ribs, and minutely reticulated; beak short and slightly bent. West of England. Montagu, t. 15. f. 6.

costatus. * 128. Oblong, with 8 longitudinal elevated ribs; beak very short and obsolete. Britain and Norway. Don. t. 91.

proximus. * 129. Oblong, with about 11 longitudinal elevated ribs; beak short, and rather spreading at the end. Scotland. Montagu, t. 30. f. 8.

septangularis. * 130. Oblong, with 7 longitudinal continuous ribs, scarcely interrupted by the sutures; beak short. West of England. Montagu, t. 9. f. 5.

turricula. * 131. Turreted, with longitudinal plaits and transverse striæ; whirls subcylindrical, and flattened at their upper extremities; beak short and broad. Britain. Montagu, t. 9. f. 1.

rufus. * 132. Turreted, with longitudinal plaits and transverse striæ, and the whirls convex. England and S. Wales.

sinuosus. * 133. Turreted, with 7 longitudinal ribs, and minute transverse striæ; beak very short; upper angle of the outer lip channelled. Weymouth. Montagu, t. 9. f. 8.

linearis. * 134. With about 9 longitudinal ribs, dotted by elevated striæ; and the whirls convex; outer lip crenated; beak slightly produced. West of England. Montagu, t. 9. f. 4.

purpureus * 135. Oblong, acuminated, with convex cancellated whirls; pillar striated and somewhat tuberculated; outer lip crenated. Devonshire, Montagu, t. 9. f. 3.

muricatus * 136. Oblong and very rough; whirls ventricose, with longitudinal ribs, and transverse elevated striæ, forming tubercles at their intersections; beak long and narrow. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 9. f. 2.

minutissimus. * 137. Minute, with 5 spirally striated whirls and remote ribs; beak closed. Pembrokeshire.

****** *Tapering, subulate, with a very short beak.*

obeliscus. 138. Ventricose, with four granulated ribs, of which the uppermost is tuberculated; pillar with one tooth, and the beak ascending. W. Indies. Lister, t. 1018. f. 80.

vertagus. 139. Whirls of the spire plaited above; pillar plaited within; beak ascending; three inches long. India. Lister, t. 1021. f. 85. b.

aluco. 140. Whirls of the spire tuberculated, with a spinous streak in the middle; pillar with a single plait; beak ascending; four inches long. Southern ocean, Red sea, Atlantic. Lister, t. 1017. f. 19.

plicatulus 141. Ventricose; spire transversely striated; whirls longitudinally plaited and knotty; aperture oval. E. Indies. Martini, iv. t. 157. f. 1488.

tuberosus 142. Transversely striated, with large pointed nodules on the lower part of the whirls; outer lip strongly grooved, and the beak slightly recurved. Amboyna. Lister, t. 1025. f. 87.

adansoni. 143. Ventricose, with transverse striæ, and a row of conical tubercles on each whirl; outer lip crenulated. River Gambia. Gualteri, t. 57. f. B.

uncinatus. 144. Turreted, transversely striated, with the four lower whirls armed in the middle with hooked spines, and the 5th and 6th ribbed, and the others glabrous. Schroeter, t. 8. f. 15.

atratus. 145. Turreted, with transverse striæ, and two tuberculated belts on each whirl; outer lip striated within, and the beak nearly straight. Born, t. 11. f. 17 and 18.

alucoides. 146. Transversely striated, with spinous plaits below the middle of the whirls, and crenulated above; beak slightly recurved. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1019. f. 82.

ebeninus. 147. Turreted, angulated, and transversely striated; whirls nodulous in the middle; outer lip sinuous. Friendly islands. Chem. x. t. 162. f. 1548 and 1549.

fuscatus. 148. Whirls crenulated; the upper striæ denticulated. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 121. f. 17.

torulosus. 149. Whirls of the spire with a slightly knotty zone above; beak short. East Indies. Lister, t. 121. f. 16.

radula. 150. Whirls of the spire tuberculated, with a double row of punctured striæ. Africa. Lister, t. 122. f. 26.

marginatus. 151. Turreted, with two granulated ribs below, and a large compressed tuberculated belt at the upper extremity of the whirls; pillar with one plait. East Indies. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 4. f. 6.

serratus. 152. Turreted, with longitudinal striæ, and two transverse serrated ribs, of which the upper is largest; serratures spinous, and compressed. Friendly islands. It is also found fossil. Martyn's Univ. Conch. ii. t. 58.

asper. 153. Whirls of the spire grooved, transversely striated and muricated. Guinea. Lister, t. 120. f. 84.

granulatus. 154. Rough, with decussated tubercles; beak acute, ascending; 2 inches long; white. India. Martini, iv. t. 157. f. 1492.

sulcatus. 155. Ovate, turreted, with longitudinal plaits and transverse ribs; beak straight, very short and tubular. Molucco islands. Lister, t. 121. f. 85.

litteratus. 156. Turreted, ventricose, with numerous dotted muricated striæ on each whirl; upper striæ tuberculated. Guadaloupe. Born, t. 11. f. 14.

reticulatus. * 157. Turreted, with longitudinal ribs, and four transverse grooves on each whirl, forming uniform tubercles all over. Britain. Da Costas's Brit. Conch. t. 8. f. 13.

tubercularis. * 158. Transversely striated, and surrounded with glabrous knots; lip thickened. Britain. Linn. Tran. viii. p. 150.

adversus. * 159. Turreted, with the whirls reversed, and on each 3 transverse rows of tubercles, of which the middle one is smallest. Britain. Walker, f. 48.

subulatus. * 160. Turreted, with two rows of tubercles, divided by a depressed line in each whirl. Sound of Mull, Scotland. Montagu, t. 30. f. 6.

decollatus 161. Turreted, and the summit truncated, with longitudinal plaited ribs, and transverse striæ.

clava. 162. Transversely striated and spotted; whirls with plaited knots; lip double, dilated. Pulo Condore. Chem. x. vig. 22. p. 233. f. A and B.

hexagonus 163. Yellowish, hexagonal, with transverse, granulated striæ; first whirl tuberculated. South sea; and is often found fossil. Chem. x. t. 162. f. 1554 and 1555.

atratus. 164. Black; whirls transversely striated and tuberculated; pillar with one plait. Born, t. 11. f. 17 and 18.

55 Trochus. Gen 27. TROCHUS.—*Top Shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax: shell univalve, spiral, more or less conic; aperture somewhat angular or rounded; the upper side transverse and contracted; pillar placed obliquely.

SPECIES.

* *Erect, and umbilicated.*

niloticus. 1. Conic, smooth, somewhat umbilicated; a large ponderous shell, with oblique, red, perpendicular striæ. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 620. f. 6.

maculatus 2. Conic, tuberculated, with an oblique perforation; inner lip two-lobed. Asia, South America. Lister, t. 632. f. 20.

perspectivus. 3. Convex, obtuse, margined; the umbilicus pervious and crenulated; 2¼ inches long. Asia, Africa. This is a very beautiful shell. Amboyna. Lister, t. 636. f. 24.

cruciatus. 4. Convex, with callo-punctured striæ; pillar one-toothed. Mediterranean. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1674.

pharonis. 5. Obovate, striated; marked with concatenated, globular dots; aperture and pillar toothed; umbilicus crenated. European and Asiatic seas. Lister, t. 637. f. 25.

magus. * 6. Convex, obliquely umbilicated; ridges of the whirls rising into obtuse tubercles. European and African coasts, Britain. Don. t. 8. f. 1.

modulus. 7. Plaited above, and more convex beneath; aperture ovate and 1-toothed. Red sea. Lister, t. 653. f. 52.

scaber. 8. Subovate; grooves moniliform and alternately larger; shell black; aperture yellowish. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1667.

varius. 9. Obliquely umbilicated; convex; whirls slightly margined. Mediterranean. Schroeter, i. p. 659.

cinerarius * 10. Ovate, obliquely umbilicated; whirls rounded; size of a pea. Shores of Europe. Britain. Don. t. 74; upper and lower figures.

divaricatus. 11. Ovate, subumbilicated; perforation nearly shut up; lowest whirl more remote. Mediterranean and Greenland seas. Schroeter, i. p. 660.

umbilicaris. 12. Conico-convex; perforation pervious, exactly cylindrical; whirl slightly emarginated. Shores of Europe. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1666.

solaris. 13. Convex, conic; whirls spinous and marginated; aperture semi-heart-shaped; 2 inches diameter. India. New Zealand, and America. Lister, t. 622. f. 9.

tectum. 14. Depressed, oblique; white with brown lines; spire transversely striated, and longitudinally ribbed; first whirl ventricose; aperture orbicular; body whirl large; pillar brown. W. Indies, Isle of France. Lister, t. 653. f. 51.

conus. 15. Conic, white spotted with red; whirls round, with moniliform belts; first whirl only perforated. India. Lister, t. 631. f. 18.

spinosus. 16. Subequal, mucronate; whirls 9, spinous beneath; on each side a linear band of white and black, with a triple row of knots. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 167. f. 1611.

jujubinus. 17. Lateritious, spotted with white; the base flat, with concentric lines of concatenated dots; whirls channelled, tesselated at the lower margin with white and chesnut. South America. Chem. v. t. 167. f. 1612 and 1613.

alveare. 18. Plaited with knots, transversely striated, with belts of concatenated dots; perforation funnel-shaped; pillar crenulated. India. Gualteri, t. 60. f. P.

concavus. 19. Base and continued perforation funnel-shaped; whirls contiguous, undulated and plaited; aperture denticulated at the margin; 2 inches broad. India. Coromandel. Chem. v. t. 168. f. 1620 and 1621.

vernalis. 20. Surrounded with granulations and knots, green, and whitish towards the tip; the tip varied with black dots. India, and bay of Naples. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1625 and 1626.

conspersus 21. Covered with white, greenish, and buff-coloured spots; tip with red and black ones; base white, spotted with red; within pearly; whirls with many rows of knots; lower margins glabrous. India. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1627.

tentorium 22. Wrinkled and plaited; whirls knotty beneath, with concatenated dots in the middle; whirls distant; perforation funnel-shaped. India. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1628.

ochroleucus. 23. Wrinkled and plaited, obliquely crenated and transversely striated; base flat; white with red dots. India. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1629.

stellatus. 24. Plaited and wrinkled, sea-green; whirls with concatenated dots; upper ones with a radiated spinous margin. India. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1630.

spengleri. 25. Surrounded with rows of ochraceous knots and granulations, waved with red; one part of the base smooth. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1631.

costatus. 26. Dots elevated, concatenated; whirls with oblong white knots beneath, and intermediate purple grooves. Chem. v. t. 169. f. 1633 and 1634.

inæqualis 27. Rough, with unequal dots and granulations; many rows of knots on the whirls; tubercles larger on the marginal row. Mozambique and Zanguebar. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1635 and 1636.

regius. 28. White, with a rosy shade; transversely striated, with many rows of knots; margin of the whirls prominent; perforation funnel-shaped. Chem. t. 170. f. 1637.

verrucosus 29. White, radiated with purple; conic; margin of the whirls knotty; perforation funnel-shaped. E. Indies. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1638.

cylindricus. 30. Brownish, cylindrical; whirls convex, marked with transverse striæ; perforation crenated. Very rare. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1639.

radiatus. 31. Radiated with red; pyramidal; whirls with concatenated dots; perforation funnel-shaped. South America and Isle of France. Lister, t. 632. f. 19.

32. Green;

viridis. 32. Green; first whirl with 5 rows of knots, second with 4, the rest glabrous. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1643 and 1644.

agrestis. 33. Black-brown; obtusely pyramidal; smooth; pillar with one obsolete tooth. China. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1645. and 1646.

niger. 34. Deep black; whirls flattish; spire transversely striated; pillar 1-toothed. China. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1647.

fanulum. 35. Whirls of the spire ochraceous, with spotted tubercles; and with an intermediate, spotted, wrinkled groove. Fernambuca. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1648 and 1649.

strigosus. 36. Ochraceous, varied with black at the tip; pyramidal and transversely striated; whirls of the spire flattish; margin tumid and spotted with red; very small. Shores of Morocco. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1650 and 1651.

dubius. 37. Pyramidal, with chesnut spots and clouds; margin of the whirls vaulted and nodulous; ½ to 2 inches long. Chem. v. t. 170. f. 1652 and 1653.

variegatus. 38. Depressed, varied with white and chesnut; base convex, with a scarlet ring marked with deeper spots. Cape. Chem. t. 171. f. 1661 and 1662.

declivis. 39. Depressed, white spotted with red; whirls transversely striated and plaited, distant; pillar 1-toothed; ¾ inch long. Red sea. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1663 and 1664.

depressus. 40. Whitish, radiated with red, and red at the tip; depressed; whirls surrounded with a belt of moniliform dots. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1668 and 1669.

lævis. 41. Pale brown; base subconvex; whirls smooth, obsoletely striated transversely; perforation white, funnel-shaped. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1670.

groenlandicus. 42. Pellucid, flesh-colour; base convex; whirls 6; convex and finely striated transversely. Greenland. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1671.

muricatus 43. Ovate-subumbilicated, and armed with pointed tubercles. Mediterranean. Gualteri, t. 64. f. H.

roseus. 44. Convex, rosy, grooved; perforation very minute; shell small. Cape of Good Hope. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1675.

petholatus * 45. Depressed, brown, with whitish spots; very minute. England and Scotland. Montagu, t. 10. f. 4.

viridulus. 46. Greenish, obliquely radiated with white; whirls convex, with a belt of moniliform granulations; pillar toothed. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1677.

urbanus. 47. Convex, with numerous rows of granulations; perforation denticulated; aperture crenulated. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1679.

guineensis 48. Clouded with brown and gray; rows of granulations numerous, with knots; aperture crenated; perforation toothed; 6 lines long. Guinea. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1680.

carneus. 49. Depressed, pale flesh-colour, with crowded moniliform belts of granulations; perforation large; 1-toothed. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1682.

tessclatus. 50. Transversely striated; whirls distant; numerous square spots on the spire. European seas.

quadratus 51. Subovate, tessclated and transversely striated; whirls shelving at the upper margin, and more perpendicular below. Mediterranean. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1683.

croceus. 52. Convex, chesnut; whirls of the spire convex, the outer one saffron-coloured. Africa. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1684.

53. Depressed, convex, with oblique violet rays; *obliquatus* whirls convex. Mediterranean. Pennant, iv. t. 80. f. 106.

54. Convex, chesnut; whirls with a fillet, varied *vittatus.* with red and white at the upper margin. Chem. v. t. 171. f. 1687.

55. Conic-convex; whirls unarmed; aperture semi- *indicus.* heart-shaped; perforation spiral; scarcely 1 inch high. India. Chem. v. t. 172. f. 1697 and 8.

56. Depressed, chesnut; whirls transversely stria- *infundibu-* ted and crenated, with rows of granulations; perfora- *liformis.* tion pervious, crenulated. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1702. and 3.

57. Straw colour; whirls convex, with decussated *strami-* striæ separated by a groove; perforation pervious. *neus.* Tranquebar. Lister, t. 635. f. 23.

58. Convex, transversely striated; white, with square *areola.* reddish spots; perforation crenulated, whirls of the spire separated by a white streak. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1710 and 11.

59. Greenish yellow, with longitudinal plaited ribs *inermis.* terminated by a spine; aperture compressed; perforation wrinkled. W. Indies. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1712 and 13.

60. Conic, olive, covered with rows of raised violet *imperialis* scales; whirls inflated, with a spinous radiate margin; spire with 7 whirls; large. South seas. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1714.

61. Depressed, straw colour, with darker ribs; *planus.* whirls of the spire plaited; perforation pervious. Chem. v. t. 174. f. 1721 and 2.

62. Conic; white, with oblique brown bands; *albidus.* whirls channelled near the suture. Born, t. 11. f. 19 and 20.

63. Conic; base greenish gray, spotted with brown; *fuscatus.* whirls round, flattish at the suture. Born, t. 12. f. 1. and 2.

64. Conic, red, dotted with white; slightly perfo- *corallinus.* rated; whirls round, the first with 15, the next with 6 rows of tubercles; 6 whirls in the spire; 4 lines long. Senegal. Chem. v. t. 165. f. 1571.

65. Very thin, and of a wax colour; first whirl *fragilis.* large, with a brown band in the middle. Schroeter, t. 3. f. 16.

66. Obtusely pyramidal; 4 elevated contiguous *carinatus.* whirls, tumid at the margin, in the spire. Saxe-Weimar. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 122. f. 1501.

67. Pyramidal, with flattish whirls, separated by a *cinereus.* very depressed suture, and the umbilicus cylindrical; base concave. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 633. f. 21.

68. Conical, smooth, with the whirls rounded, and *fasciatus.* flattened at their upper margins; umbilicus deep, and the outer lip crenulated. Born, t. 12. f. 2.

69. Depressed, transversely striated, and slightly *perspecti-* granulated; umbilicus pervious and crenated; aper- *viunculus.* ture roundish. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1708 and 9.

70. Convex, with two teeth on the pillar, and the *hybridus.* umbilicus crenulated. Mediterranean. Chem. v. t. 173. f. 1702 to 1705.

71. Conical, subumbilicated, coarse, obtusely plait- *conchylio-* ed; pellucid, and the whirls imbricated; base con- *phorus.* cave;

cave; pillar lip sickle-shaped. St Domingo. Born, t. 12. f. 21.

perlatus. 72. Depressed, with transverse equally granulated striæ; base convex; aperture roundish; inner lip toothed.

pumilio. 73. Conical, with the whirls marginated at their bases, and the marginal ribs muricated; base scabrous and slightly convex. Africa. Chem. xi. t. 196. f. 1888.

terrestris. * 74. Conical, longitudinally striated; whirls marginated at their bases; base flat and striated from the centre. Cumberland and Italy. A land shell. Lister, t. 61. f. 58.

bidens. 75. Subconical, somewhat keeled, with 8 finely striated whirls; base convex; aperture narrow; outer lip with 2 teeth, and reflected. Strasburgh. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 122. f. 1052.

fulmineus. 76. Subpyramidal, smooth, with the whirls separated by a deep suture; aperture roundish. River Huines. D'Argenville, t. 27. f. 4.

afer. 77. Convex, gray, with whitish spots; whirls flattish; 6 lines long. Senegal. Adanson, t. 12. f. 6.

neritoideus. 78. Subovate, convex, depressed; smooth, reddish, glabrous; 2 lines long. Greenland. Olaffsen, N° 1015.

** *Imperforated, and erect.*

vestiarius. 79. Conic, convex, with a gibbous callous base; aperture somewhat heart-shaped; very small. Mediterranean and Asia. Lister, t. 560. f. 45.

labio. 80. Ovate, substriated; pillar 1-toothed. Asia, Africa, New Zealand. Lister, t. 584. f. 42.

quadricarinatus. 81. Ovate, with transverse nodulous ribs, and 4 muricated transverse keels; aperture silvery, with the outer lip double and grooved; pillar toothed. Mediterranean. Chem. xi. t. 196. f. 1892 and 3.

turbinatus 82. Ovate, smooth, and the whirls convex; outer lip somewhat double; pillar obsoletely toothed. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 642. f. 33. and 4.

crassus. * 83. Subovate, thick, coarse, with one tooth on the pillar, and the base by the inner lip white and flattened. Britain. Don. t. 71.

tuber. 84. Depressed; whirls somewhat keeled, and knotted at the upper and lower margin; 2 inches diameter. Mediterranean and South America. Lister, t. 646. f. 38.

striatus. * 85. Conic; aperture obovate; last whirl angular; minute. Mediterranean, Falmouth. Don. t. 155. f. 1.

conulus. * 86. Conic, smooth; whirls separated by a prominent line. European seas; Britain. Chem. v. t. 166. f. 1588 and 9.

zizyphinus. * 87. Conic, livid, smooth, transversely striated; whirls margined. European and African coasts, shores of Britain. Don. t. 52.

papillosus. * 88. Conical, thin, whirls rather convex, with transverse granulated striæ; base slightly convex. Britain. Don. t. 127.

virgineus. 89. Subconical, slightly ventricose, with transverse rows of granules, and red dots, and a band round the base of the whirls; base convex. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 165. f. 1581 and 2.

obeliscus. 90. Conic; surrounded with numerous rows of white or green moniliform granulations; pillar 1-toothed; 2 inches high. India. Chem. v. t. 160. f. 1510 to 12.

virgatus. 91. Pyramidal, with rosy and white stripes, and numerous rows of knots; base with concentric white and red circles. India. Lister, t. 631. f. 17.

foveolatus. 92. Cinereous, variegated with greenish, whitish, and reddish; whirls of the spire tuberculated at the lower margin. Red sea. Chem. t. 161. f. 1516 and 17.

diaphanus 93. Thin, pellucid, with alternate chesnut and white moniliform belts of granulations; 1½ inch high. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 161. f. 1520 and 21.

selectus. 94. Subconical, with granulated transverse striæ; body broad and marginated at the base, which is convex; spire acuminated. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 196. f. 1896.

iris. 95. Covered with a smooth coat, under which it is bluish and reddish, shining and iridescent. Southern ocean. Chem. v. t. 161. f. 1522 and 23.

notatus. 96. Striæ decussated; grooved within; tip deep red. South sea. Schroeter, v. f. 10 and 11.

elegans. 97. Pyramidal, striated, brownish purple. South sea. Born, vii. t. 2. f. D 1. and D 2.

melanostomus. 98. Obtusely pyramidal; spotted with greenish. South sea. Chem. v. t. 161. f. 1526.

erythroleucus. 99. Pyramidal; striated with white and red. Morocco. Lister, t. 621. f. 8.

punctulatus. 100. Red, punctulated; very minute. Morocco. Chem. v. t. 162. f. 1530.

imbricatus. 101. Pyramidal, obliquely grooved, plaited and ribbed; whirls a little prominent at the margin. South American seas. Lister, t. 628. f. 14.

americanus. 102. Ochraceous; longitudinally grooved; whirls transversely striated; lip denticulated. South America and W. Indies. Chem. v. t. 162. f. 1534 and 1535.

cælatus. 103. Sea-green, with protuberances and oblique scaly plaits; whirls of the spire transversely striated and grooved in the middle; concave spines on the lower margin of the first whirl. Isle of France. Lister, t. 647. f. 40.

gibberosus. 104. Conical, with oblique plaits on the upper part, a transverse row of tubercles below, and the margins of the whirls spinous. New Zealand. Chem. x. vig. 23. f. A. B.

zic-zac. * 105. Subconical, transversely striated, and the body whirl transversely flattened in the middle; aperture roundish. Barbadoes and Britain. Lister, t. 583. f. 38.

obtusus. 106. Slightly conical, with the spire flattened, and the whirls marginated; base convex; aperture roundish. Chem. xi. t. 196. f. 1894 and 1895.

purpurascens. 107. Purple, with plaited tuberculated whirls. Chem. v. t. 162. f. 1538 and 1539.

cookii. 108. Sea-green, with numerous rows of tubercles and oblique undulated plaits; 4 inches long, as broad, and covered with a horny lid. Cook's bay. Chem. v. t. 163. f. 1540.

mauritianus. 109. Pyramidal; white, varied with reddish and green; whirls spinous; pillar emarginated, plaited. Bourbon and Mauritius islands. Lister, t. 625. f. 11.

fenestratus. 110. Pyramidal; white; whirls of the spire longitudinally ribbed, with transverse moniliform belts of green granulations; 1½ inch wide. Indian and South seas. Chem. v. t. 163. f. 1549 and 1550.

111. Ovate,

argyrostomus. 111. Ovate, with undulated ribs and transverse striæ; whirls ventricose; 2 inches broad and high. South sea. Chem. v. t. 165. f. 1562 and 1563.

sinensis. 112. Obtusely pyramidal; black, with a purple band at the base; pillar white. China. Chem. v. t. 165. f. 1564.

asper. 113. Obtuse; whirls round, with many rows of tubercles, grooved and transversely striated; pillar toothed. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 166. f. 1582.

tesselatus. 114. Conic, convex, transversely striated, with oblong square spots disposed in rows; pillar lip spotted with black. Mediterranean, Africa. Chem. v. t. 166. f. 1583.

granatum. 115. Pyramidal, white, variegated with scarlet; 2 first whirls very large; 2 inches high. South seas. Chem. x. t. 170. f. 1654.

crocatus. 116. Smooth, conic, white with a saffron tip. Born, t. 12. f. 11 and 12.

hortensis. 117. Subconical, with the whirls rounded, and the summit obtuse; base slightly convex. Inhabits gardens in southern climates. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 122. f. 1055 and 1056.

grandinatus. 118. Rough, with concatenated globules; base convex, with concentric, granulated striæ; lip double-toothed. Palmerston island. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1639.

*** *Tapering, with an exserted pillar, and falling on the side when placed upon the base.*

telescopium. 119. Imperforated, striated; pillars spiral; 4 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 624. f. 10.

dolabratus 120. Umbilicated, glabrous; pillar with recurved twisted plaits. South America. Lister, t. 844. f. 726.

terebellus. 121. Subconical, turreted and glabrous; pillar lip with 3 plaits, and the inside of the outer lip smooth. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 844. f. 72.

perversus. 122. Glabrous, imperforated; whirls reversed; small. Mediterranean. Ency. Meth. p. 496.

pusillus. 123. Flat at the base; finely striated transversely; whirls reversed; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Indian seas. Chem. ix. part 1. t. 113. f. 966.

undulatus. 124. Flat at the base; longitudinally ribbed; whirls reversed. Indian shores. Chem. ix. part 1. t. 113. f. 967.

ventricosus. 125. Cancellated, glabrous at the base; whirls reversed; upper ones ventricose; very small. Indian sands. Chem. ix. part i. t. 113. f. 968.

annulatus. 126. Aperture nearly square; whirls reversed, and ribbed on each side; small. Indian sands. Chem. p. i. t. 113. f. 969.

punctatus. 127. Whirls with a triple row of prominent dots; imperforated; size of a barleycorn. Southern Europe, Africa.

striatulus. 128. Imperforated; longitudinally and obliquely striated; small. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 1018. f. 81.

lunaris. 129. Whirls 3, reversed; convex, smooth, umbilicated. Chem. ix. t. 113. f. 971.

56 Turbo.

Gen. 28. TURBO, *the Wreath.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax: the shell univalve, spiral, solid; aperture contracted, orbicular, entire.

SPECIES.

* *Pillar margin of the aperture dilated and imperforated.*

1. Roundish, smooth, very obtuse; above ventricose. North seas. Chem. v. t. 185. f. 1854. a. to f. *obtusatus.*

2. Ovate, glabrous, obtuse; minute. Mediterranean, America. Gualteri, t. 45. f. F. *neritoides.*

* 3. *Periwinkle;* subovate, acute, striated; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch high; finely striated transversely. Shores of Europe; Britain. Don. t. 33. f. 1. and 2. The animal of this species is frequently eaten. *littoreus.*

* 4. Subconical, rather obtuse, with the body whirl ventricose. Britain. Montagu, t. 20. f. 4. *tenebrosus*

* 5. Subovate, rather obtuse; whirls ventricose. Norway and Britain. Don. t. 33. f. 3. *pudis.*

6. Umbilicated, subovate, acute; surrounded with striæ of raised dots; pillar margin a little obtuse; an inch high. Europe, America. Lister, t. 30. f. 28. *muricatus.*

7. Transversely grooved; first whirl black, finely striated; the rest silvery; lips bordered with brown. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1820 and 21. *æthiops.*

8. Ovate, thick, with 6 depressed whirls, of which the 2 lower are very large, and the spire mucronated; inside brown. Goree. Favanne, ii. t. 71. f. A 1. and A 2. *punctatus.*

9. Subovate, rather ventricose, transversely ribbed, and the margin of the pillar flattish. South Wales. Montagu, t. 20. f. 2. *jugosus.*

* 10. Conical, coarse, with 5 rounded obsoletely striated whirls, depressed at the suture, and the body whirl slightly keeled. *crassior.*

* 11. Conical, acute, and the aperture pear-shaped. Dorset and Devonshire. Dorset. Cat. t. 18. f. 13. *petræus.*

* 12. Subconical, minute, smooth, with 3 whirls, of which the body one is large, and the apex small and obtuse. Pembrokeshire. *fulgidus.*

13. Brownish, reticulated; whirls surrounded with belts; throat golden. Nicobar islands. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1822 and 23. *nicobaricus.*

14. Smooth, deep black; whirls distant, with a hollowed margin. Southern ocean. Chem. v. t. 185. f. 1846. *nigerrimus.*

** *Imperforate and solid.*

* 15. Oblong-ovate; striæ decussated and raised with dots; very minute. Shores of Europe, Britain. Don. t. 2. f. 1. *cimex.*

* 16. Subconical, with crowded, cancellated striæ, forming punctures by their interstices; with 6 whirls. Britain. Montagu, t. 30. f. 5. *calathiscus.*

* 17. Ovate, smooth; variegated with red and white; minute, transparent, glossy. European seas, shores of Britain. Don. t. 2. f. 2 to 6. *pullus.*

18. Convex, smooth; aperture somewhat angular. India. Rumphius, t. 19. f. N° 1. *personatus*

19. Ovate, smooth, glossy; whirls somewhat angular on the upper part. India, South America. Lister, t. 584. f. 39. *petholatus.*

20. Ovate, striated, with one stria thicker on the back. India. Lister, t. 584. f. 40. *cochlus.*

21. Conical-ovate, with two rows of white granules on the body whirl, and one on each whirl of the spire. Southern ocean. Chem. v. t. 163. f. 1545 and 6. *trochiformis.*

22. Subimperforate, with broad radiated spines, of which there are 12 on the base of the body whirl. South sea. Chem. v. t. 164. f. 1552 and 3. *stellaris.*

23. Subimperforate, with lacinated spines, of which there *aculeatus.*

there are 9 very large, and compressed on the body. Nicobar islands. Chem. v. t. 164. f. 1556 and 7.

stellatus. 24. Subpyramidal, yellowish, with the base flattened, and the lower margins of the whirls spinous. Chem. v. t. 164. f. 1558 and 9.

armatus. 25. Subimperforate, scabrous, with the summit of the spire depressed, and a spinous rib round the middle of the lower whirl; base with concentrical somewhat granulated striæ. Bay of Naples. Lister, t. 608. f. 46. a.

chrysostomus. 26. Subovate, wrinkled; whirls surrounded with 2 rows of vaulted spines; yellowish, radiated with brown. India. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1797.

tectum-persicum. 27. Ovate; spines obtuse, depressed; beneath papillous. India. Chem. v. t. 163. f. 1543 and 4.

pagodus. 28. Conic; spines obtuse, concatenated; striæ papillous beneath; 3 inches high. India. Lister, t. 644. f. 36.

calcar. 29. Nearly imperforated, depressed; whirls rough; with compressed hollow spines above. India. Chem. v. t. 164. f. 1552.

rugosus. 30. Subovate, striated; whirls rugged above. Mediterranean, New Zealand. Lister, t. 647. f. 41.

marmoratus. 31. Subovate, smooth; 3 rows of protuberances in the whirls; beak dilated behind. South America. Lister, t. 587. f. 46.

sarmaticus 32. Convex, obtuse; whirls knotty above, and separated by a canal. Asiatic and African seas. Chem. v. t. 179. f. 1777.

olearius. 33. Ponderous, convex, obtuse, smooth, angular. India. Chem. v. t. 178. f. 1771 and 1772.

cornutus. 34. Whirls and spire round, with decussated striæ; the first with 3 rows of imbricated spines; a large shell. China. Chem. v. t. 179. f. 1779 and 1780.

radiatus. 35. Rugged; whirls round, distant, transversely striated, and armed with small imbricated spines. Red sea. Chem. v. t. 180. f. 1788 and 1789.

imperialis. 36. Glabrous, glossy green; within snowy; aperture silvery; pillar lip callous above; whirls of the spire very convex. China. Chem. v. t. 180. f. 1790.

coronatus. 37. Wrinkled; white, with greenish clouds; tip orange; whirls crowned with spines and knots; pillar produced into a beak. Seas of Malacca. Very rare. Chem. t. 180. f. 1793.

canaliculatus. 38. Grooved and transversely striated; whirls 6; very convex. India. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1794.

setosus. 39. Whirls of the spire cylindrical; grooved and transversely striated. India. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1795 and 1796.

sparverius 40. Oblong, with broad, smooth striæ; yellowish spotted with brown. India. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1798.

moltkianus. 41. Silvery grey, with transverse orange and yellow bands; whirls of moniliform belts of granulations. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1799 and 1800.

spengleri-anus. 42. Variegated white and yellowish; whirls round, transversely striated, and separated by a canal. Indian ocean. Very rare. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1801 and 1802.

castaneus. 43. Transversely striated; chesnut brown, spotted with white; whirls 5, surrounded with rows of knots. South America. Don. v. t. 173.

crenulatus 44. Silvery grey, surrounded with many rows of knots; aperture milk-white within. Chem. v. t. 181. f. 1811 and 1812.

semicostatus. 45. Conical, minute, with 4 or 5 rounded whirls; body minutely striated transversely, and the upper part longitudinally ribbed.

smaragdus. 46. Ponderous, slightly depressed; smoothish and obliquely wrinkled; 4 whirls in the spire; first round and larger; 2 inches broad and high. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1815 and 1816.

papyraceus. 47. Pellucid, thin and finely annulated; first whirl large, the next with a band varied with red and white. E. Indian seas. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1817 and 1818.

æthiops. 48. Transversely grooved; first whirl black, finely striated; the rest silvery; lips bordered with brown. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1820.

nicobaricus. 49. Brownish, reticulated; whirls surrounded with belts; throat golden. Nicobar islands. Chem. v. t. 182. f. 1822 and 1823.

cidaris. 50. Smooth, with compressed roundish whirls; the first round and very large; aperture compressed, silvery; pillar a little prominent. India, China. Chem. v. t. 184. f. 1840 and 1841.

helicinus. 51. Smooth, nearly subimperforated; roundish, with contiguous convex whirls; pillar thickened. Born, t. 12. f. 23 and 24.

* *vitreus.* 52. Minute, subcylindrical, with 4 rounded whirls; aperture suboval, and a little contracted at the upper end. Cornwall. Montagu, t. 12. f. 3.

* *punctura.* 53. Conical, minute, glossy, with 6 rounded and finely reticulated whirls. West of England. Montagu, t. 12. f. 5.

* *arenarius.* 54. Conical, minute, with 5 rounded whirls, and decussated striæ. Salcomb bay, Devon. Montagu, t. 12. f. 4.

* *unifasciatus.* 55. Conical, minute, smooth, with 5 flattish transversely fasciated whirls; outer lip expanded. Britain. Montagu, t. 20. f. 6.

* *nivosus.* 56. Minute, subturreted, obtuse, smooth, with 5 or 6 rounded whirls, and the pillar quite smooth and even. Devonshire.

* *labiosus.* 57. Subconical, small, with about 7 flattish whirls, and slightly ribbed longitudinally; aperture expanded, and the outer lip somewhat reflected. Britain and Ireland. Montagu, t. 13. f. 7.

* *ulvæ.* 58. Conical, small, acuminated, with about 6 smooth flattish whirls, and the aperture subovate. Britain. Dorset. Cat. t. 18. f. 12.

* *ventrosus.* 59. Conical, minute, with 6 glossy ventricose whirls; aperture subovate. Britain. Montagu, t. 12. f. 13.

* *subumbilicatus.* 60. Conical, minute, subumbilicated, with four or five tumid whirls; aperture completely ovate. Weymouth. Dorset Cat. t. 18. f. 12. b.

* *cingillus.* 61. Conical, minute, with 6 flattish slightly striated contiguous whirls, and alternate bands of chesnut brown and horn colour. Britain. Montagu, t. 12. f. 7.

* *interruptus.* 62. Conical, minute, acuminated, with 5 flattish whirls, and interrupted longitudinal yellowish brown streaks. Montagu, t. 20. f. 8.

* *semistriatus.* 63. Conical, minute, with 5 or 6 slightly rounded whirls, which are transversely striated at both ends, and plain in the middle. Devonshire.

* *albulus.* 64. Opaque; whirls 5, longitudinally ribbed; aperture roundish; not margined. Pembrokeshire coast.

* *ruber.* 65. Opaque, smooth, with 5 whirls. Cornwall. Adams in Linn. Tr. iii. t. 13. f. 21. and 22.

* *pellucidus.* 66. Pellucid, white, with 5 reticulated whirls. Pembrokeshire coast. Montagu, t. 12. f. 4.

*** *Solid*

*** *Solid and perforated.*

pica. 67. Conic, rounded, smooth; a small tooth near the umbilicus; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad. In most seas. Lister, t. 640. f. 30.

nodulosus. 68. Conical, rounded, with the whirls nodulous, and striated; umbilicus toothed. W. Indies. Chem. v. t. 178. f. 1769 and 70.

auriculacis. 69. Conical, small, rather smooth; whirls much rounded; aperture oval-ear-shaped.

vinctus. 70. Minute, conical, and smooth, with 6 rounded whirls; summit rather obtuse; aperture suborbicular. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 20. f. 3.

quadrifasciatus. 71. Subconical, minute, and smooth; body-whirl somewhat keeled at the base; pillar lip broad, with a small groove ending in an umbilicus. Cornwall and Devon. Montagu, t. 20. f. 7.

sanguineus. 72. Umbilicated, conic, convex, striated and smooth; whirls slightly grooved; size of a pea. Africa, and Bay of Naples. Chem. v. t. 177. f. 1756. and 1767.

undulatus. 73. Ovate, convex, with longitudinal undulated streaks; spire obtuse; mouth silvery. New Zealand. Martyn, ii. t. 29.

argyrostomus. 74. Subovate, with transversely striated lines on the back. India. Chem. v. t. 177. f. 1760. and 1761.

margaritaceus. 75. Subovate, with smooth, elevated, dorsal lines. Indian ocean. Chem. v. t. 177. f. 1762.

delphinus. 76. Umbilicus rough; whirls, with branched spines. India. Chem. v. t. 175. f. 1727. to 1735.

exasperatus. 77. Depressed, knotty; an unequally tuberculated ridge on the back of the first whirl. Chem. vi. t. 174. f. 1723. and 1724.

mespilus. 78. Whirls convex, and separated by a band, tesselated with brown and white; colour of a medlar. South sea. Chem. v. t. 176. f. 1740. and 1741.

granulatus 79. Surrounded with knotty rings; dirty green, with a reddish tip. Indian and South seas. Chem. v. t. 176. f. 1744. to 1746.

torquatus. 80. With a keel and row of nodules, transversely ribbed, and strongly wrinkled obliquely; pillar lip broad and white; with a large umbilicus.

atratus. 81. Black, with double, alternate, black, and cinereous moniliform belts of granulations; pillar 1-toothed; size of a nut. Nicobar islands. Chem. v. t. 177. f. 1754. and 1755.

dentatus. 82. Depressed, orbicular; white, varied with brown; lower margin of the pillar denticulated. Chem. v. t. 178. f. 1767, and 1768.

diadema. 83. Dirty green, varied with brown; whirls 4, first large. New Zealand. A large shell. Chem. v. vig. 43. p. 145. f. A. and B.

cinereus. 84. Smooth, roundish, cinereous; whirls substriated, ventricose, flattened at the suture. Born. t. 12. f. 25. and 26.

anguis. 85. Transversely grooved, green, with blackish longitudinal zig-zag stripes; within margaritaceous. Sea. Martyn's Univ. Conch. ii. t. 70.

distortus. 86. Slightly mucronated, and covered all over with smooth spines. Chem. v. t. 175. f. 1737 to 1739.

**** *Cancellated.*

crinellus. 87. Umbilicus flattish, spreading; whirls round, with crenated striæ.

thermalis. * 88. Umbilicated, somewhat oblong and obtuse, with 4 round and smooth whirls; minute. Fresh water near the baths in Tuscany. Britain, Don. iii. t. 102.

scalaris. 89. *Wentle-trap;* conic; whirls distant, longitudinally ribbed. Var. 1. perforated with 8 whirls; 2. Imperforated with 10 whirls; 2 inches long. Barbary, Coromandel. Martini, iv. t. 152. f. 1426, 1427, 1430, and 1431.—The wentle-trap is a very rare shell, and therefore greatly esteemed among collectors. As a proof of this, in the year 1753, four specimens, which were disposed of at the sale of Commodore Lisle's shells in London, brought 75l. 12s. Two were sold at 16 guineas each; one at 18 guineas, and the fourth at 23l. 2s. The celebrated specimen lately in the possession of Mr Bullock, London museum, was brought from Amboyna by the late William Webber of Blackheath, who once refused the sum of 500l. offered for it by the late Earl of Bute. It is supposed to be the finest specimen in any cabinet; and was brought at the sale of the London museum by a niece of Mr Webber, in whose possession it now is, for 27l. 10s.

principalis. 90. Imperforated, turreted, with 10 contiguous, cancellated whirls, and longitudinal ribs. Coromandel. Chem. x. t. 195. f. 1876 and 1877.

clathrus. * 91. *False wentle-trap;* taper, not umbilicated; spire with longitudinal ribs; whirls smooth, ventricose, and separated by a deep canal; from 1 to 3 inches long. Indian and European seas, Britain, Falmouth, South Devon. Don. t. 28.

clathratulus. 92. Imperforate, turreted, with rounded subconti-guous whirls, and thin longitudinal crowded ribs. Britain. Linn. Trans. viii. t. 5. f. 1.

pulcher. 93. Imperforate, turreted, with contiguous whirls, and strong distant longitudinal ribs, ending in a transverse keel on the body-whirl. W. Indies. Lister, t. 588. f. 50.

ambiguus. 94. Tapering, perforated; whirls contiguous; smooth, ribbed. Mediterranean.

crenatus. 95. Taper, subcancellated; whirls 8-ribbed, contiguous; crenated above. W. Indies. Chem. v. t. 195. A. f. 1880 and 1881.

lacteus. 96. Taper; striæ crowded, longitudinal, raised; size of a barley-corn. Mediterranean. Ginarmi, t. 6. f. 55.

elegantissimus. * 97. Turreted, with the whirls obliquely ribbed, and the aperture somewhat angulated at both ends. England and Ireland. Montagu, t. 10. f. 2.

simillimus * 98. Turreted, with longitudinal straight ribs; aperture subovate. Island of Jura.

parvus. * 99. Turreted, minute, with 5 or 6 whirls, and distant elevated ribs. Britain. Don. t. 90.

striatulus. * 100. Turreted, minute, subcancellated, with the whirls contiguous, and interrupted by varicose belts. Britain and Mediterranean. Montagu, t. 10. f. 5.

reticulatus * 101. Conical, minute, with rounded whirls, and strongly reticulated. Pembrokeshire. Montagu, t. 21. f. 1.

bryereus * 102. Turreted, small and glossy, with contiguous ribs, and the aperture ovate. Britain and W. Indies. Montagu, t. 15. f. 8.

coniferus. * 103. Turreted, small, with continuous undulated ribs; and the whirls somewhat crenulated at the suture. Weymouth. Montagu, t. 15. f. 2.

denticulatus. * 104. Conical, small, with oblique ribs; whirls denticulated at the suture. Weymouth. Montagu.

105.

arcuatus. 105. Turreted, small, with continuous ribs, which are arched over at the suture. Guernsey.

striatus. * 106. Ovate, imperforated, ventricose; finely striated spirally; 6 lines long. Woods of Europe, Britain. Walker, f. 49.

costatus. * 107. Subturreted, minute, with the whirls obliquely ribbed, and transversely striated; aperture with a thick sulcated rim. Britain. Montagu, t. 10. f. 6.

unicus. * 108. Acuminated, minute, with 9 very convex whirls, and cancellated striæ. Sandwich. Montagu, t. 12. f. 2.

indistinctus. * 109. Subcylindrical, minute, with longitudinal ribs, and punctured transverse striæ in their interstices.

uva. 110. Ovate, obtuse; whirls contiguous, imbricated, and longitudinally striated; 1½ inch long. South America. Gualteri, t. 58. f. D.

mumia. 111. Subcylindrical, and obliquely ribbed; aperture semi-ovate, 2 toothed; inside tawney. America. Lister, t. 588. f. 48.

alviarea. 112. Cylindrical, obtuse at both ends, and obliquely striated; aperture semiovate, one tooth; with a white inside. St Domingo. Lister, t. 588. f. 49.

cylindrus. 113. Subumbilicated, cylindrical, obtuse; longitudinally striated, with contiguous equal whirls. Jamaica. Lister, t. 21. f. 17.

croceus. 114. Cylindrical, glabrous, obtuse, of an orange colour; lip marginated. Chem. ix. Part 2. t. 135. f. 1233.

sulcatus. 115. Ovate, obtuse, umbilicated; obliquely striated, and white; aperture semiovate; and outer lip reflected. Ceylon. Lister, t. 588. f. 47.

corneus. 116. Umbilicated, rounded, rather acute; whirls round, with decussated striæ; aperture reflected.

reflexus. 117. Umbilicated, convex, a little prominent; whirls round, substriated; aperture reflected. S. Europe.

elegans. * 118. Ovate, with 5 ventricose whirls, with strong, transverse, and fine longitudinal striæ. Britain and Italy. Montagu, t. 22. f. 7.

lincina. 119. Oblong, obtuse, with wrinkled striæ; aperture with a dilated, flat, crenated border; 8 lines long. Jamaica. Lister, t. 26. f. 24.

labio. 120. Oblong, umbilicated, brown, striated with convex dots; lip white, dilated; 15 lines long. Jamaica. Lister, t. 25. f. 23.

lunulatus. 121. White, cylindrical, reticulated; aperture remote.

ligatus. 122. Subumbilicated, nearly globular, acuminated; aperture thickish in the margin. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 123. f. 1071. to 1074.

foliaceus. 123. Trochiform, with foliaceous wrinkles, variegated with white and rose colour; umbilicus large. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 123. f. 1069. and 70.

marginatus. 124. Umbilicated, subovate, wrinkled, and the whirls transversely marginated and striated. Coromandel. Chem ix. p. 2. t. 123. f. 1075.

carinatus. 125. Rounded, subpyramidal, with 3 keels on each whirl, and a large spiral umbilicus. Jamaica; land shell. Lister, t. 28. f. 26.

separatista. 126. Rather smooth, with 3 keels, and the lower end of the body-whirl detached; aperture triangular. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 165. f. 1589. and 90.

niveus. 127. Depressed, pellucid, white, with three transversely striated and slightly attached whirls; umbilicus large. Nicobar islands. Chem. x. t. 165. f. 1587. and 8.

helicoides. 128. Depressed, white, with longitudinal brown zigzag stripes, and the whirls rounded; umbilicus deep and wide. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 123. f. 1067. and 8.

***** *Turreted.*

imbricatus. 129. Whirls of the spire imbricated downwards; 4 inches long. American islands. Knorr. vi. t. 25. f. 2.

replicatus. 130. Smooth; whirls imbricated upwards; 3 inches long. Tranquebar. Martini, iv. t. 151. f. 1412.

octangularis. 131. With a single prominent, acute, transverse rib; 4 inches long. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 591.

duplicatus. 132. Whirls with two prominent, acute, transverse ribs; 5 inches long. Coromandel. Lister, t. 591. f. 57.

torcularis. 133. With the whirls transversely striated, and an obtuse rib near both extremities of each. Born, t. 13. f. 8.

obsoletus. 134. With the whirls longitudinally wrinkled, and an obtuse rib on each of the sutures. Lister, t. 589. f. 53.

exoletus. * 135. Whirls with two prominent, obtuse, distant, transverse ribs; 2 inches long. Europe, Guinea, shores of Britain. Lister, t. 592. f. 60.

terebra. * 136. Whirls 6, prominent, acutely striated; from 2 to 6 inches long. Shores of Europe, Africa and China; Britain. Lister, t. 591. f. 57.

archimedis. 137. With about 24 rounded whirls, and ten sharp ribs on each. China. Chem. x. t. 165. f. 1591.

variegatus. 138. Whirls of the spire flattish, with 7 obtuse striæ; 2 to 3 inches long. S. America, Barbary. Bonanni, Rec. 3. f. 122.

unguinus. 139. With 10 obsolete striæ on each whirl. European ocean.

terebellum. 140. Umbilicated, glabrous, and yellow, with a keel on each whirl. Nicobar. Chem. x. t. 165. f. 1592 and 3.

annulatus. 141. With a prominent marginated suture. Gualteri, t. 58. f. L.

turris-thomæ. 142. With about 12 reversed whirls, and two rows of nodules on each. Island of St Thomas. Chem. xi. t. 213. f. 3022. a. to d.

bidens. * 143. Pellucid; whirls contrary; sutures subcrenated; aperture 2-toothed behind; 1½ inch long. Europe; roots of trees, Britain. Chem. ix. part i. t. 5. f. 3.

perversus. * 144. Pellucid; whirls reversed, not crenated; aperture 3-toothed; ¾ inch long. Europe, Britain, among moss, and in old walls. Linn. Tr. viii. t. 5. f. 2.

laminatus. 145. Pellucid, and the whirls reversed; pillar lip not detached, and furnished with two large teeth. Europe and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 4.

biplicatus. 146. Opake, longitudinally striated, whirls reversed; pillar lip slightly detached, and furnished with two approximated teeth. Europe and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 5.

corrugatus. 147. With the whirls reversed, and the base plaited and wrinkled; aperture with two teeth. Spain. Chem. ix. part i. t. 112. f. 961. and 2.

labiatus. * 148. Opake, striated, and the whirls reversed; aperture with two teeth, and a thick dilated white margin. Near London. Montagu, t. 11. f. 6.

quinquedentatus. 149. Slightly striated longitudinally, and of a greyish white colour; aperture ovate, with 5 teeth. France. Born, t. 13. f. 9.

tridens. * 150. Subcylindrical; smooth, pellucid; aperture 3-toothed. Italy, Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 2.

151.

juniperi. * 151. Conical, turreted, brown, with the aperture subovate, and 7-toothed. France and Britain. Montagu, t. 12. f. 12.

muscorum * 152. Ovate, obtuse, pellucid, with 6 whirls; aperture with a white margin, and nearly toothless. Britain. Montagu, t. 22. f. 3.

quadridens. 153. Subcylindrical, and the whirls reversed; aperture with 4 white teeth. France and Italy. Lister, t. 40. f. 38.

sexdentatus. * 154. Subcylindrical, smooth, with 5 rounded whirls; aperture 6-toothed. England. Montagu, t. 12. f. 8.

vertigo. * 155. Oval, with 5 reversed and finely striated whirls; aperture subtriangular; slightly marginated, and toothed. Denmark, Britain. Montagu, t. 12. f. 6.

carychium * 156. Conical, polished, and pellucid; aperture marginated, with 2 teeth on the inner, and a knob on the outer lip. Great Britain. Montagu, t. 22. f. D.

auriscalpium. 157. White, and very smooth; aperture with a flattish, concave, obtuse, reflected lip. Mediterranean.

politus. * 158. Imperforated, extremely glabrous, and the aperture ovate. Mediterranean and West of England. Don. t. 177.

subulatus. * 159. Subulate, extremely glabrous, white, with yellowish transverse lines, and the aperture ovate. Britain. Don. t. 172.

decussatus * 160. Subulate, decussated, with longitudinal and very minute transverse striæ; aperture suboval, and contracted at both ends. Dorsetshire. Montagu, t. 15. f. 7.

****** *Depressed.*

nautileus. * 161. Flattish, with the whirls annulated, and crested on the back. Germany, Switzerland, aud Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 5.

cristatus. * 162. Flattish above, and umbilicated beneath, with 3 or 4 rounded whirls. France and Britain. Walker, f. 18.

depressus. * 163. Minute, depressed, with 4 slightly wrinkled whirls, and umbilicated beneath. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 13. f. 5.

serpuloides. * 164. Minute, depressed, with three smooth whirls, and umbilicated beneath. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 21. f. 3.

57 Helix.

Gen. 29. Helix, *Snail.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a limax; shell univalve, spiral, subdiaphanous, brittle; aperture contracted, semilunar, or roundish.

Species.

* *Whirls longitudinally angulated on both sides.*

scarabæus 1. Ovate, both edges keel-shaped; aperture toothed. Mountains of Asia, and the Friendly islands. Lister, t. 577. f. 31.

afra. 2. Ovate, thick, obliquely striated, and the aperture 5-toothed. Goree. Adanson, t. 1. f. 4.

** *With a carinated margin on the body whirl.*

lapicida. * 3. Umbilicated; convex on each side; aperture transverse, margined, ovate; ½ inch in diameter. Rocks, woods, and hedges in Europe, Britain. Don. t. 39. f. 2.

4. Subumbilicated, a little depressed; obliquely striated; aperture transverse; 9 lines in diameter. Jamaica. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 125. f. 1097. *marginata*

5. Umbilicated, depressed and wrinkled; whirls reversed. Jamaica and China. Chem. ix. p. 1. t. 109. f. 923. *cicatricosa*

6. Umbilicated, convex, with the body whirl very broad, and the summit obtuse; aperture oval-ear-shaped, and the outer lip marginated. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 208. f. 2051 and 2052. *cornu.*

7. Subcarinated, umbilicated, convex; aperture marginated. Trees in Asia. Lister, t. 55. f. 51. *oculus-capri.*

8. Umbilicated, slightly keeled, white, with the summit mucronated, and the whirls convex and striated; aperture roundish, and the lip reflected. It is nearly allied to the above species. *involvulus.*

9. Umbilicated, flat above, and the base gibbous; aperture semi-heart-shaped. *albella.*

10. Umbilicated, keeled, with the spire flattened, and the base gibbous; aperture quadrangular. Lister, t. 86. f. 86. *albina.*

11. Umbilicated, slightly keeled, with 6 strongly striated whirls; spire depressed, and base convex. Denmark and Norway. Lister, t. 1058. f. 11. A. *rotundata.*

12. Subcarinated, umbilicated, convex, striated; more gibbous beneath; aperture roundish, lunated; minute. Water-falls of Lombardy. Algiers. *striatula.*

13. Subangular, umbilicated, convex, whirls 6; umbilicus pervious. Africa. Lister, t. 79. f. 80. *algira.*

14. Subcarinated, umbilicated, convex, smooth; beneath gibbous; umbilicus very minute; aperture roundish, lunate. Africa. *leucas.*

15. Perforated, subcarinated, contrary, convex, pale, with a rufous band, united to a white one; ¾ inch in diameter. Guinea. Martini, iv. t. 3. f. 22 and 23. *lævipes.*

16. Perforated, depressed, subcarinated; pale with a rufous band joined to a white one; whirls striated; 10 lines across. Tranquebar. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 129. f. 1149. *exilis.*

17. Subglobular, depressed, rough, imperforated; dotted with white; lip reflected, white. Italy and Portugal. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 129. f. 1148. *vermiculata.*

18. Perforated, subglobular, subcarinated; whirls 7; lip flesh-coloured; 6 lines broad. Woods of Denmark and Germany. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 133. f. 1206. *incarnata*

* 19. Umbilicated, very slightly keeled; rather depressed, with 6 striated whirls, and the umbilicus small. Britain. Montagu, t. 23. f. 1. *cantiana.*

* 20. Umbilicated, keeled, somewhat depressed, with 6 transversely striated whirls, and the umbilicus rather large. Britain. Montagu, t. 22. f. 2. *rufescens.*

* 21. Umbilicated, slightly depressed; somewhat keeled and striated, and the summit brown. France and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 11. *crenulata.*

* 22. Subcarinated, umbilicated, flat; above concave; aperture oblique; ovate and acute on each side. Ponds and rivers of Europe and Barbary, Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 1. *planorbis.*

* 23. Carinated downwards, umbilicated, convex; flat beneath; aperture semi-heart-shaped. Ponds and rivers of Europe. Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 4. *complanata.*

* 24. Compressed, obtusely keeled; convex on both sides, with 3 whirls, and the base umbilicated. Britain. Montagu, t. 6. f. 6. *fontana.*

25. Subcarinated, imperforated, convex, with an inverted, *ringens.*

verted, ringent aperture; lip 4-plaited behind; 1½ inch wide. India and Brazil. Lister, t. 99. f. 100.

plicata. 26. Umbilicated, keeled, and rather depressed; aperture ear-shaped; distorted, toothed, and sinuated, with a prominent marginated lip. E. Indies. Chem. xi. t. 208. f. 2048.

sinuata. 27. Imperforated, subcarinated, reddish brown, with a white ridge; aperture transverse; toothed and 3-plaited behind; 9 lines in diameter. America. Lister, t. 97. f. 98.

lucerna. 28. Imperforated, white; flattish above; beneath gibbous; aperture transverse, 1-toothed; 13 lines broad. E. Indies and Jamaica. Lister, t. 96. f. 97.

lampas. 29. Imperforated, flattish above, beneath gibbous; whirls scared. A rare shell. Chem. ix. t. 208. f. 2044 and 2045.

caracolla. 30. Imperforated, a little convex on each side, with a white transverse lip. India and America. Lister, t. 63. f. 61.

lychnuchus. 31. Imperforated, top-shaped, white, with fulvous bands; aperture transverse, 2-toothed. Jamaica. Lister, t. 90. f. 90.

cepa. 32. Subglobular, umbilicated, subcarinated; yellowish, with a whitish band; aperture transverse, 2-toothed, and sinuated behind. Jamaica. Lister, t. 88. f. 89.

unidentata 33. Subumbilicated, slightly keeled, with 6 whirls ending in an obtuse summit; base convex, with 1 tooth on the pillar lip, and the outer lip marginated. Ceylon. Chem. xi. t. 208. f. 2049 and 1050.

cornu-militare. 34. Subcarinated, imperforated, convex; aperture with a white margin. India and Germany. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 129. f. 1142 and 1143.

pellis-serpentis. 35. Subcarinated, with flame-coloured, red, and white bands; beneath surrounded with 4 rows of dots; aperture fringed. Warm parts of S. America. Lister, t. 66. f. 64.

vortex. 36. Flat, thin, concave above; aperture oval, flat; 3 lines wide. Ponds and rivers of Europe, Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 3.

scabra. 37. Subcarinated, imperforated, ovate, pointed, and striated. Jamaica. Lister, t. 583. f. 37.

gothica. 38. Convex on each side; horny, with subferruginous bands. Woods of Sweden. Linnæus, p. 1243.

gualteriana. 39. Imperforated, depressed, with decussated striæ; aperture acute on each side. India. A land species, very rare. Spain. Chem. v. vig. 44. f. a, b, and c.

turcica. 40. Umbilicated, depressed, rough, with elevated dots, and the keel crenated; aperture somewhat quadrangular. Mogadore and Morocco. Chem. xi. t. 209. f. 2065 and 2066.

avellana. 41. Umbilicated, roundish, thick, with a broad rib-like keel on the body whirl, and the spire depressed; outer lip notched near the upper end. New Zealand. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1919 and 1920.

maculosa. 42. Umbilicated, subcarinated, obliquely striated and a little depressed; aperture lunated, with a margined lip. Born, t. 14. f. 15 and 16.

punctata. 43. Subumbilicated, subcarinated, aperture transverse, oblong; lip margined, 3-toothed. Virginia. Lister, t. 93. f. 93.

annulata. 44. Umbilicated, depressed, white; whirls 4, the first gibbous and doubly carinated; aperture ovate; 2 lines in diameter. Schroeter, t. 5. f. 30.

corrugata 45. Umbilicated, wrinkled, and obliquely striated; aperture lunated. Otaheite. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 133. f. 1209.

*** *Umbilicated, and the whirls rounded.*

* 46. Above umbilicated, flat, blackish; whirls 4. Fresh waters, Europe, Coromandel, Britain. Don. t. 39. f. 1. *cornea.*

* 47. Concave on each side, flat, whitish; whirls 5, rounded; 1½ line diameter. Stagnant waters, France, Germany. Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 2. *spirorbis.*

* 48. Flattish, orbicular; aperture oval; lip fringed. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 127. f. 1124 and 1125. *polygyrata*

* 49. Subumbilicated, flat on each side, equal; aperture linear, arched; 1 to 2 lines wide. Stagnant waters of Europe. Britain. Montagu, t. 25. f. 6. *contorta.*

* 50. Polished, yellowish, above convex, umbilicated; flat beneath, perforated; 1 to 3 lines in diameter. Ditches of Denmark and Britain. Montagu, t. 23. f. 4. *nitida.*

* 51. White, umbilicated on each side; aperture dilated; 1 to 2 lines wide. Denmark, aquatic plants. Montagu, t. 25. f. 7. *alba.*

* 52. Pellucid, umbilicated above; striated with dots. Ditches in Denmark and Berlin. Martini, Ber. Mag. iv. t. 11. f. 64. *similis.*

* 53. With 4 rounded whirls, rather convex above, and the base largely umbilicated; aperture nearly orbicular, with a reflected margin. Denmark and Britain. Linn. Trans. t. 5. f. 5. *crystallina*

54. Umbilicated, flattish; aperture oval; 12 to 16 lines in diameter. China. Lister, t. 136. f. 40. *cornu-arietis.*

55. Subimperforate, ovate, conical, with the two last whirls placed in the centre of the first; aperture orbicular. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 18. *minima.*

* 56. Umbilicated, convex, hispid, diaphanous; whirls 5; aperture roundish, lunated. Woods of Europe. Britain. Montagu, t. 23. f. 3. *hispida.*

* 57. Subconical, semi-pellucid, with 5 rounded striated whirls, and the umbilicus very large. Britain. Montagu. t. 13. f. 2. *umbilicata*

58. Subumbilicated, somewhat conical, with 6 glabrous whirls; aperture sublunated, and transversely compressed. Denmark and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 9. *trochulus.*

59. Umbilicated, somewhat conical, with 5 transversely striated whirls, and the striæ membranaceous and bristly. Denmark and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 10. *aculeata.*

60. Subglobular, with 4 ventricose smooth whirls; aperture large, and nearly orbicular, and the pillar sinuated. Britain. Montagu, t. 13. f. 6. *lacuna.*

61. Subumbilicated, subglobular, glabrous; whirls above more ventricose; aperture large, ovate, oblong; 1 to 5 inches wide. Asia and America. Lister, t. 130. f. 30. *ampullacea*

62. Ventricose, nearly globular, wrinkled longitudinally, and the spire somewhat produced; aperture ovate-oblong, and umbilicus large. Indian islands. Lister, t. 125. f. 25. *urceus.*

* 63. Subumbilicated, subovate, obtuse; aperture roundish, semilunar; reddish brown, with obsolete, paler bands. Woods of Europe, Britain.—This species was a favourite dish among the Romans. It is still used as an article of food in many parts of Europe, during the season of Lent. It was introduced into England *pomatia.*

land by Sir Kenelm Digby, as a cure for consumption. Don. t. 84.

glauca. 64. Umbilicated, roundish, pointed; lip margined; aperture oval. Guadaloupe. Lister, t. 129. f. 29.

sultana. 65. Ventricose, very thin, much variegated, and minutely striated longitudinally; aperture patulous and ovate.

scalaris. 66. Conical, subturreted, with fine ventricose almost unconnected whirls, and the aperture ovate. France and Italy. Chem. ix. t. 128. f. 1139. N° 1.

citrina. 67. Subumbilicated, convex, obtuse; yellowish, with a brown band; from 12 to 18 lines wide. Woods of Jamaica and China. Lister, t. 54. f. 50.

castanea. 68. Perforated, subglobular, dull chesnut, with a rufous band united to a white one; whirls 7, striated. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 131. f. 1177. and 8.

globulus. 69. Globular, subumbilicated, white; lip reflected; whirls 5. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 44. f. 41.

rapa. 70. Perforated, subglobular, with hollow dots and a red band; first whirl larger; 8 lines wide. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 131. f. 1176.

incisa. 71. Depressed, umbilicated, white, with a cut margin. East Indies. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 130. f. 1166.

lucana. 72. Umbilicated, nearly globular, with five whirls, and the base gibbous; outer lip white and reflected. Tranquebar. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 130. f. 1155.

arbustorum. * 73. Umbilicated, convex, pointed; aperture suborbicular, a little reflected at the rim, brown, with a single black spiral band; 9½ lines wide. Shrubberies and hedges, Britain. Don. t. 136.

fulva. 74. Nearly imperforated, globular, pellucid; fulvous, with a white lip; 1 to 3 lines wide. Woods of Denmark. Muller, ii. p. 56.

epistylum. 75. Subimperforated, subglobular, striated; whirls 7; 12 lines in diameter. Jamaica. Lister, t. 62. f. 60.

papilla. 76. Subumbilicated, obtusely pyramidal, wrinkled, and the summit flat and glabrous; aperture transverse and marginated. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 122. f. 1053. and 1054.

kambeul. 77. Umbilicated, oblong-ovate, white, with decussated striæ, and brown longitudinal stripes; aperture contracted at the base. Senegal. Adanson, t. 1. f. 1.

labiosa. 78. Subcyclindrical, polished, diaphanous, and white; aperture semiovate, marginated, and 1-toothed. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 135. f. 1234.

cincta. 79. Subimperforated; white, with rufous lip and bands; whirls 5; 18 lines wide. Muller.

extensa. 80. Subimperforated, subglobular; pale, immaculate; aperture large; whirls 4, distant. Muller.

pisana. 81. Perforated; globular; white, with subinterrupted red bands; lip rosy; 5 to 7½ lines wide. Barbary, Italy. Montagu, t. 24. f. 1.

strigata. * 82. Perforated, with a depressed crown; white, with rufous bands, and numerous lines; lip white on each side; 10 lines wide. Italy, Britain. Montagu, t. 24. f. 4.

nemorensis. 83. Perforated, globular, polished; white, with brown bands; 15 lines wide. India. Chem. ix. p. ii. t. 129. f. 1146. and 7.

zonaria. 84. Umbilicated, convex, slightly depressed; aperture rather oblong and margined; whirls 5; first ventricose; 11 to 13 lines in diameter. Barbary, Europe. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 132. f. 1188. and 9.

85. Umbilicated; subdepressed, striated, white, 6 lines wide. Italy and Saxony. Schroeter, t. 2. f. 20. *striata.*

* 86. Umbilicated, depressed, yellowish, with a brown band or bands; 4 to 11 lines wide. Europe, Britain. Lister, t. 78. f. 78. *ericetorum.*

87. Umbilicated, cinereous; whirls 4; ribs transversely plaited; aperture circular; 1 line wide. Highlands of Denmark. Muller. *costata.*

88. Umbilicated, subdepressed; aperture circinate; lip white, reflected; whirls 4; 1 line wide. Moist woods of Denmark. Geoffroy, N° 6. t. 2. *pulchella.*

89. Umbilicated, depressed; yellowish, polished; white beneath; aperture large; whirls 5; 3½ lines wide. Cellars in Germany. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 127. f. 1129. *cellaria.*

90. Umbilicated, depressed on both sides; whirls obvoluted. Var. 1. Whitish, glabrous, with a triangular aperture. 2. Brown, hispid, with a linear aperture; 4 to 5 lines wide. Italy. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 127. f. 1128. *obvoluta.*

91. Umbilicated, convex; aperture margined, suborbicular, and elongated above; of the shape of an apple; 16 lines wide. India. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 125. f. 1098. and 9. *ungulina.*

92. Umbilicated, globular; aperture without pillar lip; 7½ lines wide. Hedges of Denmark. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 133. f. 1203. *fruticum.*

93. Subglobular, subumbilicated; white, with crowded chesnut bands and blue crown; lip reflected, white; 9 lines in diameter. Coromandel. Lister, t. 67. f. 66. *vittata.*

94. Subglobular, subumbilicated; flesh coloured, and transversely striated; whirls 5; 19 lines wide. *rosacea.*

95. Umbilicated, convex, obtuse; whirls 5, round; umbilicus wide; size of a nut. Southern Europe. A land species. Gmelin. *itala.*

96. Umbilicated, perforated, convex, obtuse; whirls 5, round, and yellowish white; umbilicus spreading; size of a small apple. Southern Europe. A land species. Chem. ix. p. 1. t. 108. f. 913. and 14. *lusitanica.*

97. Umbilicated, ovate; whirls 3; striated; aperture large, ovate, and united to the tip. Rivers of Africa. Lister, t. 566. f. 15. *mammelaris.*

98. Umbilicated, convex; whirls 5, round; umbilicus thin, perforated; aperture suborbicular. Southern Europe. *hispana.*

99. Umbilicated, ovate-oblong; finely striated; aperture white within. *lutaria.*

100. Perforated, ovate, ventricose, and streaked; tip ribbed and rosy; lip of the same colour; pillar white; whirls 6; 4 inches long. E. Indies. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 119. f. 1020. *ovata.*

101. Perforated, ovate, oblong, striated; lip and pillar rosy; whirls 6; aperture oval; 3 inches long. South America and India. Lister, t. 23, f. 21. *oblonga*

102. Perforated, oblong; white, with longitudinal, rufous bands; pillar reflected; straight; 18 to 20 lines long. Guinea. Lister, t. 578. f. 33. *flammea.*

103. Top-shaped, white with rufous bands; whirls 6; aperture transverse, large; 15 lines long. Lister, t. 16. f. 11. *pileus.*

104. Umbilicated, oblong-ovate, thick, with the whirls reversed, and the outer lip emarginated and *otaheitana*

white. Rivers in the island of Otaheite. Chem. ix. p. 1. t. 112. f. 950. and 951.

tenuis. * 105. Umbilicated, pellucid, horny, transversely striated, and convex; whirls 6, gradually decreasing; aperture semilunar; 4 or 5 lines in diameter. Britain. Schroeter, t. 5. f. 33.

cornu-venatorium. 106. Depressed, deeply umbilicated. Leaves and branches of trees, Senegal. Lister, t. 1055. f. 4.

trifasciata 107. Conic, ovate, white, with 3 brownish bands in the first whirl; aperture fringed; lip white, dilated. Tranquebar. A land species. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 134. f. 1215.

bontia. 108. Conic, ventricose, perforated, pellucid, with a black tip; first whirl with three yellowish bands. Bengal and Tranquebar. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 134. f. 1216. and 17.

trochoides 109. Top-shaped, perforated, polished; longitudinally striated; whirls reversed, the first keel-shaped; aperture angular. East Indies. Chem. x. t. 173. f. 1686.

læva. 110. Subcyclindrical, glabrous, contrary, barred; pillar yellow; lip slightly reflected; 12 to 16 lines long; very rare. East Indies. Lister, t. 33. f. 31.

labiosa. 111. Oblong, polished, white, diaphanous; whirls 8; aperture ovate, toothless; 11 lines long. India. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 135. f. 1234.

**** *Imperforate, and the whirls rounded.*

aurea. 112. Subumbilicated, ovate-oblong, obtuse, smooth, yellow, with the outer lip white and marginated. W. Indies. Lister, t. 34. f. 33.

recta. 113. Conic, a little pointed; whitish with a rufous band and streaks; lip reflected; whirls 7; 2½ inches long. Chem. ix. p. 1. t. 110. f. 925. and 6.

interrupta 114. Conic, pointed, white with fulvous streaks; lip white, reflected; whirls 7; 22 lines long. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 134. f. 1213. and 14.

arenaria. 115. Glossy, whitish, thin, longitudinally striated; spire contrary, hemispherical; minute. Coast of Rimini, Italy. Chem. ix. p. 1. t. 113. f. 972. and 3.

jamaicencis. 116. Globular, chesnut-brown, barred with white; lip fringed, white; crown obtuse. Jamaica. Lister, t. 42. f. 40.

rhodia. 117. Subglobular, depressed; base concave; aperture lunated. Rhode island. Chem. ix. p. 2. f. 1179.

ianthina. * 118. Nearly imperforated, roundish, obtuse, diphanous, and very brittle; aperture dilated behind, with an emarginated lip; 1 inch broad and high. In most seas.—The animal which inhabits this shell shines in the night, and stains the hand with a violet or purple dye. Asia, Africa, and Ireland. Lister, t. 572. f. 24.

vivipara. * 119. Imperforated, ventricose, subovate, obtuse; whirls 5 to 6, very convex; aperture nearly orbicular; 1½ inch long. Stagnant waters of Europe. Britain. This species is viviparous. Don. t. 87.

agu laris 120. Imperforated, greenish; whirls 5; spirally angular; throat wide; 12 lines long. China. Chem. ix. p. 2. t. 134. f. 1222. and 3.

fasciata. 121. Ovate, ventricose; white, with 3 shining red bands; whirls 5; spire acute; 9 to 15 lines long. Italy and Saxony. Guinoni, ii. t. 1. f. 6.

dissimilis. * 122. Subovate, pointed, yellowish-white, with a black lip; whirls 6. Tranquebar. Schroeter, ii. t. 4. f. 10.

nemoralis. * 123. Perforated, roundish, thin, pellucid, and marked with variously coloured transverse bands; whirls 5, from 9 to 11 lines wide. Woods of Europe. Britain. Don. t. 13.

aspersa. * 124. *Garden Snail;* imperforated, globular, pale, with broad, interrupted, brown bands; lip white; 7 to 8 lines wide. Gardens and orchards, Europe, Britain. Don. t. 131.—This species is extremely destructive to the tender leaves of plants, and fruits. It is oviparous; the eggs are round, and about the size of small peas.

cartusiana 125. Imperforated, rather depressed, and white, with 6 whirls. France. Geoffroy, p. 33. t. 2.

lucorum. 126. Imperforated, roundish, smooth; whitish, with rufous streaks and bands. Southern parts of Europe. Lister, t. 1058. f. 1 and 2.

hæmastoma. 127. Imperforated, roundish, brown, with a longitudinal white band; whirls 5, round, first large; aperture pure purple; 1½ inch broad. Ceylon. Lister, t. 1055. f. 2.

lactea. 128. Imperforated, depressed, grey, with white scattered dots; aperture blackish; outer lip reflected, and 1-toothed.

pulla. 129. Imperforated, subovate; brown striped; whirls 4; aperture oblique, margined, whitish; 2 inches broad.

picta. 130. Imperforated, subglobular, glabrous; whirls 4, round, first ventricose, the others depressed; aperture lunated. Italy. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 130. f. 1162 and 5.

aperta. 131. Imperforated, subglobular, finely striated longitudinally; whirls 3, first ventricose; aperture lunated; pillar spiral. St Croix. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 133. f. 1204 and 5.

versicolor. 132. Imperforated, roundish, and transversely striated; whirls round; the first ventricose; aperture ovate. Born, t. 16. f. 9. and 10.

fusca. 133. Thin, pellucid, smooth, with 5 or 6 whirls, which are obsoletely wrinkled longitudinally; aperture lunated.

pellucida. 134. Rather depressed, transparent, and greenish, with 3 whirls. France. Geoffroy, p. 38. N° 8. t. 2.

***** *Turreted.*

consolidata. 135. Thick, transversely striated, brown, and the summit truncated; aperture oval. Surinam. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 136. f. 1258.

decollata. 136. Imperforated, tapering; spire mutilated, truncated; whirls 4 to 7, first large; 6 to 15 lines long. Europe, Asia, and Africa. Lister, t. 17. f. 12.

truncata. 137. Smooth, white, with transverse-coloured bands, and the summit truncated; aperture roundish.

calcaria. 138. Thick, longitudinally striated, white, and the spire entire, but rounded at the summit. E. Indies. Lister, t. 14. f. 9.

cuspidata. 139. Of a horn colour, finely striated transversely, and longitudinally plaited; aperture oval, and the outer lip acute. E. Indies. In fresh water. Lister, t. 118. f. 13.

aspera. 140. Pointed, cinereous, transversely striated; whirls 7 to 8, toothed, marked with red streaks, and armed

armed with sharp spines; 5 to 8 lines long. Coromandel. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 136. f. 1259. and 60.

truncatula 141. Ovate, oblong, whirls 5, truncated upwards; aperture ovate; 2 to 5 lines long. Greece.

acuta. 142. Conic, pointed, white, with a red band; whirls 7; aperture ovate, toothless; 4 lines long. Italy. Lister, t. 19. f. 14.

obscura. * 143. Conic, brown; whirls 6; aperture oval, toothless; snail white; above dusky, eyes only black. Roots of trees, Europe, Britain. Mont. t. 22. f. 5.

lubrica. * 144. Conic, fulvous, polished; whirls 5 or 6; aperture toothless; $2\frac{1}{2}$ lines long. Moss and wet rotten wood, Britain. Da Costa, t. 5. f. 18.

vibex. 145. Grayish, transversely striated; whirls nodulous, and striped with red; pillar lip white. Coromandel. Martini, Ber. Mag. iv. t. 10. f. 57.

contortuplicata. 146. Turbinated, cinereous, nearly imperforated; crown truncated; whirls 5; aperture circinated.

stagnorum. 147. Subperforated, and a little tapering; whirls 5; aperture ovate; minute. Fresh waters. Baster, t. 7. f. 4.

octona. 148. Subperforated, tapering; whirls 8; aperture roundish; 4 lines long. America, Europe. Lister, t. 20. f. 15.

lackhamensis. * 149. Ovate-oblong, somewhat perforated, rather pellucid, with 7 whirls; aperture roundish-lunated; outer lip slightly reflected. Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 3.

incumbens 150. White, with longitudinal elevated striæ, and remote tawny stripes; pillar sinuated and reflected.

columna. 151. Tapering, white, with a fulvous tip; whirls 7 or 8, contrary, spotted; aperture oblong; $27\frac{1}{2}$ lines long. Guinea and Jamaica. Lister, t. 39. f. 37.

pella. 152. Imperforated, ovate, pointed, transversely striated; brown, with yellow bands; band on the first whirl double, on the rest single. Iceland.

plicarea. 153. Subulate, semipellucid, longitudinally plaited; whirls 10, round; aperture ovate. Born, t. 16. f. 14.

undulata. 154. Subulate, smooth, finely striated transversely; whirls about 12, round; aperture ovate; pillar glabrous. Born, t. 16. f. 15.

crenata. 155. Tapering, white, transversely substriated, and surrounded with a crenulated belt near the suture. Rivers of India. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 135. f. 1230.

carinula. 156. White, tapering, somewhat umbilicated; first whirl a little keel-shaped, with a blackish band. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 136. f. 1263.

flaviatilis. 157. Tapering, very glabrous, chesnut brown with with darker spots; throat whitish. Fresh waters, Coromandel. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 135. f. 1243.

undata. 158. Imperforated, oblong, white, with longitudinal red undulations; whirls 6—7, first thrice as large as the next; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. New Holland. Schroeter, t. 10. f. 4.

substriata. * 159. Subimperforated, oblong, finely striated with white; whirls 5; first twice as large as the next; aperture oval, margined; $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. Rhone and Britain. Montagu, t. 11. f. 1.

peregrina. * 160. Ovate, imperforated; whirls 8—9, round, distant, and equally decreasing; aperture oval; $\frac{1}{3}$ inch long. American islands, Britain. Dorset Cat. t. 18. f. 11.

guadaloupensis. 161. Oblong, perforated, whitish, with transverse brown bands, and the outer lip thickened within. Guadaloupe. Lister, t. 8. f. 1.

lyonetiana. 162. Conical, obtuse, longitudinally wrinkled, distorted, and the side opposite the aperture gibbous; aperture compressed. E. Indies. Chem. x. t. 3. f. 7.

****** *Ovate, and imperforated.*

pupa. 163. Coarse, nearly imperforated, ovate, oblong; whirls 6; aperture oblong, lunated. Mauritania.

barbara. 164. Coarse, oblong, imperforated; whirls 8; aperture roundish, lunated; size of a barley-corn. Algiers.

amarula. 165. Oblong, imperforated; whirls toothed, spinous; 10 lines long. Rivers of India. Lister, t. 133. f. 33.

stagnalis. * 166. Imperforated, ovate, tapering to a point; somewhat angular, by several longitudinal wrinkles; whirls 6 to 7, first ventricose; aperture oblong, oval; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Still waters of Europe, Britain. Don. t. 51. f. 2.

fragilis. * 167. Imperforated, ovate, tapering to a point; spire acute; whirls 5 to 7; aperture oblong, oval; 11 lines long. Still waters of Europe, Britain. Martini, Ber. Mag. iv. t. 9. f. 35.

palustris. * 168. Oblong, pointed, brown; aperture ovate; whirls 5 to 6. Meadows of Europe, Britain. Don. t. 175. f. 1.

fossaria. * 169. Imperforate, subovate, with 5 or 6 rounded whirls, and the suture conspicuous; aperture ovate. Britain. Montagu, t. 16. f. 9.

peregra. 170. Subconic, horny, with a sharp point; aperture ovate; 2 to 8 lines long. Stagnant waters of Denmark. Chem. ix. part 2. t. 135. f. 1244.

glutinosa. * 171. Ventricose, diaphanous, with an obtuse projection; 2 to 3 whirls; aperture wide; 2 to 4 lines long. Denmark, chiefly on the leaves of nymphæa lutea. Marshes at Deal. Montagu, t. 16. f. 5.

putris. * 172. Imperforated, obtuse, ovate, yellow; whirls 3, the first large, the others minute; aperture ovate; 1 to 8 lines long. Ponds in Europe, Britain. Montagu, t. 16. f. 3.

detrita. 173. Conic, white, with transverse rufous lines; whirls 6; aperture ovate; $8\frac{1}{2}$ lines long. Saxony. Lister, t. 8. f. 2.

limosa. * 174. Imperforated, somewhat oblong, pellucid; aperture ovate. Wet meadows of Europe, Sandwich, river Avon. Montagu, t. 16. f. 4.

truncatula. 175. Ovate-oblong, with the whirls detruncated, and the aperture ovate. Thangelstadt in Saxony. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 13.

tentaculata. * 176. Imperforated, ovate, obtuse, clouded with brown; whirls 4 or 5; aperture subovate; 1—4 lines long. Ponds and still waters of Britain. Don, t. 93.

canalis. 177. Subconical, with 5 rounded smooth whirls, and the pillar grooved. Southampton. Montagu, t. 12. f. 11.

lutea. * 178. Suboval, thickish, and of a yellowish orange colour; aperture spreading and oval. Devonshire. Montagu, t. 16. f. 6.

auricularia. * 179. Imperforated, ovate, gibbous, with a depression in the middle of the lip; whirls 3—5; the first ventricose; spire acute, short; aperture much dilated; 2—15 lines long. Ponds of Europe, Britain. Don. t. 15. f. 1.

sicula. 180. Ovate, smooth; whitish, with the apex acute,

and the pillar one-plaited. Sicily. Gualteri, t. f. N. N.

lævigata. * 181. Whirls 2; first ventricose; the other minute, and placed laterally; pale red, pellucid. Europe, Devonshire. Don. t. 105.

balthica. 182. Imperforated, ovate, pointed; whirls 4; wrinkles elevated; aperture ovate, dilated. Shores of the Baltic.

neritoidea. 183. Imperforated, convex, longitudinally striated; aperture roundish. Baltic. Gualteri, t. 64. f. 1.

perspicua. 184. Imperforated, convex, ovate; without lip; aperture extending to the tip, and exposes the whole inside. Mediterranean.

haliotoidea * 185. Imperforated, depressed, with waved striæ; aperture oval; open all the way down; whirls 4, lateral. Mediterranean, Atlantic, Indian and North seas. Britain. Montagu, t. 7. f. 6.

ambigua. 186. Subimperforated, convex; grooves remote, compressed; aperture semiorbicular. Mediterranean sea. Adanson, t. 13. f. 1.

inflata. 187. White, solid, opaque; first whirl twice as large as the rest; aperture large, margined. River Unstrut in Saxony. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 5.

albicans. 188. White, opaque, pointed; aperture oval. Waters of Hamburg. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 6.

repanda. 189. Ovate, pointed, subimperforated; first whirl ventricose, large; aperture semicircular; 6 or 7 lines long. Thinglestadt. Stagnant waters. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 16.

opaca. 190. Ovate, pointed; whirls 5; first large, aperture ovate, oblong. Hamburgh. Aquatic. Schroeter, t. 7. f. 17.

turbinata. 191. Oblong, imperforated, smooth, pointed; whirls inflated; the first larger, the rest gradually decreasing; aperture suboval, margined; $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Danube. Schroeter, t. 10. B. f. 5.

Nerita. 58

Gen. 30. Nerita, *Nerite.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a limax: the shell univalve spiral, gibbous, flattish at bottom; aperture semiorbicular, or semilunar; pillar lip transversely truncated, flattish.

Species.

* *Umbilicated.*

canrena. 1. Smooth; spire slightly pointed; umbilicus gibbous, and bifid. India, Africa, America. Lister, t. 560. 5. 4.

cancellata. 2. With decussated striæ, and impressed dots; spire subclavate; umbilicus gibbous, bifid. American islands. Lister, t. 566. f. 16.

punctata. 3. Subglobular, whitish, with numerous scattered yellowish dots, and three transverse rows of reddish, irregular spots. Mediterranean. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1903 and 4.

glaucina. * 4. Smooth, glossy, faintly wrinkled; spire rather obtuse; umbilicus rather closed by the pillar lip, which is gibbous and two-coloured; 2 inches long. Barbary, Europe, Britain. Don. t. 20. f. 1.

vitellus. 5. Subglobular; umbilicus perforated, equal. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 565. f. 12.

albumen. 6. Convex; umbilicus somewhat heart-shaped, with a flattened lobe. Cape of Good Hope, Barbary, Indian islands. Extremely rare. Schroeter, ii. t. 4. f. 13.

mammilla. 7. Ovate, glabrous; umbilicus partly covered; whirls four or five; aperture ovate. East and West Indies. Lister, t. 571. f. 22.

spadicea. 8. Subglobular, solid; tip bluish; lateritious bands in the throat, and a white one on the beak. Mauritius island. Rather large. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1901 and 1902.

rufa. 9. Thin, rufous; umbilicus darker, with a white border; throat with a reddish band. Mauritius island. Lister, t. 606. f. 34.

fulminea. 10. Subglobular, with angular tawney lines, and flattened lobe; white or yellowish. Africa, Senegal. Rare. Chem. v. t. 187. f. 1881.

orientalis. 11. Subglobular, polished very smooth; base of the spire a little wrinkled; pillar snowy. Eastern seas. Bay of Naples. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1898.

cruentata. 12. Subglobular, white, with red spots; lip obtuse and bluish; umbilicus spiral. Tranquebar. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1900 and 1901.

rugosa. 13. Wrinkled; within glabrous; umbilicus bordered with white. American islands. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1902 and 1903.

marochiana. 14. Subglobular, smooth, light green, brownish within; livid at the tip; wrinkled at the angle of the whirls. Africa. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1905.

sulcata. 15. Subglobular; obliquely plaited; spire with 4 whirls, mucronate; umbilicus bifid. Born, t. 17. f. 5 and 6.

arachnoidea. 16. White, reticulated with reddish lines, and blackish at the tip; umbilicus nearly covered; whirls convex. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1915 and 1916.

vittata. 17. Subglobular, brown, with a double white fillet in the middle; reticulated and denticulated on each side. Africa. Chem. v. t. 188. f. 1917 and 1918.

pallidula. * 18. Semitransparent, horn-colour; whirls prominent; aperture semilunar, and patulous; umbilicus large; a small shell. Coasts of Kent and Dorset. Da Costa, t. 4. f. 4 and 5.

papilla. 19. Pellucid, thin, oblong, with decussated striæ; dirty yellow; whirls 4; aperture suboval; pillar white; umbilicus half closed. Tranquebar. Chem. v. t. 189. f. 1939.

** *Imperforate; and the pillar lip toothless.*

corona. 20. Whirls of the spire crowned with spines; minute. India, America. Chem. ix. Part 2. t. 124. f. 1083 and 1084.

radula. 21. Grooved, with equal, tuberculated ribs; size of a walnut. Indian islands. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1946 and 1947.

cornea. 22. Obsoletely striated; white or pale violet. Red sea. Argenville, t. 7. f. M.

fluviatilis. * 23. Rugged, spotted, streaked, or mottled with white and purplish brown or pink; mouth closed with a testaceous operculum; 4 lines long. In slow rivers of Barbary and Europe, Britain. Don. t. 16. f. 2.

littoralis. * 24. Smooth, with a carious crown; whirls 4 or 5, first large; size of a horse bean. Europe, shores of Britain. Common. Don. t. 20. f. 2.

lacustris. 25. Smoothish, horny, or blackish, ending in a very fine

fine point. Still water and warm springs of Europe; supposed to be only a variety of N. *fluviatilis*.

magdalenæ. 26. Grooves wide and black; within white; whirls 3; lip smooth, 2-toothed; 6 lines long. Magdalene islands. Adanson, t. 13. f. 5.

marginata 27. Thin, with decussated striæ; tuberculated; black, with ochraceous spots; subglobular; aperture margined outwardly. Schroeter, t. 4. f. 16.

dubia. 28. Thin, pellucid, ovate, polished; dull yellow varied with black; outer lip acute; inner glabrous; crown prominent. Very rare. Chem. v. t. 193. f. 2019.

*** *Imperforate, with the pillar lip toothed.*

pulligera. 29. Smooth, coarse, with an excavated eye-like small spire; inner lip smooth, crenulated; whirls 2, one large, terminating in an acute tooth; 14—16 lines long. Rivers of India. Lister, t. 143. f. 37.

flavescens. 30. Smooth, yellowish variegated with white, and 3 black bands; pillar lip two-toothed; outer lip slightly striated. Nicobar. Chem. x. t. 195. f. 1594 and 1595.

undulata. 31. Thin, smooth, undulated, with an obtuse crown; outer lip substriated, and toothless; inner one a little denticulated. India. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1970 and 1971.

pupa. 32. Smooth, roundish, milk-white; whirls with transverse, parallel, black striæ; lip flat; teeth scarcely visible. Jamaica. Lister, t. 605. f. 31.

bidens. 33. Smooth; inner lip 2-toothed; size of a pea. New Zealand. Favanne, ii. t. 10. f. R.

viridis. 34. Smooth, green; inner lip crenulated in the middle. Minorca and Jamaica. Chem. ix. Part 2. t. 124. f. 1089.

virginea. 35. Smooth, ovate, inner lip denticulated; 2 to 10 lines long. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 604. f. 24 to 27.

polita. 36. Smooth; crown obliterated; lip toothed on each side; brown. India, South seas. Lister, t. 600. f. 17.

hieroglyphica. 37. Subglobular, white, with blackish undulated streaks; pillar-lip toothed and crenulated. E. Indian seas. Chem. v. t. 193. f. 2016 and 2018.

piperina. 38. Subglobular, smooth, thin, of a dull yellowish colour, with triangular black spots, and the pillar-lip denticulated. Malabar. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1905 and 1906.

larva. 39. Subglobular, smooth, with the summit very obtuse, and the pillar-lip very slightly denticulated. Amboyna. Rumphius, t. 22. f. No. 6.

nigerrima 40. Subglobular, smooth, thick, opake, and minutely striated transversely; outer lip entire, and pillar lip slightly wrinkled. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1985 and 1986.

peloronta. 41. Striated; lips toothed; inner one flattish and wrinkled. American islands. Lister, t. 595. f. 1.

albicella. 42. Striated; lips slightly toothed; inner one tuberculated. Cape of Good Hope, Indian ocean. Chem. v. t. 193. f. 2000.

plexa. 43. Roundish, with transverse crenulated ribs, which are alternately larger; inner lip plaited above, and tuberculated below. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 598. f. 14.

histrio. 44. Grooved, transversely striated; inner lip toothed; ribs 30, unequal. E. Indies. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1948 and 1949.

plicata. 45. Grooved; 17 to 20 transverse ribs; outer lip with 5 or 6 teeth within; inner convex, wrinkled, with three long, strong teeth, beside lesser ones. India. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1952 and 1953.

grossa. 46. Grooved, lips toothed; inner lip with a yellow spot, and 3 or 4 teeth; convex and wrinkled. Molucca islands. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1968 and 1969.

chamæleon. 47. With 20 grooves, varied with undulated alternate black and white rays; lips toothed; inner one wrinkled and tuberculated. Indian ocean. Banda. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1988 to 1999.

stella. 48. Subglobular, transversely ribbed, and the summit obtuse and radiated; lips denticulated. E. Indian seas. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1907 and 1908.

undata. 49. Grooves 30; ribs about 30, flattened; lips toothed; inner one wrinkled and tuberculated. Indian seas. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1950 and 1951.

exuvia. 50. Grooved, with 15 to 19 ribs; lips toothed; inner one tuberculated. India. Lister, t. 596. f. 5.

maxima. 51. Solid, thick, glabrous; undulated with black and yellowish rays; outer lip toothless; inner one concave, 4-toothed. A very large shell. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1942. and 1943.

atrata. 52. Deep black, glabrous, and thinly striated above; both lips white; outer one finely grooved, and slightly toothed within. Atlantic and South seas. Chem. v. t. 190. f. 1954 and 1955.

ascensionis. 53. With 16 white grooves; ribs spotted with white; crown a little prominent; outer lip glabrous on each side; inner one concave, yellowish and toothed. Ascension island; a large shell. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1956 and 1957.

lineata. 54. Mouth and lips white; whirls round, surrounded with black, parallel striæ; outer lip striated within. Malacca seas. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1958. and 1959.

pica. 55. White, radiated with black without; striæ transverse, rounded, smooth; inner lip wrinkled and 4-toothed. Indian seas. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1964. and 1965.

costata. 56. Yellowish within, subglobular, surrounded with thicker striæ; interstices snowy; lips white, toothed; outer one crenated without. Nicobar islands. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1966 and 1967.

versicolor. 57. With bluish black, red and white square spots, and bands, spotted with red and white; inner lip striated within, and toothed on each side. Antilles islands. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1962 and 1963.

quadricolor. 58. Pale violet, with a yellowish tip; white within, with elevated black striæ; lips toothed; outer one grooved within; inner one wrinkled. Red sea. Chem. v. t. 191. f. 1974 and 1975.

mallaceensis. 59. Grooved, yellowish within; crown a little prominent; outer lip unarmed and crenulated outwardly; inner lip yellowish, smooth. Malacca. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1976.

antillarum. 60. Subglobular, black; white within; grooved and striated; lips wrinkled and denticulated. Antilles islands. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1987.

flammea. 61. Subglobular, with crowded transverse striæ; white, with purplish undulated rays; outer lip grooved within; inner lip wrinkled above. W. Indies. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1992 and 1993.

fulgurans. 62. Subglobular, with crowded transverse striæ; deep black, with ochraceous rays; lips slightly denticulated;

lated; inner one tuberculated in the middle. American islands. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1996 and 1997.

tesselata. 63. Obtuse, transversely striated; the striæ marked with nearly square black and white spots; both lips denticulated; outer lip slightly striated within, inner lip with one or two teeth; concave, glabrous, and denticulated beneath. Islands between Africa and America. Chem. v. t. 192. f. 1998 and 1999.

turrita. 64. Bands alternately white and black; within white; crown much elevated; outer lip acute; whirls 4. Fresh waters in Antilles islands. Chem. ix. Part 2. t. 124. f. 1085.

aculeata. 65. Blackish, transversely striated; the striæ spinous; inner lip flattish, smooth, and slightly toothed. India. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1642.

59 Haliotis.

Gen. 31. Haliotis, *Ear-Shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a limax: the shell is univalve, dilated, ear-shaped, with a longitudinal row of orifices along the surface; spire lateral and nearly concealed.

Species.

* *With a longitudinal row of perforations.*

midæ. 1. *Midas' ear;* roundish, both sides polished; orifices from 8 to 10; 7 to 9 inches long. Indian ocean, Cape of Good Hope. Lister, t. 613. f. 5.

tuberculata. * 2. Subovate; outside transversely grooved, rugged and tuberculated; wrinkles on the outside undulated. The inner margin of the shell has a ridge the whole length, which terminates in one spiral turn at the end. This ridge is beset with tubercles, the last 6 of which, or from 6 to 9, are open. The inside is open, concave, and of a beautiful mother-of-pearl: the length is from 3 to 4 inches; breadth from 2 to 3. It is found on the shores in the south of England, after violent storms. It is common in the island of Guernsey, adhering to the rocks at the lowest ebb. The fish is eaten by the inhabitants, and the common people adorn their houses, with the shells, by sticking them on the outside with plaster. Don. t. 5.

striata. 3. Ovate, ferruginous, transversely wrinkled, and longitudinally striated; 4 or 5 orifices open. Asia, Barbary. Schroeter, ii. t. 4. f. 17.

cracherodii. 4. Roundish-ovate, nearly smooth, of a bluish black colour, and the inside iridescent. California. Leach's Zool. Misc. i. t. 58.

varia. 5. Ovate, longitudinally striated; larger striæ tuberculated; orifices 20 to 30; 4 or five open. India. Lister, t. 612. f. 4.

marmorata. 6. Oval, longitudinally striated, with obsolete transverse ones; orifices about 30, 4 or 5 open; 2 to 4 inches long. Africa, India. Lister, t. 614. f. 4.

asinina. 7. *Asses ear;* smoothish, oblong; margin somewhat falcated; nerves on the outside elevated; orifices about 30, 5 to 7 open; 3 inches long. India. Lister, t. 610. f. 1.

parva. 8. Ovate, red, with an elevated angle on the belly; orifices 30, 4 or 5 open. Africa, India. Favanne, i. t. 5. f. D.

bistriata. 9. Ovate, greenish, spotted with brown; striæ elevated, double, transverse; 6 orifices open. Africa. Lister, t. 612. f. 3

10. Varied with gray, bluish, and red; ovate; *australis.* spire prominent, inflated; 7 to 9 orifices open; 3 inches long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 166. f. 1604.

11. Ovate, smoothish, solid; varied with white and *glabra.* green; 6 orifices open; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Bay of Naples. Chem. x. t. 166. f. 1602.

12. Ovate, with decussated undulated striæ; under *virginea.* side iridescent; 6 orifices open; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 166. f. 1607 and 1608.

13. Roundish, varied with rosy and white; outer *pulcherri-* lip crenated; orifices 30, 6 pervious; 7 lines long. *ma.* South sea islands. Chem. x. t. 166. f. 1605 and 1606.

14. Suborbicular, depressed, wrinkled; varied with *ovina.* white, chesnut, and yellowish; orifices in the middle pervious. Chem. x. t. 166. f. 1609.

15. Oval, rugged, varied with white and red; spot- *gigantea.* ted; inner lip with a very broad margin; 3 to 7 orifices open. New Holland. Chem. x. t. 167. f. 1610 and 1611.

16. Ventricose, fulvid brown, with transverse wrink- *iris.* les, and longitudinal, tuberous plaits; under side iridescent; $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. New Zealand. Extremely rare. Chem. x. t. 167. f. 1612 and 1613.

** *Imperforate.*

17. Ovate, imperforated, with prickly ribs; spire *imperfora-* exserted; 1 inch long. India. Extremely rare. Chem. *ta.* x. t. 166. f. 1600 and 1601.

60 Patella.

Gen. 32. Patella, *Limpet.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a limax; the shell univalve, subconic, shaped like a bason, without spire.

Species.

* *With an internal appendage at the summit.*

1. Orbicular, perfoliated outwardly; lip vaulted, *equestris.* perpendicular; 1 inch wide. Indian and American seas. Lister, t. 546. f. 38.

2. Suborbicular, with longitudinal strong elevated *neptuni.* striæ, and the summit rather lateral. St Domingo and Falkland islands. Martini, i. t. 13. f. 117. and 118.

3. Pyramidal, transversely foliaceous, and the sum- *tectum.* mit central and erect. Batavia. Martini, i. t. 13. f. 125. and 126.

* 4. Subconic, smooth; lip somewhat lateral. Medi- *sinensis.* terranean and Indian seas. On oysters in Salcombbay, Devonshire, and Mediterranean. Don. t. 129.

5. Roundish, with radiated grooves, and striated; *auriculata* crown recurved; internal cavity ear-shaped. Borneo, Santa Cruz. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1628. and 9.

** *With an internal transverse partition.*

6. Conic, longitudinally plaited; internal lip lateral. *trochifor-* Tranquebar and Falkland islands. Chem. x. t. 168. *mis.* f. 1626. and 7.

7. Convex, spiral, with longitudinal undulated ribs, *trochoides.* and the margin crenated. Martini, i. t. 13. f. 135.

8. Ovate, tip subspiral; lip lateral; size of a *neritoidea.* cherry; inhabitant red. Indian seas. Lister, t. 545. f. 30.

9. Oval; tip recurved; lip placed behind and flat- *porcellana.* tened. India and Goree. Lister, t. 545. f. 34.

10. Oval, obliquely recurved behind; lip placed be- *fornicata.* hind

hind, and concave. Barbadoes, Mediterranean. Lister, t. 545. f. 33. and 35.

aculeata. 11. Oval, brown, with prickly striæ; crown recurved. American islands. Da Costa, 8. t. 2. f. 2.

goreensis. 12. Oval, flat, thin, white, glossy, lamellated on the outside; 5 to 6 lines in diameter. Rocks at Goree. Favanne, i. t. 4. lower fig. D.

crepidula. 13. Oval, flattish, smooth; lip semilunar, flat behind. Mediterranean, Indian ocean. Martini, t. 13. f. 29. and 30.

*** *With the margin angular, or irregularly toothed.*

laciniosa. 14. Rays unequal, elevated; thicker and obtuse, on the outside. India. Favanne, t. 2. f. I.

saccharina. 15. Angular, with 7 keel-shaped, obtuse ribs. Java and Barbadoes. Lister, t. 532. f. 10.

repanda. 16. Ovate, thin, much depressed, with longitudinal somewhat scaly striæ, and the summit acute; margin irregularly indented. Cerigo. Favanne, ii. t. 2. f. G. 1.

tenuis. 17. Ovate, depressed, and very narrow at the end, with angulated diverging ribs, and the interstices longitudinally striated. Martini, i. t. 10. f. 87.

margaritacea. 18. Ovate, depressed, with irregular angulated ribs, and transverse striæ; summit acute, and the margin angulated and crenated. Patagonia. Martini, i. t. 10. f. 85. A. and B.

barbara. 19. Toothed, with 19 elevated, vaulted, and muricated rays, Falkland islands. Knorr, v. t. 13. f. 5.

granularis 20. Toothed, with elevated, angular, imbricated striæ; 2 inches long. Southern Europe, and Cape of Good Hope. Lister, t. 536. f. 15.

granatina. 21. Angular, with numerous muricated striæ; 1½ to 3 inches long. Jamaica, southern Europe. Lister, t. 534. f. 13.

vulgata. * 22. With about 14 obsolete angles, and dilated, acute, crenated margin; crown central; 2 inches high. Marine rocks of Europe and India, Britain. Lister, t. 5. f. 40.

oculus. 23. Oval, thick, rather shallow, with broad angulated ribs, and the margin unequally serrated. Isle of Cyprus. Martini, i. t. 10. f. 86.

chlorosticta. 24. Ovate, depressed, with 11 broad and intermediate narrower ribs; margin angulated. Jamaica. Martini, i. t. 10. f. 84. A. B.

tigrina. 25. Oval-oblong, with 7 depressed ribs and intermediate longitudinal striæ; margin sub-octangular and crenated. Martini, i. t. 9. f. 78.

ornata. 26. Longitudinally ribbed and ornamented with rays, which are alternately green and black, dotted with white; margin sub-angular and nearly entire. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 197. and 1914. and 15.

miniata. 27. Ovate, depressed, with irregular decussated striæ, and narrow longitudinal grooves; margin crenated. Africa and Isle of France. Lister, t. 538. t. 21.

ulyssiponensis. 28. Suboval, depressed, thin, with 9 broad rays, striated and slightly ribbed longitudinally; margin denticulated. Shores of Lisbon. Martini, i. t. 8. f. 62.

radiata. 29. Subovate, slightly striated, and stellated both inside and out, with white and blackish rays. Nicobar islands. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1916. and 17.

cærulea. * 30. Crenated, subangular; striæ numerous, unequal; beneath blue; blackish on the outside. Mediterranean and Britain. Born, t. 18. f. 2.

* 31. Very thin and transparent, oblong-oval, quite smooth, of a pale yellowish horny colour, and nearly the same inside; vertex near one end, marked with a dark purple spot, from which emanate from 3 to 7 dotted lines of bright shining azure blue. Britain, on the leaves and stalks of *fuci*. Don. t. 3. f. 1. *pellucida.*

32. Conic, tuberculated; tubercles white, in rows; slightly toothed; retuse behind. Gmelin. *tuberculata.*

33. Longitudinally ribbed and striated, with one end contracted like a scoop, and the summit acute; margin slightly angular. New Zealand. Knorr, ii. t. 26. f. 3. *cochlear.*

34. Oval, subpellucid; ribs 16 to 20; tuberculated and foliaceous on the outside; 1 to 3 inches long. Shores of Cyprus. Martini, i. t. 9. f. 79. *cypria.*

35. Angulated, with undulated, blunt, much elevated ribs, and transversely wrinkled; summit obtuse. Born, t. 18. f. 1. *plicata.*

36. Oblong, flattish; bay striated with white; within milk-white, with 11 elevated, unequal striæ; crown rounded, white. American islands. Martini, i. t. 9. f. 80. *monopis.*

37. Suboctangular, thick, depressed, with fine somewhat granulated striæ, and the spire acute. Provence. Lister, t. 538. lower figs. *angulosa.*

38. Whitish, obtusely pentangular; margin crenated, dilated; crown obtuse; bottom reddish. Born, t. 18. f. 4. and 5. *pentagona.*

39. Oval, ochraceous, with elevated black striæ; within silvery, spotted; crown pointed, white, smooth, bottom with a straw-coloured spot. Martini, i. t. 8. f. 67. *melanogramma.*

40. Ferruginous, with angular or undulated russet lines and cinereous belts; within milk-white, with elevated, knotty striæ; crown pointed; margin plaited. Straits of Magellan. Martini, i. t. 28. f. 66. *ferruginea*

41. Thin, pellucid, striated, blackish, with olive rays; within glaucous or cinereous; crown pointed; margin crenated, bottom milk-white. Shores of Africa, Malaga, Lisbon. Martini, i. t. 8. f. 64. and 5. *crenata.*

42. Ovate, with annular striæ; black with elevated, unequal striæ; margin crenated; crown and bottom white. Provence and Cyprus. Martini, i. t. 8. f. 60. *lugubris.*

**** *With the summit pointed and recurved.*

* 43. Entire, conic, pointed, striated, with a hooked, revolute crown; 2 inches high. America, Mediterranean, and Asiatic seas; shores of Britain. Don. t. 21. f. 1. *ungarica.*

44. Conical, with fine cancellated striæ, and the summit obliquely recurved; margin entire. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 544. f. 32. *militaris.*

45. Subconical, with concentric imbricated wrinkles, and the summit slightly recurved. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 544. f. 30. and 31. *antiquata.*

46. With distant strong longitudinal ribs, and the summit recurved; base ovate, and margin sinuated. South Sea. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1919. and 20. *cochleata.*

47. Entire; ribs somewhat imbricated; crown hooked; margin sinuated. North America. Martyn's Univer. Con. i. t. 18. *calyptra.*

48. Convex, with longitudinal striæ, which are alternately larger, and armed with vaulted scales; summit recurved; base ovate. America and Falkland islands. Martini, i. t. 12. f. 115. *intorta.*

cassida. 49. Convex, longitudinally ribbed, and striated transversely, with the summit recurved; base roundish, and the margin crenated. Isle of France. Martini, i. t. 12. f. 116.

tranquebarica. 50. Ovate, thin, pellucid, with fine crowded striæ; chesnut with white scales, within milk-white; with a brown spot at the bottom, and azure spot on the crown. Tranquebar. Lister, t. 530. f. 8.

mammilaris. 51. Conical, subpellucid, finely striated longitudinally, and the summit reflected; base oblong, and the margin entire. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 537. f. 17.

leucopleura. 52. Striated, entire, alternately black and white: 1 inch long. West Indies. Lister, t. 539. f. 22.

tricarinata. 53. Substriated, with 3 ribs on the forepart; 2½ inches high. New Zealand. Born, t. 18. f. 6.

pectinata. 54. Entire, ovate, with wrinkled, slightly branched striæ; crown nearly central; 2 inches long. Mediterranean. Einl. ii. t. 5. f. 3.

fusco-lutea 55. Convex, oval-oblong, submembranaceous, with longitudinal striæ, which are alternately larger, and wrinkled transversely; summit reflected. Born, t. 18. f. 8.

lutea. 56. Entire, oval, convex, striated, with a submarginal, reflected, mucronate crown; size of a melon seed. India. Martini, i. t. 17. f. 154. and 5.

perversa. 57. Oblong, horny, very thin, pellucid, glabrous, with a ferruginous base. Africa. Martini, i. t. 12. f. 114. A. and B.

lacustris. * 58. Entire, oval, membranaceous, with a central, mucronate, reflected crown; 1½ to 2½ lines long. Fresh waters of Europe, Britain. Don. t. 147.

oblonga. * 59. Membranaceous, brittle, slightly contracted in the middle, with the summit pointed and obliquely reflected; base oblong. Britain and other parts of Europe. Don. t. 150.

***** *With the summit obtuse, and the margin entire.*

lævis. 60. Subconical, smooth, and diverging longitudinal lines, and the summit nearly marginal; base subovate. England. Montagu, t. 13. f. 8.

radians. 61. Oval, pellucid, much depressed, striated longitudinally, and radiate with blackish spots. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1618.

areolata. 62. Pyramidal, reddish gray, with thin, circular striæ crossed by longitudinal ones; crown violet. Straits of Magellan. Martini, i. t. 5. f. 41.

flammea. 63. Ovate, with fine annulated striæ, reddish grey, with undulated brown rays; crown acute, central; white in the middle. Falkland islands. Martini, i. t. 5. f. 42.

indica. 64. Reddish grey, with radiated striæ, glabrous, narrower on one side; crown acute, smooth, surrounded with a reddish ring; 3¾ inches long. India. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 49.

surinamensis. 65. Thick, subovate, yellowish, with black rays, and longitudinal, unequal striæ; and surrounded with knotty belts; crown obtuse, smooth, white. Surinam. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 50.

vitellina. 66. Ovate, yellow; base unequally striated; crown whitish, obtuse. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 51.

lævigata. 67. Ovate, yellow, within bluish white, with oblique flattened striæ, alternately thicker and thinner; crown white, smooth, polished. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 54.

punctulata 68. Rounded, white, with many coloured dots, radiated towards the base, and surrounded with 2 brown rings. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 55.

rota. 69. Roundish, with longitudinal reddish stripes, radiated in pairs, and the margin yellowish. W. Indies. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1619.

testudinaria. 70. Entire, acute, smooth, glabrous. Indian and North seas. Martini, i. t. 6. f. 45 to 48.

testudinalis. 71. Entire, ovate, striated; crown obtuse, nearly central; 14 lines long. Greenland seas. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1614 and 1615.

compressa 72. Entire, oval, oblong, striated, smooth; compressed on the back; 14 inches long. India. Lister, t. 541. f. 25.

afra. 73. Conical, elevated, with about 100 narrow longitudinal ribs; summit obtuse, glabrous, and central. Island of Goree. Martini, i. t. 5. f. 34.

rustica. 74. Entire, conic, with 50 obtuse striæ; 3 inches long. Portugal. Lister, t. 537. f. 20.

jamaicensis. 75. Conical, convex towards the base, with longitudinal striæ, and distant transverse ridges; base roundish. Jamaica. Martini, i. t. 5. f. 37.

stellifera. 76. Oval, entire, striated; black brown radiated with white; within silvery. Friendly islands and New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1617.

fusca. 77. Entire, ovate, obtuse, with 39 cinereous, filiform, elevated striæ. Straits of Magellan. Martini, i. t. 5. f. 40.

surinamensis. 78. Depressed, thick, with remote decussated striæ towards the base, and the summit smooth and central; base nearly oval; inside yellow. Surinam. Martini, i. t. 7. f. 50.

notata. 79. Entire, striated, with a submucronate, erect crown; within white, with a black, heart-shaped spot, white in the middle; minute. Mediterranean. Chem. x. vig. 25. f. c and d.

cruciata. 80. Entire, oval, subconvex; brown, with a white cross; 1 inch long. Schroeter, ii. t. 5. f. 7.

reticulata. 81. Entire, conic, compressed, with reticulated veins. Mediterranean. Schroeter, ii. t. 5. f. 7.

cæca. 82. Oval, with crowded longitudinal elevated dotted striæ, and the summit acute and erect. Drobach in Norway. Muller Zool. Don. i. t. 12. f. 1 to 3.

virginea. * 83. Oval, very entire, with pale purplish longitudinal rays, and the summit nearly marginal. Britain and Norway. Don. t. 21. f. 2.

tesselata. 84. Oblong-oval; very entire; finely striated longitudinally, whitish, tesselated with red spots. Norway. Muller Zool. Don. i. t. 12. f. 6 and 7.

fulva. 85. Oval-oblong, with minute, somewhat decussated striæ, and the spire nearly marginal. Bay of Drobach in Norway. Muller Zool. Don. i. t. 24. f. 1 to 3.

ambigua. 86. Oblong, depressed, with the posterior margin rounded, and the anterior truncated; summit nearly marginal. New Holland. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1918.

radians. 87. Entire, oval, pellucid, depressed, striated, horny, and radiated with black spots. New Zealand. Chem. x. t. 168. f. 1618.

umbellata. 88. Entire, roundish, diaphanous; depressed, with yellowish rays within; crown pale yellow; margin very acute; 4 inches long. Indian ocean. Chem. x. t. 169. f. 1645.

****** *With a marginal fissure.*

fissura. * 89. Oval, conic, with reticulated striæ; cleft on the fore-part; crown recurved; ½ inch long. European and

and Barbary coasts, Devonshire. Martini, i. t. 12. f. 109 and 110.

incisa. 90. Oval, rather depressed, cancellated, with a broad marginal fissure, and the summit recurved. Falkland islands. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1925 and 1926.

fissurata. 91. Oval, depressed, with crowded longitudinal striæ, and a short marginal fissure. New Zealand. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1929 and 1930.

******* *With a perforated summit.*

noachina. * 92. Conical, longitudinally striated, and the summit recurved, with a rhomboidal perforation, extending towards the anterior margin. Norway and Britain. Montagu, t. 13. f. 10.

pustula. 93. Oval, gibbous, convex, with reticulated striæ; margin crenated; perforation near the posterior margin. Mediterranean and Indian seas. Lister, t. 528. f. 30.

græca. * 94. Ovate, convex, reticulated; crown not much elevated; perforation oblong; margin crenulated; length $\frac{3}{4}$ inch. Foreign specimens $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch. European seas, Sandwich. Don. i. t. 21. f. 3.

atricapilla 95. Ovate, cancellated, with the longitudinal ribs nodulous and alternately smaller; summit somewhat lateral, and the inner margin entire. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 528. f. 5.

nodosa. 96. Oval, subconical, with elevated, strongly tuberculated ribs, and the summit nearly central; margin crenated. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 528. f. 6.

perforata. 97. A little convex, transversely wrinkled; brownish, with straw-coloured rays and spots; striæ longitudinal, and alternately larger and scaly; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 528. f. 7.

caffra. 98. Ovate, compressed, striated; finely annulated, and radiated with black; bottom milk-white; perforation nearly central. Cape of Good Hope. Martini, i. t. 11. f. 95.

pileolus. 99. Oblong, with longitudinal striæ, and the sides compressed; perforation circular and submarginal. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1922.

scutellum. 100. Repand on each side, compressed; perforation radiated with grooves; from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Falkland islands. Schroeter, ii. t. 6. f. 11.

picta. 101. Ovate, with concentrical elevated belts, and alternately white and violet longitudinal rays; perforation oval. Magellan straits. Martini, i. t. 11. f. 90.

nimbosa. 102. Ovate, striated, rugged, brown; perforation oblong; 2 inches long. Mediterranean and Atlantic. America. Martini, i. t. 11. f. 91 and 92.

nubecula. 103. Subovate, rugged, white radiated with red; slightly striated; perforation ovate. Mediterranean. Lister, t. 529. f. 22.

porphyrozonias. 104. Oblong, compressed, unequally striated; white, with 5 purple, interrupted belts; greenish white within; perforation minute, surrounded on the inside with a red circle. North America. Martini, i. t. 12. f. 102 and 103.

macrochisma. 105. Ovate-oblong, slightly striated, and the sides somewhat compressed; perforation very long, and widened at the posterior end. Japan. Chem. xi. t. 197. f. 1923 and 1924.

61 Dentalium.

Gen. 33. Dentalium, *Tooth-shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a terebella; shell univalve, tubular, straight or slightly curved, with an undivided cavity, open at both ends.

Species.

1. With 10 ribs, slightly curved and striated; 4 inches long. Indian and European seas. Lister, t. 547. upper f. 1. *elephantinum.*

2. Straight, doubly or triply striated, and annulated. E. Indies. Martini, i. t. 1. f. 4. A. *rectum.*

3. With 10 ribs, smooth, and slightly curved. Indian seas. Martini, i. t. 1. f. 4. B. *aprinum.*

4. With 8 ribs and 8 striæ, pointed; green, tipped with white. Sicilian seas. Lister, t. 547. lower fig. *striatum.*

5. With 20 striæ, slightly curved, interrupted; red, tipt with white. Mediterranean. Rumphius, t. 41. f. 6. *dentalis.*

* 6. Round, slightly curved; smooth, glossy, tapering to a small point; pervious; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Indian and European shores; western coasts of England. Don. ii. t. 48. *entalis.*

7. Round, slightly curved, interrupted, opaque; $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. African ocean. Schroeter, ii. t. 6. f. 16. *corneum.*

8. Round, slightly curved, continued, with crowded, annular striæ; $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. Indian and European seas. Martini, i. t. 1. f. 3. A. *politum.*

9. White, smooth, round, slightly curved, with remote rings. India. Gmelin. *eburneum.*

10. Finely striated, slightly curved; grey, with darker bands; thickness of a crow quill. Sicily. Martini, i. t. 1. f. 3. B. *fasciatum.*

* 11. Subpellucid, subarcuated, tapering to a small point; pervious, contracting a little towards the larger end; white, glossy, and smooth. British channel; called by the mariners *hake's tooth.* It is frequently brought up with the sounding line. Montagu, t. 14. f. 7. *gadus.*

* 12. White, opaque, transversely striated and imperforated; minute. Sandwich, Falmouth harbour. Adams's Microscope, t. 14. f. 8. *imperforatum.*

* 13. Subcylindrical, arcuated, marked with regular, strong, transverse striæ; aperture round, tapering to the other extremity, which is closed; $\frac{1}{8}$ inch long; resembles the trachea of an animal. Milton, Devonshire. Rare. Montagu, t. 14. f. 10. *trachea.*

* 14. Round, straightish, smooth, minute; not larger than a bristle. Mediterranean and Britain. *minutum.*

15. Horny, flexile, straightish, round and smooth; $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches long. North seas. Schroeter, t. 6. f. 17. *pellucidum.*

* 16. Cylindric, arcuated, smooth, glossy, without striæ or wrinkles; aperture orbicular; the other end closed, rounded; length one line. Devonshire coast. Montagu, Test. Brit. p. 497. *glabrum.*

62 Serpula.

Gen. 34. Serpula, *Worm-Shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a terebella: shell, univalve, tubular, generally adhering to other substances; often separated internally by entire divisions at unequal distances.

Species.

1. Suborbicular; umbilicated; convex, with radiated wrinkles. Greenland, on Sertularia. *stellaris.*

2. Regular, oval, loose, glabrous, not larger than *seminulum.*

a grain of sand. Adriatic and Red seas; and is sometimes found fossil. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 22. a. and b.

incurvata. * 3. Straight, with 3 close whirls at the smaller end; minute. Sandwich. Walker, f. 12.

planorbis. 4. Orbicular, regular, flat, equal; resembles a round scale; adheres to shells.

cereolus. 5. Long, narrow, round, smooth, yellowish; many times twisted. America. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 20. E.

spirillum. * 6. Regular, spiral, orbicular; whirls round, gradually decreasing. Found in the ocean, on zoophytes, on the *corallina officinalis* from Milton rocks, Devonshire. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 20. C. and D.

minuta. 7. Regular, spiral, orbicular, with the whirls reversed; taper, and transversely wrinkled. Britain. Montagu, p. 505.

spirorbis. * 8. Regular, spiral, orbicular; whirls slightly channelled above and inwardly, and diminishing gradually towards the centre. Found in most seas, adhering to *fuci*. Shores of Britain. Don. t. 9.

riquetra. * 9. Strong, opaque, irregularly twisted and contorted; triangular; $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 inch long. Found in the ocean, adhering to marine substances, stones, and the bottoms of ships. Coasts of Britain. Don. t. 95.

intricata. * 10. Filiform, rough, and intricately twisted; greenish white, a little rugged and coarse. European and Indian seas; shores of Britain, on shells.

carinata. * 11. Regular, spiral, with the outer whirl rising into a carinated ridge on the top. Salcombe Bay, Devonshire.

granulata. * 12. Round, spiral, glomerated; 3 elevated ribs on the upper side; size of a coriander seed. North seas, in masses adhering to shells and stones. Britain. Don. t. 100.

cancellata. 13. Spiral, glomerated, with three grooves, the lower interrupted by transverse ribs; aperture 2-toothed. Greenland seas.

heterostropha. * 14. Taper, spiral, with three elevated ribs on the upper side, and the whirls reversed. Devonshire. Montagu.

corrugata. * 15. Regular, spiral, transversely wrinkled, and umbilicated. Devonshire.

lucida. * 16. Taper, spiral, very smooth and glossy; whirls reversed. Britain. Linn. Tr. v. t. 1. f. 31.

vitrea. * 17. Round, regular, spiral, orbicular, wrinkled, with a thickened aperture. Greenland seas; shores of Britain.

contortuplicata. * 18. Angular, rugged, and irregularly entwined; transversely striated; 3 to 4 inches long. European and American seas, shores of Britain. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 24. A.

nebulosa. 19. Thick, wrinkled, and much twisted; aperture large and indented. America. Favanne, t. 6. f. 1.

goreensis. 20. Round, cancellated, yellow, within horny; 8 to 9 inches long. Goree. Favanne, i. t. 6. f. 812.

glomerata. 21. Round, glomerated, with decussated wrinkles. European and Atlantic sea. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 23.

lumbricalis. 22. Round, flexuous, with a spiral, acute tip; transversely ribbed, and longitudinally wrinkled; 3 to 5 inches long. Atlantic and Indian seas, in large masses. Lister, t. 548. f. 1.

conica. 23. Subcylindrical, flexuous; spiral at the base. America. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 15.

arenaria. 24. Jointed, entire, distinct, flattish beneath. India and Africa. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 19. A, B, and C.

afra. 25. Substriated, yellowish brown, round, twisted into 3 whirls, with a central tip. Goree. Martini, i. t. 3. f. 20. A. B.

volvox. 26. Suboctangular, cancellated, and irregularly spiral. E. Indies. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 14.

anguina. 27. Roundish, somewhat spiral, with a longitudinal, jointed cleft. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 548. f. 2.

muricata. 28. Angular, muricated, with a longitudinal, subarticulated fissure. Indian ocean. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 8.

annularis. 29. Subcylindrical, with annular contractions, and an obsolete longitudinal fissure. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 10.

ornucopiæ. 30. Conic, spirally twisted, yellowish, with brown bands; the middle round and twisted; aperture orbicular. Mauritius island. Chem. xi. t. 211. f. 202 and 203.

decussata. 31. Round, with decussated striæ, slightly wrinkled, flexuous, red; within smooth, white. Barbadoes. Lister, t. 547. f. 4.

vermicularis. * 32. Round, tapering, curved, wrinkled; 2 to 3 inches long. European seas, coasts of Britain. Don. t. 95. The animal which inhabits this shell is of a bright scarlet colour, and is furnished with elegant feathered tentacula, from the midst of which arises a trumpet-shaped tube, and a lesser simple one.

tubularia. * 33. Taper, subulated, and flexuous, with the larger end detached and ascending. Devonshire and Shetland islands.

denticulata. 34. White, round, subulate, straight, and toothed at the sides; with a longitudinal glabrous rib in the middle; tip glabrous, a little incurved; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long. Found in the lepas tintinnabulum. West Indies. Schroeter, ii. t. 6. f. 18.

aquaria. 35. *Watering-pot;* round, straight, taper, with a dilated, radiated, larger extremity; the disc is covered with cylindrical pores; 3 to 5 inches long. Indian ocean. Lister, t. 548. f. 3.

ocrea. 36. Brown, roundish, striated. Indian ocean, adhering to corals. Martini, i. t. 1. f. 9.

probascidea. 37. Smooth, white, the broader part straight, and transversely plaited; 2 to 4 inches long. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 18. A and B.

protensa. 38. Polished, smoothish, with annulated plaits, a little tapering towards the end; size of a quill. Indian and American seas. Martini, i. t. 2. f. 12. A.

gigantea. 39. Somewhat triangular, and a little flexuous, gradually tapering, violet; within smooth and pale yellow; aperture white, with undulated striæ, and armed with a conic tooth; a foot high, and as thick as the little finger. Africa and America. Pallas, t. 10. f. 2 to 10.

sulcata. * 40. Whirls 2, deeply and spirally grooved; greenish; minute. Coast of Pembrokeshire, on the roots of fucus digitalis.

ovalis. * 41. Suboval, with 2 bends, imperforated; minute. Found at Denbigh.

reflexa. * 42. Regular, rounded; margin reflected at the aperture; minute. Pembrokeshire sands.

cornea. * 43. Regular, rounded, pellucid, with three whirls; horny. Pembrokeshire coast.

bicornis. * 44. Semilunar, ventricose, white, opaque, glossy; minute. Sandwich and Reculver.

perforata. * 45. White, opaque, glossy; semilunar and perforated; minute. Sandwich. Rare.

lactea. * 46. Oval, thin, smooth, pellucid, with milky veins; minute. Sandwich. Very rare.

lagena. * 47. Round, striated, grooved, with a narrow neck, like an oil flask; minute. Sandwich and Sheppey.

retorta. * 48. Rounded, margined, with a slender recurved neck. Sandwich. Rare.

63 Teredo.

Gen. 35. TEREDO, *Ship-Worm.*

Gen. Char.—The animal is a terebella, with two calcareous, hemispherical valves, cut off before, and two lanceolate ones: the shell tapering, flexuous, and penetrating wood.

SPECIES.

gigantea. 1. Taper, subcylindrical, nearly straight, thick, and pellucid, with two internal tubes at the summit. Inhabits the sandy shores of Ceram, one of the Molucca islands, in shallow water. Rumphius, t. 41. f. D and E.—This species grows to an immense size; and has been found no less than 5 feet 4 inches long, and the circumference at the base 9 inches, tapering upwards to $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches; the colour on the outside is milk-white; the inner surface rather of a yellow tinge.

navalis. * 2. *Ship-worm;* shell thin, cylindrical, smooth; more or less twisted; rather obtuse at the tip; 4 to 6 inches long. Britain. Don. t. 145.

At the smaller end the shell becomes thick and strong, and is furnished within with plaits or laminæ, which contract that part, leaving a very small opening. The anterior valves attached to the head of the animal, are of a hemispherical form, one half of the front projecting in a sharp angle, and somewhat pointed. The inside of each valve is white, furnished with a long, flat, curved tooth, projecting inwards, under the hinge, and a short lateral tooth at the extremity of the hinge, corresponding in each valve. The margin opposite the hinge runs to an acute angle, at the point of which, in each valve, is a small knob, which comes in contact when the valves are brought together. Near the extremity of the tail there are two valves, one on each side; a little concave on the inside, and rounded at the end. By their means the extremity of the tube at the thickened part is closed. These are properly to be considered as the shell of the animal, because they are attached to it. The tube, or testaceous sheath, which lines the hole made in the wood, appears only to be formed as an apartment, in which the animal may move with more ease; for it is found that two tubes never come in immediate contact with each other, although the fibres of the wood between them are frequently no thicker than paper. This tube is seldom so long as the animal; the internal part of the perforation is usually not lined with it for the space of 2 inches, and sometimes more; but the smaller end is always even with the surface of the timber which is perforated; but so small, as not easily to be discovered, yet it is sufficient to admit the water, which is regulated by the posterior valves of the animal.

It is found in the sides and bottom of ships, and even the strongest oak, which has been some time under water. This testaceous animal was originally a native of the warmer climates, and was brought to Europe, where it has been produced, and has proved extremely destructive to the bottoms of ships, and to works constructed of wood, which remain for some time constantly under water. It appears, from some piles of solid oak which were examined in the dock-yard of Plymouth, and which had remained under water for about four or five years, that the destructive effects of these animals are very great in that time; for these piles were found to be greatly perforated, which rendered it necessary to remove them, and replace them with others. The bottoms of ships which frequent warm climates, it is well known, are sheathed with copper, to secure them from the effects of these destructive animals. But the method which is adopted about the dock-yards to preserve the timbers which are constantly under water, is to cover them with broad-headed nails; which, by the effects of the sea water are soon incrusted with a coating of rust, which is found to be impenetrable to the ship-worm.

It has been observed that the *teredo navalis* cuts across the grain of the wood as seldom as possible. After it has penetrated a little way, it turns and continues with the grain, till it meets with another shell, or a knot in the wood. The course which it then takes is regulated by the nature of the obstruction. If this be considerable, it makes a short turn back in the form of a syphon, rather than continue for any distance across the grain.

utriculus. 3. Solid, cylindrical, undulated; 7 inches long. In wood. Kemmener, t. 1.

clava. 4. Clavated at one end, incurved at the other; narrower, obtuse and perforated in the middle; 2 inches long. Found in the seed-vessels of the xylosteum granatum. Coromandel. Ency. Meth. t. 167. f. 6 to 16.

64 Sabella.

Gen. 36. SABELLA, *Sand Shell.*

Gen. Char.—The animal a nereis, with a ringent mouth, and two thicker tentacula behind the head: shell tubular, composed of particles of sand, broken shells, and vegetable substances, united to a membrane by a glutinous cement.

SPECIES.

scruposa. 1. Solitary, loose, curved, with lentiform, glossy granulations; thickness of a swan's quill. India and American islands.

scabra. 2. Solitary, fixed by the base, simple, curved, with radiated, rough granulations. America. Act. Petrop. 1766. t. 9. f. 1 and 2.

alveolata. * 3. Numerous, parallel tubes, communicating by an aperture, forming in the mass the appearance of honey combs; 2 to 3 inches long. European coasts, Britain. Ellis Corals, t. 36.

chrysodon. * 4. Solitary, subcylindrical, papyraceous, chiefly composed of fragments of shells, thickness of a quill; 2 to 6 inches long. European and Indian seas, shores of Britain. Martini, i. t. 4. f. 29. and 30.

belgica. * 5. Straight, conic, composed of minute particles of sand; 2 to 3 inches long. European coasts, shores of Britain. Martini, i. t. 4. f. 37.

rectangula. 6. Brown, with alternate white and black rings; straight, with a rectangular gibbous extremity; 9 inches long. Martini, i. t. 4. f. 31.

capensis. 7. Cylindrical, conic, open at both ends; membranaceous; rough, with interrupted, transverse striæ. Cape of Good Hope. Mull. Linn. Naturf. 6. t. 19. f. 6 and 7.

nigra. 8. Cylindrical, black, smoothish on the outside; composed

composed of minute particles of sand; ½ inch long. Rivulets of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 1.

stagnalis. 9. Straight, tapering, open at both ends; smooth, with a margined aperture, composed of very minute particles of sand. Rivers of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 13.

conica. 10. Narrow, conic, smooth, straight, cinereous; with a blackish open tip, composed of very minute particles of sand; not ½ inch long. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 14.

uncinata. 11. Smooth, round, tapering, with an open hooked tip; ¾ inch long. Rivers of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. D. f. 8.

sabulosa. 12. Cylindrical, closed at the tip, subclavated, perforated, and composed of larger grains of sand; not an inch long. Thuringia and Belgium. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 4.

vegetabilis 13. Depressed, composed of fragments of twigs, stems, and bark, and broken pieces of the tellina cornea; an inch long. Waters of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 9.

ammoniata. 14. Polygono-cylindrical, within smooth, composed of fragments of cornu ammonis. Rivers. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 10.

helicina. 15. Round, within smooth, composed of fragments of the helix pusilla; an inch long. Stagnant waters of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 11.

dimidiata. 16. One part of the shell composed of sand or gravel, the other thicker, clavated, and composed of fragments of shells. Waters of Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 3. D.

fixa. 17. Composed of small stones; tapering towards the tip; an inch long; affixed to stones in the water, and open at the side by which it is fixed. Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 12.

clavata. 18. Composed of small stones; the open end clavated, and consisting of larger stones; solitary. Thuringia. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 2.

corticalis. 19. Composed of pieces of bark, towards the end of broken stems. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 5.

arundinacea. 20. Subconic, open at both ends, composed of fragments of the bark of reeds, placed on each other; an inch long. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 6.

aculeata. * 21. Composed of small twigs, the points of which project a little; an inch long. Thuringia, Britain. Schroeter, t. 11. f. 7.

marsupialis. 22. Black; open end cylindrical and narrower, the other part tinged and ovate; 2 inches long. Schroeter, 2. t. 6. f. 21.

norwegica 23. Roundish, open at both ends, brittle, membranaceous; composed of very minute grains of sand; 4 inches long. Norway. Schroeter, 2. p. 591. N° 20.

lumbricatis. 24. Coarse, creeping, fragile, open at both ends; the animal not furnished with tentacula at the mouth; body prickly, jointed. Deeps of the Greenland seas; fixed to stones. Fabr. fu. Groenl. p. 374. N° 369.

indica. 25. Cylindrical, composed of capillary, subcylindrical, agglutinated crystals of quartz. Indian ocean. Abildy Schr. Bell. Naturf. 9. p. 144. t. 4.

arenaria. * 26. Extremely fragile, cylindrical, composed of pure sand, slightly cemented together, without any internal membrane; size of a raven's quill; from 1 to 2 inches long. Dorsetshire coast. Montagu.

subcylindrica. * 27. Long, subcylindric, slender, fragile, composed of fine sand, and minute bits of broken shells, cemented together on a fine membrane; 3 inches long. Salcomb bay. Montagu.

letiformis. * 28. Long, slender, gradually tapering to the lower end, composed of fine fragments of shells, and minute flat bits of stones, cemented together at their edges; 3 to 4 inches long. Salcomb bay.—Some have been observed with a lateral branch near the smaller end, which is supposed to be a young one. Montagu.

curta. * 29. Small, short, composed of sand and minute bits of flat stones, agglutinated to a tough membrane; size of a crow quill; an inch long. Inlet near Kingsbridge. This sabella is gregarious, covering the whole surface of the shore, appearing like bits of straw covered with mud. Montagu,

compressa * 30. Short, broad, and very flat, composed of large fragments of flat, bivalve shells, placed with the concave side inwards; 1½ inch long. Deeps at Torcross, Devonshire.

The animals included under the preceding genus, have for their coverings particles of sand agglutinated on the external membrane, and resemble rather the larvæ of certain *insects*, than the testaceous *vermes*. The latter form their calcareous integuments entirely from the secretions of their own surfaces, and are attached to these by cartilaginous processes, so as to render them essential and indispensable parts of their structure. The coverings of the sabellæ seem to be more of an adventitious nature, and may be considered rather as serving the purposes of habitations, than as being organized *integrals* of the contained animal. This genus, therefore, does not come under the class of testaceous animals; and indeed is by all physiologists of modern times rejected from the arrangement of testaceous vermes.

65 Enumeration of the species.

Number of species included under each order, in the preceding classification.

MULTIVALVES	99
BIVALVES	655
UNIVALVES	1655
Total number of species exclusive of the sabellæ.	2409

CHAP. V. OF THE CONSTITUENT PARTS OF SHELLS, &c.

HAVING in the former chapter enumerated, under each genus, all the species of testaceous animals which have been hitherto discovered; and having given the characteristic marks by which each is distinguished, which marks are derived from the shell or testaceous covering; we now propose to inquire what is the nature of this substance; in what way it is produced by the animal, and how it is enlarged as the animal increases in size. These topics shall be the subject of the present chapter, which may be conveniently divided into the following sections. 1. Of the constituent parts of shells. 2. Of their formation. 3. Of the colours of shells. 4. Of the formation of the umbilicus and protuberances, &c. 5. Of the pearl.

SECT.

Of the Constituent Parts of Shells, &c.

Sect. I. *Of the Constituent Parts of Shells.*

Phil. Trans. 1799.

The nature and component parts of testaceous substances have been particularly investigated by Mr Hatchett, from whose paper we extract the following observations.

66 Divisions of shells from their component parts.

In his examination of marine shells, Mr Hatchett found, from the nature of the substance of which they are composed, that they might be arranged in two divisions. Under the first are included those which have a porcellaneous appearance and enamelled surface, and exhibit, when broken, something of a fibrous texture. The other division is distinguished, by having a strong epidermis or covering, under which is the shell, composed principally or entirely of mother-of-pearl. To the first division belong different species of voluta, cypræa, and others. The second comprehends the oyster, the river mussel, and some species of haliotis and turbo.

67 Porcellaneous.

Porcellaneous shells.—The shells of this description which were examined, were different species of voluta and cypræa. When they were exposed to a red heat for a quarter of an hour, they crackled, and lost the colours of their enamelled surface. No apparent smoke, and no smell, like that of burnt horn or cartilage, were emitted during the process. The figure remained the same, excepting a few flaws; and they became of an opaque white, partially tinged with pale grey. When they were dissolved in acids, after being burnt, they deposited a small quantity of animal coal, which proves that they contain some portion of gluten. Shells which had not been exposed to the fire, dissolved with great effervescence in the different acids; and the solution remained transparent and colourless; from which it appears, that the proportion of gluten is small, since it could not be traced in the solution of the unburnt shells.

In examining the different solutions of shells, whether burnt or unburnt, by chemical tests, it was found, that no trace of phosphate of lime, or of any other combination of phosphoric acid, existed in these substances. And it appeared from many experiments, that the component parts of porcellaneous shells, are carbonate of lime, cemented with a very small portion of animal gluten.

Some species of patella, which were brought from Madeira, were also subjected to chemical examination, by the same philosopher. When exposed to a red heat in a crucible, they emitted a perceptible smell of horn or feathers; and by farther examination, by solution, the proportion of carbonic matter deposited appeared to be greater, and the proportion of carbonate of lime less, than what was indicated by the result of the experiments on porcellaneous shells. When unburnt shells belonging to the same species, were immersed in nitric acid very much diluted, the epidermis separated, and the whole of the carbonate of lime was dissolved. A gelatinous substance, nearly in a liquid state, remained, but it did not retain the figure of the shell, and exhibited no appearance of a fibrous structure. These shells, therefore, contain a larger portion of gelatinous matter than the porcellaneous shells, but the other component part consists entirely of carbonate of lime.

68 Mother-of-pearl.

Shells composed of mother-of-pearl.—Shells of this description, were subjected to similar experiments with the former. When the common oyster was exposed to a red heat, the effects were the same as those which were produced by the same process on the species of patella from Madeira. The solution of the unburnt shell was also similar, excepting only that the gelatinous part was of a greater consistency. When the river mussel was burnt in a crucible, it emitted much smoke, with a strong smell of burnt horn or cartilage; the shell became of a dark grey colour, and exfoliated. By solution in the acids, the proportion of carbonic matter separated was greater, and that of carbonate of lime obtained was less, than from the other shells on which experiments were made.

When an unburnt shell of this description was immersed in diluted nitric acid, a rapid solution and effervescence took place; and at the end of two days, the whole of the carbonate of lime was nearly dissolved. A series of membranes now only remained, of which the epidermis constituted the first. These membranes still retained the figure of the shell. The carbonate of lime was at first readily dissolved, because the acid came easily in contact with it; but the process became slower, as it was more difficult for the acid to insinuate itself between the different membranes of which the shell is composed. The haliotis iris, and the turbo olearius, were found to resemble this mussel, except that the membranaceous parts were more compact and dense.

When these shells are deprived by an acid of the carbonate of lime, which gives them their hardness, they appear to be formed of different membranes, applied stratum super stratum. Each membrane is furnished with a corresponding coat or crust of carbonate of lime, and it is so situated, that it is always between every two membranes, beginning with the epidermis, and ending with the internal membrane, which has been last formed. The animals which inhabit these stratified shells, increase their habitation by the addition of a stratum of carbonate of lime, which is secured by a new membrane. And as every additional stratum exceeds in extent that which was previously formed, the shell becomes stronger in proportion as it is enlarged; and thus the growth and age of the animal may be denoted by the number of strata of which the shell is composed. Similar experiments were made on pieces of mother-of-pearl as they are imported from China, and with precisely the same results. They appeared to be composed of the same gelatinous matter and carbonate of lime. In all the shells of this description which were immersed in acids, the membranaceous parts retained the exact figure of the shell, and they appeared distinctly to be composed of fibres, arranged in a parallel direction, corresponding to the configuration of the shell.

69 Pearl.

Pearl.—The constituent parts of pearl appear to be similar to those of mother-of-pearl. They are composed of concentric coats of membrane and carbonate of lime, and resemble in structure the globular, calcareous concretions which are known by the name of *pisolithes*. The iridescence and undulated appearance of pearl and mother-of-pearl, evidently depend on their lamellated structure and semitransparency.

7 Component parts.

From these experiments it appears, that shells are composed of carbonate of lime and gluten. In some, as

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as in the porcellaneous shells, the proportion of carbonate of lime is great, while that of the animal matter is small; and these may be regarded as the beginning of the series; while shells that come under the description of mother-of-pearl are to be placed at the other extremity, having a smaller proportion of carbonate of lime, and a greater proportion of membranaceous substance. In the first the carbonate of lime is merely cemented by the animal matter; in the latter the carbonate of lime serves to harden the membranaceous substance. But between these two extremes, in the proportion of carbonate of lime and animal gluten, of which all testaceous substances are composed, there are no doubt numerous intermediate gradations, arising from the nature of the animal to which they form a covering, its peculiar habits, or mode of life.

Sect. II. *Of the Formation of Shells.*

The shell or covering of testaceous animals, has been considered as in some measure analogous to the bones of other animals, although its formation and growth are very different, since it serves as a base or support to the muscles, which are attached to its internal surface. The principal use of the shell, however, is to serve as a covering or defence to the animal.

71 Testaceous animals oviparous and viviparous.

Testaceous animals are not only extremely different in external form, but also in the mode of their production. Some are viviparous, as the most of those which inhabit bivalve shells, multivalves, and even some of the univalves; while the others, which form the far greater proportion, are oviparous. In one point, however, they all agree, that whatever be the mode of production, whether from an egg, or directly from the uterus of the mother, the shell is formed on the body of the young animal, and is proportioned to its bulk.

72 Reaumur's investigation.

The best observations which have yet been made, and the most elaborate investigation which has hitherto appeared, concerning the formation and developement of shells, are those of the celebrated Reaumur, which were published in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for the year 1709. The same subject has been prosecuted by other authors, but their results have been nearly the same as those of this distinguished naturalist. Klein is almost the only author who has advanced a different opinion. In his dissertation concerning the formation of shells, he charges Reaumur with supporting the opinion, that testaceous animals, when they proceed from eggs, are not furnished with the shell, but that it is formed after being hatched. This opinion indeed has been ascribed to Reaumur by the historian of the academy, who, in the analysis of his excellent memoir on the formation of shells, has observed, "that hitherto the curious have been struck with the prodigious variety, the exact regularity of structure, the singular beauty and splendour of colour of shells; but naturalists have been less attentive in studying and investigating the mode of their formation. They seem to have thought that although shells, as well as the covering of crustaceous animals, are bones placed externally to the animals which they cover, it was necessary to consider them as part of their bodies, and to include this inexplicable circumstance under that of the general formation of animals, which is incomprehensible to the human mind. They have therefore supposed that the animal and its shell proceeded from the same egg, and were developed together; and they have rested satisfied in admiring the economy of nature in providing so elaborate a covering for so low an order of animals. But this supposition, although probable, is not founded in truth. The animal only, not the shell, is produced from the egg. The discovery of this fact is owing to Reaumur."

73 His opinion mistaken.

It must seem very extraordinary, that such an error should have crept into the abstract of the memoir of this celebrated philosopher, who in the course of it has clearly expressed a contrary opinion. "I have frequently," says Reaumur, "compared the shells of snails which were just hatched, and even with those which I had taken from the eggs before they were hatched, with other shells of full grown snails of the same species, with which I had left only the same number of whirls of the spire with the small shells, and then they appeared in all respects the same." He farther observes, "that what has been said with regard to the increase of shells, renders it unnecessary to enter into the detail of their original formation; for it is easy to conceive, that when the body of a small embryo which is one day to fill a large shell, has arrived at a certain state, in which the different teguments in which it is included have sufficient consistence to secrete from their pores the peculiar fluid which is destined to the formation of the shell, this fluid may be deposited on the surface, may thicken, and at last become firm and solid. And thus commences the formation of the shell, in the same way as its increase is continued. Snails do not proceed from the egg without being previously furnished with this shell, which then has one turn and a little more of the spire.

74 All testaceous animals furnished with the shell before being hatched.

When the eggs of testaceous animals are hatched, the young appears with its shell already formed, and according to the observation of Reaumur, it has then one complete turn of the spire and a little more; but at that period the shell is extremely thin. It seems probable that the formation of the shell is posterior to that of the principal organs of the animal, as the bones in the fœtus of other animals are formed after the brain and heart.

75 Shell last formed.

Reaumur has suspected that the shell is the last formed, and if proofs are wanting to establish this fact, it is certain that at particular periods, if the eggs of testaceous animals are opened, the external parts of the embryo are found already developed, without any appearance of the shell. But whatever may be the period of the formation of the shell, it may be received as an established fact, that the animal is furnished with it at the time it leaves the egg. Leeuwenhoek first observed this fact with regard to oysters; the same observation was afterwards made by Lister, and extended to others, both land and river shells. This observation has been confirmed by other naturalists, and particularly by Rumphius, Swammerdam, Reaumur, and Adanson. From the investigations of the latter it appears, that although there are many of the marine testaceous animals which are viviparous, they resemble those which are oviparous, in being furnished with the shell when they are separated from the parent.

76 Two opinions of the formation of shells.

Since then it appears, that the shell of testaceous animals is completely formed previous to the development of the animal, and that it may be considered as an

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an essential part of its organization, let us now inquire into the mode by which its growth is effected. According to the decisive experiments of Reaumur, the enlargement of shells is owing to juxta-position, or successive additions of earthy and animal matter, independent of any organized structure. Klein has supported a contrary opinion, and supposes that the growth of shells is effected by intus-susception, or a kind of circulation. The opinion of Reaumur, however, has most generally prevailed. Excepting Bonnet, few naturalists have adopted that of Klein; and it will appear that this celebrated naturalist was led to entertain this opinion concerning the mode of the formation of shells, by the experiments of Herissant on the generation of bone and shell. From these experiments it was clearly demonstrated, that shells are composed of two substances, the one a membranaceous or animal substance, and the other an earthy matter; but no such conclusion can be drawn from them in support of the opinion, that the shell is a continuation of the body of the animal, or that it is so closely connected as the bones in the bodies of other animals; or even that this connexion is formed by means of fibres of the ligament which attaches the animal to its shell: for it has been shown, that these muscular or ligamentous fibres, in all descriptions of testaceous animals, are successively separated, in proportion to the increase or enlargement of the shell. This could not possibly take place, if the evolution and formation of the shell, according to the opinion of Herissant, depended on an internal circulation, analogous to what happens in the body of the animal. In this case the vessels which proceed from its body, having no longer a communication with those which are supposed to exist in the shell, it would be deprived of nourishment, and consequently could not increase in size. And it is found, that this separation takes place in all shells. It is gradually completed as the growth of the shell advances.

77 Bodies organized or inorganized.

A body may increase in volume in two different ways. Either the particles of which it is composed pass through that body by means of circulation, and undergo certain changes by which they are prepared to form part of the body; or the particles of which a body is composed, may unite with it by juxta-position, without any previous circulation or preparation within the body, to the increase of which they are destined. It is in the first way that the growth of vegetables and animals is accomplished; the second is the mode by which shells receive new additions of matter, and enlarge in size. The first is the mode of increase peculiar to living, organized substances; by the second, inorganized substances receive new additions of matter, and increase in volume. These indeed afford sufficient characteristic marks for a natural division of bodies into two classes, namely organized and inorganized substances.

78 Reaumur's experiments.

The experiments of Reaumur have decisively proved, that the growth of shells is owing to the latter mode of increase. These experiments were made, not only on sea-shells, but also on land and river shells; on univalves and bivalves; and, in all, the result was invariably the same. In conducting these experiments, he inclosed the shells, on the progress of which he made his observations, in boxes pierced with small holes, so as to admit the water, but so small as to prevent the egress of the animal. These boxes were sunk into the sea, or the river, and in this way he was enabled to watch the process of the growth of the shell. He first observed, that when the animal which exactly filled its shell, began to increase its size, the shell in a short time, not being sufficiently large to cover its whole body, part of it was naked or unprotected. This part of the animal must always be towards the opening of the shell, because the shell being previously completely filled, it cannot extend in any other direction. All animals which inhabit shells of a spiral form, such as the snail and volute, can only extend at the head, or the opening of the shell; whereas the animals in bivalve shells, such as the mussel and the oyster, may enlarge in their whole circumference. In all the species of testaceous animals, it is this part which appears by the increase of the animal when it enlarges the shell. This increase takes place, according to Reaumur, by the following mechanism.

79 Process of the formation of shell.

It is a necessary effect of the laws of motion, when liquids run in canals, that the small particles of these fluids, or the small foreign bodies mixed with them, which on account of their figure, or their less degree of solidity in proportion to their surface, move slower than the others, fly off from the centre of motion, and approach towards the sides of these canals. It even frequently happens, that these small particles attach themselves to the internal surface of these canals or tubes, and form concretions of different degrees of thickness. It is besides certain, that the fluids which circulate in these tubes, press against their sides on every point of their interior surface; so that if they were pierced with a number of small holes of sufficient diameter to give passage to the small particles of matter floating in these fluids, these particles would be deposited on the external surface, where a crust would be formed, similar to that in the inside; with this difference, that it would become thicker and more solid, being less exposed to the friction of the fluid, than that which is deposited in the interior of the tube.

80 By secretion from the animal.

To a similar mechanism Reaumur ascribes the increase of shells. The external surface of that part of the body of the animal which has extended beyond the limits of the old shell, is furnished with a great number of canals, in which circulate the necessary fluids for the nutrition of the animal. A great many small particles of a viscid and earthy matter are mixed with these fluids. Now, as these particles are less fluid than those of which the liquids themselves are composed, they approach the sides of the vessels, which are themselves furnished on that side of the external surface of the body of the animal, with a great number of pores, which allow them to escape from the vessels, so that they are deposited on the external surface of these tubes, or rather in that of the body of the animal itself, which is uncovered by the shell.

These particles of earthy and viscid matter having reached the surface of the body of the animal, readily unite with each other, and with the extremity of the old shell, especially when the excess of moisture is dissipated; and thus by their union they compose a small solid body, which is the first layer of the new addition. Other particles of similar matter continuing to escape in the same way from the excretory vessels of the animal, form a second layer under the first; afterwards a third

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third, and a fourth, or more, till the new part of the shell has acquired sufficient consistence and thickness. It is, however, observed to continue thinner for a certain time than the former opening, till the increase of the animal requires another enlargement of its covering.

When a testaceous animal is going to enlarge its shell, as for instance the common snail, the body projects from the opening. It is then seen to attach itself to a wall or some other solid substance, and the portion of its body which is unprotected by the shell, is soon covered with the fluids which are excreted from its surface. The pellicle which they produce when the fluid dries, is at first thin and elastic, but gradually assumes more consistence, and becomes at last similar to the old part of the shell. If in this stage of the process a bit of the shell is broken and removed, without injuring the body of the snail, the skin of the animal is soon covered with a fluid, which gradually thickens, and becomes solid. Twenty-four hours after the operation, a fine crust may be observed, which constitutes the first and external layer, for repairing the breach which was made. At the end of some days this layer has become thicker, and in 10 or 12 days, the new piece of shell which is formed, has acquired the same thickness as that which was removed. In making this experiment, certain precautions are necessary, otherwise there is some risk of its failure. If, after the broken piece of the shell has been removed, and particularly if the fracture is made near the edge of the opening, the animal is not supplied with a sufficient quantity of nourishment, its volume or bulk is soon diminished; and now finding that what remains of the shell is a complete covering to its diminished body, no excretion takes place for the production of a new portion. In removing snails from a wall to which they had attached themselves, for the purpose of observing the progress of the formation of the shell, some days will elapse after they are placed in the box, before the process commences, because the testaceous matter which had been already expended after fixing on the wall, must be fully supplied before any new portion can be again formed.

§1 Time necessary to form shell.

This experiment shows clearly, that shells are only enlarged by receiving new additions of matter, after it has been excreted from the body of the animal, and not by *intus-susception*, or a circulation through the body of the shell itself. If this were the case, the production of new matter to fill up the breach made in the shell, would first appear all round the edge of the opening, and forming a kind of callus, similar to what happens in the reproduction of bony matter in other animals, it would gradually extend till the whole breach is filled up. But, on the contrary, this matter first appears on the body of the animal from which it has exuded, and the whole extent of the opening is closed at once by the fluid which has been directly secreted from the surface of the body. Nor can it be supposed, that the liquid has insensibly exuded from the shell, and falling on the body of the animal, is there collected in sufficient quantity for the formation of the new piece of shell. This is fully demonstrated by the two following experiments of the same naturalist.

Reaumur broke several shells of snails; and, having made a very large hole about the middle of the shell, and about an equal distance between its summit and opening, he introduced between the body of the animal and its shell, through the hole, a piece of skin which was extremely fine, but of a very close texture. He glued this skin to the internal surface of the shell, so that it shut up accurately the artificial opening which he had made. It must then be obvious, that if the reproduction of the piece of shell which was removed, depended on the excretion of a fluid from the shell itself, and not on that which proceeds from the surface of the animal's body, the new piece of shell would be formed on the external surface of the piece of skin which was introduced; and it is not possible that it could be formed between the skin and the body of the animal. But the contrary of this has always happened. The new testaceous matter is always deposited on the internal surface of the skin; that is, on the side which is in contact with the animal's body; and no matter whatever was deposited on the other surface. This experiment has been repeated by others, and has been invariably attended with the same result.

§2 Other experiments of Reaumur.

The second experiment made by Reaumur is not less decisive than the first. He took a number of snails, and broke the shells, so that he diminished the number of the turns of the spire about $\frac{1}{7}$ part. Having in this way rendered the shells too small to cover the body entirely, they were nearly in the same situation as when an increase of the animal's body requires an augmentation of the shell. He then took a bit of skin, as in the former experiment, sufficiently large for the opening of the shell, and introduced one of its edges between the body of the animal and the shell, to the interior surface of which he glued it; after which having folded back the other extremity of the skin on the external surface of the shell, he glued it in like manner, so that the whole external opening was completely covered with the skin. The results were exactly the same as before. The shell grew, the skin remained in its place, and that part of it which was attached to the interior surface was fixed between the new piece and the old shell, which consequently could not contribute to its formation.

§3 Layers of shells seen by burning.

From these experiments, which may be easily repeated, it appears that the increase of shells is owing to the secretion of an earthy and viscid animal matter which is prepared in the body of the animal, and which is successively formed by layers from the interior part of the shell to the external surface. This formation is determined by the previous enlargement of the animal. The different strata or layers of which shells are composed, can be easily demonstrated by exposing them to the action of fire, and removing them before their structure is entirely destroyed. By this process the animal matter is consumed, and the earthy substance remains, exhibiting a laminated structure. The same structure may be demonstrated, as has been already observed, in detailing Mr Hatchett's experiments, by immersing a shell of the description of mother-of-pearl in a diluted acid. The earthy matter in this case is dissolved by the acid, and the layers of animal matter which are interposed, resisting the action of the acid, remain unchanged, and still retain the original figure of the shell.

It

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84 Turns of the spire increased.

It is a necessary consequence of the mode in which the shells of snails are increased, that they cannot enlarge in volume, but by the augmentation of the turns of the spire, and that the length of each turn of the shell already formed, remains always the same. This may be easily put to the test of experiment, by reducing the shell of a snail which has reached its full size to the same number of turns with those of younger shells of the same species. The two shells do not then exhibit any other difference than in their thickness; and it would be the same, by comparing the youngest shells, those which have been just separated from the egg, with the first turns of those of the same species which have been reduced by breaking them to an equal diameter. The number of turns or whirls of which the spire of a shell is composed, increases very considerably the size of the shell in univalves, and one turn more or less makes a great difference in their volume. According to Reaumur, the diameter of each turn of the spire is in the snail nearly double that of the preceding one, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of that which follows; but in many other shells, both marine and river, the last whirls of the spire, compared with the preceding ones, greatly exceed this proportion. In some, the external opening is 12 times greater than the preceding one, and in others, it is not more than eight times. This depends entirely on the increase of the animal's body, and the proportion of that increase. The growth of some is lengthwise, and in them the increase of diameter is proportionally less; while others increase more in thickness than in length. Those testaceous animals which have only a few turns in the spire of the shell, are of this description. To the former belong such as have a greater number of turns in the spire.

85 The animal is detached from the shell in many cases.

Those who have adopted the opinion of Klein with regard to the formation of shells, have denied the separation of the animal from the shell, which successively takes place near the tip in univalves. It is indeed on this circumstance of the connexion of the animal with the shell, that the truth of this theory depends. According to it, the animal is attached to the internal surface of the tip of the shell in univalves, and on this connexion depend the increase of the shell, and even the life of the animal. But it is a certain fact, that the posterior part of the body of the animal is entirely detached from the tip of the shell; and this holds, not only with regard to all land and sea shells which have lost the first turns of the spire, and consequently those of the tip; but also in a great number of other marine testaceous animals. It seems not only certain, but even necessary, that this separation between the animal and the shell should also take place in bivalve shells, if we take a distinct and rational view of their growth. Whether this separation is suddenly effected, or by a gradual process, which is most probable, it seems to be sufficiently obvious, by examining the internal surface of the valves. This is still more strongly confirmed by sawing univalve shells, particularly those which are considerably elongated, and have a great number of turns in the spire, in a direction perpendicular to their axis. In old shells, several of the first turns of the spire will be found completely filled up with testaceous matter, so that the tip of the shell has become quite solid, or at least it will appear to have been long unoccupied by any part of the body of the animal. But in transparent shells, as in some species of helix, it is seen that this attachment does not exist; and the H. planorbis can be preserved alive, although the tip of the spire is broken off.

Sect. III. *Of the Colours of Shells.*

86 Inquiry curious.

The infinite variety of the colours of shells is one of the most striking parts of their history; and it becomes a curious and interesting object of investigation to inquire, whether these colours are uniform and constant in the species, and from what proceed this regularity and uniformity. The experiments and observations of Reaumur will assist us in this investigation. When a hole is made in a shell, nearly at an equal distance between its tip and opening, the new piece of shell which is formed to shut up the hole is usually of a white colour, and often very different from that of the rest of the shell. It would appear at first that the new piece is of a different nature, and that it is not formed in the same way as the rest of the shell. To meet this difficulty, it will be necessary to explain on what depends the regular variety of the colours of certain shells: the same experiments which lead to the discovery of the cause of the one, will serve to unfold the other.

87 Colours vary from particular circumstances.

This remarkable variety of colour is in no shell more remarkable than in the *helix nemoralis*. The ground of this shell is white, citron or yellow, or a compound of different shades of these colours. Different coloured rays are traced on this ground, turning spirally with the shell; in some they are black, in others brown, and sometimes reddish. The breadth of each of these rays gradually increases as they approach to the opening of the shell. It even sometimes happens, that two of these bands are so much extended in breadth, that they meet together and form one. Some individuals have five or six of these bands, while others have three or four, and even two, and sometimes only one. Others again have none at all, although of the same species; and among the individuals which are marked with coloured bands, they are not always of the same breadth in the same parts of the shell; from which it appears, that no certain specific characters can be derived from the colour, since it is subject to so much variety. According to Reaumur, the viscid and earthy matter of which the shell is composed is secreted from the surface of the animal's body; but in certain places of the surface, particles which produce a different colour are separated; and whether this depends on a peculiar organization of those places, or on the form of the particles themselves, it appears that these particles, either of a different nature or of a different figure, by uniting, form bodies which reflect different rays of light; that is to say, form parts of the shell of different colours.

88 Colouring matter secreted from the neck.

This seems to be a necessary consequence of the mode in which the growth of shells is accomplished. The whole external layer of the shell is formed by the neck of the animal, because it is that part which is nearest to the head, and consequently as the animal increases in size, that part ceases to be covered with the old shell. It, therefore, depends on this part of the animal to extend the shell, and for this purpose it is sufficient that the neck be furnished with glands for secreting the different fluids, to form a shell of differ-

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ent colours. If, for instance, there are two or three glandular bodies which secrete brown or black particles, and that these glandular bodies are disposed in a parallel direction to each other, while the glands on the rest of the surface only secrete particles of matter which reflect the light of a citron colour, the shell formed by these bodies will have a citron ground, with black or brown bands, nearly parallel, or which gradually approach to each other, and become larger in the same proportion as the external organs of the animal increase in size.

89 Proved by experiment.

If no such glandular structure, or difference in the matter secreted, could be traced on the neck of the *helix nemoralis*, this explanation of the cause of the variety of colours in shells would appear extremely probable; but this probability amounts to certainty, from the actual observation of the existence of this peculiarity of structure and effect. When the *helix nemoralis* is deprived of part of its shell, the body appears of a white colour, excepting towards the neck, where the white inclines to yellow, and where besides there is a number of black or brown bands, equal to that of the bands on the shell, and arranged in the same direction. It has been observed, too, that the individuals which have only one black stripe on the shell, have only one single black spot on the neck; and those having four spots on the neck, have four stripes of the same colour on the shell. These rays are placed immediately under those of the shell; they commence at the distance of about a line from the extremity of the neck, which is itself usually spotted with black all round. The existence, therefore, of these excretory organs can no longer be doubted. The difference of colour seems to prove the difference of structure. But to establish this beyond the possibility of doubt, it is only necessary to have recourse to experiment, by observing what happens in the new piece of shell which is renewed, in place of that portion which has been removed; and if it appear that that part of the shell which is formed opposite to the black rays of the animal, is black, and if that which is formed between the stripes be of a different colour from that of the stripes themselves on the rest of the body, no farther proof can be required. Now, it has been observed, that that part of the new shell formed on the neck opposite to the black or brown stripes on the animal's body, is itself black or brown, that formed between the stripes is white or citron, while the rest of the body is white, but different from that of the neck, when it is of this colour.

90 Seeming exception.

It sometimes happens, that the part of the shell which has been renewed is of a different colour. This apparent deviation will appear less difficult to be reconciled to the explanation of the process which has now been given, if we attend to the circumstance that the new shell formed opposite to the neck of the animal is never different from that of the old shell, excepting that the external surface is extremely rough, and presents numerous furrows or grooves, in place of the smoothness and fine polish of the old shell. In this case, the inequality of surface is occasioned by the motion of the animal retiring within its shell, before the new piece has acquired sufficient consistency and solidity; and thus the new shell, having contracted on its surface wrinkles or furrows, the light is very differently reflected. But there is another cause for this difference of colour in these circumstances. When a large piece of shell is removed, the first layer which is formed is usually white. The particles of the fluid which are necessary for the formation of the shell of this colour, seem to be more easily excreted from the surface of the body than the particles of fluid which go to the formation of any other colour. It is observed that the body of the animal is covered with this fluid, long before there is any appearance of secretion about the neck. This liquid is extended to the neck, and there produces a new layer of white shell; but as this layer is extremely thin and transparent, it does not prevent the usual secretion of the colouring matter at the neck to appear. In this period of the process, if the animal retire within its shell, the new layer, still adhering in many points to its body, and not having acquired sufficient solidity, will be distorted and wrinkled; and not only exhibit that inequality of surface which generally appears in shells thus formed, but the arrangement of the stripes or colours will also be destroyed.

91 Causes of this.

It would be a very false conclusion from this account of the mode of the formation of the stripes which appear on certain species of shells, that the external surface of all shells should be marked with colours, or should be uniformly of the same colour; and that there should be no shells whose external surface is marked with different spots, differently arranged, of an irregular figure, and separated from each other by unequal intervals. For if it has been shown, that these colours are produced on the surface of the shell, only by means of the secretory organs, situated on the neck of the animal, it cannot be supposed that the same effects will follow, unless the animal is placed in the same circumstances. These secretory organs, therefore, must exist during the entire formation of the shell, to furnish the same quantity of colouring matter during the whole of its progress. But if it happen, on the contrary, that these organs undergo any change; if the pores through which the liquid is poured out to form a shell or part of a shell of a brown colour, become too large or too small, or in other respects change their form, after having poured out a certain quantity of this fluid; and that those which furnish the fluid of which the white part of the shell is composed, are also changed, it must happen that the shell which is produced is marked with different black and white spots, combined with a degree of irregularity corresponding to the change on the secretory organs. This will appear to be the case, by attending to the changes which take place in the secretory organs of snails which produce coloured shells; for in them it may be observed, that the colours are distinct and well marked in some, towards the opening, while they are scarcely perceptible on the first turn of the spire towards the tip of the shell; and these changes of colour cannot be supposed to exist without a corresponding change on the secretory organs.

92 Changes in the organs.

93 Difference of fluidity in the matter secreted.

The fluidity of the liquid secreted for the formation of the shell has probably also some effect in the regular distribution of the colours which appear on some species. It is easy to imagine that some animals may secrete a fluid for the formation of the shell, of such a degree of fluidity as to flow easily from one place to another,

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another, and thus produce irregular marks on the shell. But besides, if there are secretory organs situated on the neck of the animal, which prepare fluids of different colours; if the animal moves, or is disturbed by any means, when these fluids are excreted on the surface, the colours will appear in a different place from their original distribution, or be mixed and blended together, and thus occasion that irregularity which is observed in those parts of shells which have been last produced, or renewed.

94 Motion of the animal during the deposition of the matter.

But it will be necessary to have recourse to the first of these causes, namely to the change of structure in the secretory organs of the neck, to explain the regular distribution of the round spots, or of those of a square or rectangular figure, with which certain shells are marked, and to suppose that those vessels which are arranged in a square or rectangular manner, which furnish peculiar fluids, are shut or open at different periods. It may happen that the developement of a great part of the animal, occasioned by a more vigorous growth in certain species than in others, may, in some cases, be the only cause of those regular spots, sometimes white on a coloured ground, and sometimes coloured on a white ground, which the shell exhibits, if the glands which secrete the colouring matter correspond in their distribution, to that of the divisions on the shell, and if they occupy a greater space on the neck than is usual in other species. In this way may be accounted for, the regularity of these marks, and the increase of their size, which is usually proportioned to that of the turns of the spire, from the consideration of the secretory organs of the animal enlarging in the same proportion as the other parts of its body; and their effects in the formation of the shell corresponding to the developement of these parts. Hence it follows, that the largest marks are observed on the external convolutions of the shell.

95 Secretory organs enlarge with the animal.

96 Last formed layer usually white.

According to Reaumur, the last layer of the shell which is formed from a fluid secreted from that part of the surface of the animal's body which does not reach the neck, should be white, and this is most generally the case. In those shells which are internally coloured, the fluids secreted from the body of the animal are of the same colour, and they take the place of those which are usually white, or of a pearly nature, as is observed in many others. The nature of these internal layers is always obvious; for if they are not white, they exhibit everywhere a uniform colour, and never variegated, like what appears externally. By removing with a file any part of the external surface of the shell, the layers which appear immediately under the surface, are those which have been furnished by the body of the animal, while those on the surface itself, usually more variegated than the rest, owe their formation to the vessels about the neck, and have been formed in the way already described.

97 Formation of striæ.

The growth of shells, being proportioned to that of the inhabitant, proceeds almost imperceptibly. In most shells, however, it is easy to distinguish the different additions which they have received; for they are marked on their convex surface with different eminences which are parallel to each other, similar to lines of different degrees of depth, which give the shell a fibrous structure. These elevations are called *striæ*, may be traced through the whole of the shell, in bivalves, and in the longitudinal direction of those which have a spiral form. From the slightest observation of the manner in which shells are formed, it is easy to see that they can receive no addition, without leaving, in a greater or less degree, some trace of these inequalities; for every small addition of testaceous matter which is made, must be attached to the old part of the shell, which consequently must be more elevated than the former, whatever be its thickness, when the enlargement of the animal requires the formation of the latter. Thus, the shell will be marked with a great number of these striæ, parallel to each other, which may be distinctly seen on many different species.

98 Growth interrupted.

Every shell has usually some of these eminences at greater distances, and more elevated than the others. By these the different periods when the shell ceased to increase, or rather those when its growth was interrupted, are marked; and they have some degree of analogy with the different shoots from the branch of a tree. The heat of summer or the cold of winter interrupting the growth of the animal, at least among such as are testaceous, which live on the land, or inhabit rivers in temperate regions, the shell is not enlarged in extent during these seasons. It is otherwise, however, with regard to its thickness, for there is continually exuded from the body of the animal, small quantities of fluid, which increase its thickness. Hence it is, when the shell begins to increase in extent, the edge to which the new portion is cemented, is much thicker than when the growth was gradual and imperceptible, and consequently the place at which the growth commences, after a long interruption, is distinguished by a more elevated ridge, than in the continued progressive additions which it receives. The numerous instances of this interruption in the growth of shells, will occur to the attentive conchologist in the progress of his researches. We have at present in our possession, a fine illustration of the same thing, in a specimen of *murex ramosus*. The animal, it would appear from the original part of the shell, had been for some time in a sickly or unhealthy state; for it has undergone many of the changes to which dead shells are subject. It has lost its enamel; it seems to have undergone some degree of decomposition, and some species of *serpula* and other parasitical animals had made it their abode; but from this sickly state it seems to have recovered, and acquired great vigour; for the next addition which is made to the shell, is equal to its original bulk. It is clean, entire, and in perfect preservation, forming a singular contrast with the old shell.

99 Example of this.

100 Distinguished by the difference of colour.

The place at which shells begin to increase, after the growth has been for some time interrupted, may be distinguished by a difference of colour in the stripes with which the shell is usually marked. In these places, black or brown stripes exhibit more vivid colours, and sometimes even little different from those on the rest of the superior surface of the shell. The cause of this change is not difficult to trace, if we recollect that the secretory organs which prepare the colouring matter, at least in the *helix nemoralis*, have their origin at some distance from the extremity of the neck, from which we have seen that the first layer of shell which is traced to the extremity itself, should be of a different colour from that of the stripes; but as the increase of the animal occasions the stripes to be formed

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formed under this first shell, during which it is still very thin, and consequently transparent, it does not prevent the shell produced under it, of a black colour, to appear so. But when the animal has ceased to grow for some time, it then increases the thickness of the shell last formed, so that the shell which is next produced from the colouring matter, when the animal begins to grow, being laid on one part of the old shell much thicker and less transparent, the colour of these stripes must appear less bright, and therefore different in those places, from the other parts of the shell.

101 Colours owing to the glands about the neck.

In taking a review of what has been said concerning the production of the colours of shells, it must appear that these rays or coloured lines are owing to glands which secrete the colouring fluid, and which are arranged on the anterior edge of the neck, while the posterior part furnishes only a fluid of a different colour, and usually less deep than the first. By means of this principle it is not difficult to account for the arrangement of the different colours which are so splendidly exhibited among this class of natural objects. These colours may be reduced to one or more, which are more vivid on a lighter ground; to coloured, circular bands on a ground of a less vivid colour, or pure white; to longitudinal lines, round or square spots, and in a regular, or irregular, zig-zag form. All these may be easily explained, according to the principles which have been laid down, the application of which, from what has been said, will not, we hope, be found difficult.

102 Colours of porcelain shells.

But from this mode, which is the most general in the production of the colours of shells, there are certain deviations. In that division of shells which is made by some naturalists, and which is distinguished by the name of *porcelain shells*, on account of the fine enamel with which they are covered, there are two sets of colours, which are disposed in a parallel direction to each other. The external range of these colours is owing to a peculiarity of structure in the animals which inhabit them, different from that of other testaceous animals, and to an operation which does not take place in other shells. In these shells, the colouring matter seems to be deposited in two different ways, and at two different periods. In the first process, when the body of the shell is formed, the colouring matter is excreted from the glands, in the same way as in other testaceous animals; and it is arranged according to the disposition of the glands on the body of the animals. At this period of the process, the shell is only of a moderate thickness, and much less than what it afterwards acquires, when completely formed. On the external surface of the shell first formed, another layer is deposited, which is more compact than the first, in some places thicker, and usually variegated with different colours. The external surface of the shell being thus completely covered with this second layer, the original colours are concealed; and if the same shell were examined at different periods of its formation, it would appear like two distinct species. The organs which are employed by the animal in the production of this second layer of shell, and set of colours, are two soft, membranaceous wings, which being protruded from the opening of the shell, completely cover the whole of its external, convex surface. These two wings, which are quite distinct from the glandular structure about the neck of the animal, which is situated a little lower, are also provided with glands, which furnish colouring matter, usually different from that which is furnished by the glands of the neck; and it is the upper surface of the wings, which is alone provided with this glandular structure. This surface, when this part of the animal is protruded from the shell, and extended over it, comes in contact with the external surface of the latter. Hence it is, that these membranaceous organs deposit on the first formed and coloured layers of the shell, new layers of testaceous matter, which is differently coloured, and diversified with entire spots, either circular, or in a waved direction, which are sometimes of a more vivid tint than that of the ground, or white upon a dark ground, or brown upon a yellow ground; or are composed of straight lines, or curved, or interlaced with each other, reddish, brown, yellow or white, on different coloured grounds, or in dots or points, whose shades and arrangement are not less diversified.

103 An external layer formed.

104 Proved.

This mode of the formation of the external layer of porcelain shells, has been proved by the actual observation of some naturalists. In some species, a longitudinal line of a paler colour is observed on the convex surface of the shell. This is ascribed to the junction of the two wings of the animal, where a smaller quantity of colouring matter has been deposited, or where the shell has been less completely covered with the protruded part of the animal. But the existence of this second layer is still more distinctly proved by mechanical means. The external layer may be removed by means of a file, and the shell restored to its original state; and then the colours which it first received are brought into view. This circumstance is still farther demonstrated by an attentive examination of different species of shells, and particularly the *cypræa argus*. In examining this shell, there are observed under the external layer, which is of a yellow colour, some slight traces of four transverse bands of a brown colour, which surround the shell, and which must have been formed previous to the more superficial yellow layer. By a more minute examination, it will appear that the circular spots with which the external yellow layer is marked, have been posteriorly formed to this layer; and finally, on the four turns of the spire forming a slight projection at the base of the shell, there are some brown, circular spots, which are quite superficial, and which sometimes include two turns of the spire, which could not happen if the yellow colour had not been prior in its formation to these circular spots. If the colouring matter of which these spots are composed had been deposited at the time that the different parts of the spire were formed, one spot could not have included two turns of the spire at the same time.

105 Shell becomes thicker from the same cause.

This effect of communicating a new set of colours to the external surface of the shell, is not the only one which is produced by the membranaceous structure of the animal which inhabits the porcelain and other shells. The form of the shell is also changed in a remarkable manner, a great quantity of testaceous matter being deposited on the surface of the opening, which then assumes a considerable thickness. The turns of the spire are incrusted, and sometimes disappear on the outside of the shell; and wrinkles, furrows, and even tubercles, which exist on the surface of some species, are also formed

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formed. The surface of *cypræa pediculus* exhibits circular striæ which did not originally exist, and which owe their formation to this cause. In other species, the surface is marked with projecting points or tubercles, which are produced in the same manner as the circular striæ of the former, and which also depend on the structure of the membranaceous wings of the animal, and the testaceous substance which is secreted and deposited from their surface. Thus, it appears that porcelain shells, and those of some other species, are formed at two distinct periods. It is during the second period of the process that the colour of the complete shell is formed. In farther illustration of this point, of the formation of shells of this description at two different periods, one or two examples may be given of the difference which takes place, when the last layer formed is removed. In the *cypræa exanthema*, the shell is ferruginous, with whitish round spots and eyes, but when the outer coat is worn off, it becomes barred or tesselated with brown or blue. The *cypræa arabica*, as its name imports, exhibits characters on its surface, having some resemblance to Arabic letters. The ground on which these characters, which are of a brown colour, are placed, is whitish or bluish; yet when the outer coat is worn down, the shell is sometimes bluish with brown bands, or pale with darker angular spots and lines; brown, mixed with violet, or reddish blue.

106 External layer removed, different colours appear.

107 Effects of light on shells.

But besides the causes which have been mentioned concerning the production and variety of the colours of shells, arising from the difference of ssructure in the organs which secrete the colouring matter, and the changes to which these organs are subjected in the growth of the animal, the effects of light and heat, altogether independent of the animal itself, are probably very considerable. Two individuals of the same species, the one from the Mediterranean or European seas, and the other from the tropical regions, exhibit very different shades of colour. The colours of the inhabitant of the torrid zone are always more bright and vivid than those of the native of more temperate climates. The two shells, although similar in form, size, and other characters, are uniformly different in the intensity of their colours. These differences, which have led conchologists to increase the number of species, obviously depend on the action of the climate, and particularly of light, on nourishment, and other circumstances which have hitherto eluded the observation of naturalists, and are uniform and constant, as long as the causes which operate in their production, continue to act. At first sight it might be supposed that the difference of temperature is the cause of the difference in the intensity of colour, in shells produced in different climates. It might be supposed too, that the different depths at which shells are found in the ocean, the medium in which they live being thus very different, would occasion great diversity in the colour. Near the surface, where the heat is greatest, if the operation of this cause were considerable, the colours of shells should be expected to be most vivid, and as the depth increased, at least to a certain extent, the intensity of colour should be diminished. But it has been observed in bivalve shells which are found at great depths, such as some species of oyster and spondylus, that the lower valve, which is attached to the rock, is almost always white or colourless, while the upper valve often exhibits bright and vivid colours; but this difference cannot be ascribed to the difference of temperature, for in both valves it must be the same; the matter secreted for their formation is prepared by the same organs, and is deposited in a similar manner; and indeed they are altogether placed in the same circumstances, and have been exposed in their production and growth to the operation of the same causes, excepting that the upper valve is exposed to the rays of light, and is therefore coloured, while the lower valve is removed from the action of this cause, and is colourless.

108 Lower valve colourless.

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109 and shells included in other bodies.

The same difference is observed in the valves of other shells, which are produced in similar circumstances. The different species of pholas which make their abode in calcareous or coral rocks, and the *teredo navalis* or ship-worm, which pierces wood, and makes it its habitation, are usually colourless. Those testaceous animals too, which live at great depths in the ocean, and are thus far removed from the influence of light, are also distinguished by very white colours, or are entirely white.

Sect. IV. *Of the Formation of the Umbilicus, Protuberances, &c.*

We have hitherto considered only the general formation of shells. In the present section we shall treat of some other circumstances which produce variations in their external figure. Such, for instance, is the formation of the umbilicus, of spines, tubercles, ribs, and other protuberances.

110 Four classes of spiral shells.

Umbilicus. Univalve shells, which are furnished with a regular spire, may be divided, with regard to their form, into four classes; namely, shells having a disc, cylindrical shells, turbinated, and ovoid or egg-shaped shells. These four forms are the most common which spiral univalve shells assume, and they depend on the manner in which the turns of the spire are applied to the common axis, and the difference of their arrangement. They derive their primitive figure from the small shell while it is yet included in the egg, and probably from that of the external organs of the animal, which is contained in it. But although all univalve shells may be referred to one or other of these four principal forms, they exhibit a great variety of slighter shades of difference. Let us now see in what way it may be conceived that the bodies of the animals which inhabit univalve shells, give them a spiral form. If we can suppose that from the first production of these animals, when they begin to be developed, the fibres of one part of the body, such as those of the external surface, are longer than those of the opposite surface, it is obvious that the body of the animal continuing to increase, according to this original tendency, will assume a curved form, the concave part of which will be on that side where the fibres are shortest; and if the long fibres on the external surface, and the short fibres on the internal surface, continue to increase in the same proportion, this must give the body a spiral form; but in this case, the different convolutions of which the animal is composed, will be in the same plane, and can only apply to a small number of shells included in the first division, namely, those which are characterized with having a disc.

111 Owe their shape to the form of the animal.

The convolutions of the spire which are described by the

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the shell of univalve testaceous animals, and the body which serves as a mould for these, are disposed in different planes. Some other cause, therefore, must operate in producing this deviation. Between the two surfaces of the body of the animal, which is supposed to be furnished with fibres of different lengths, it is easy to conceive two other surfaces directly opposite to each other, an upper and an under surface, each of which is included between the two preceding surfaces, but of smaller extent; and it is easy to conceive farther, that these two latter surfaces are so formed, that the fibres of the one are longer than the corresponding and opposite fibres of the other. According to this structure, the body of the animal will tend to that surface on which the fibres are shortest, and thus describe, during its developement, a spiral line in different planes, in proportion to the difference of tension between the superior and inferior surface of the body, as well as between the lateral surfaces.

112 Umbilicus produced.

The form of the shell depending on the external form of the body of the animal, the umbilicus which is a different cavity from that of the opening of the shell in which the animal is contained, and which is seen on the inferior surface of some shells, in the centre of the convolutions of the spire, depends entirely on the plane on which the animal has formed the additions to its shell. If the plane of these convolutions has been directed round a conical or elliptical axis, and each convolution of the spire be more or less distant towards the centre of the shell from this hollow point, a shell may be thus formed, whose umbilicus will be more or less open, according to the greater or less degree of separation which the animal must give to the convolutions of the spire, corresponding to its structure. An opposite effect will be observed, if the increase of the convolutions of the spire is supposed to take place round an axis which is so small as to permit them to come in contact with each other. In this case no cavity will be formed in the centre, no appearance of umbilicus will be seen. But if we conceive that the animal, in enlarging itself, turns round a solid of a curved figure, in place of the conic axis above alluded to, and that the end of this solid is at the summit of the shell, it is obvious that an opening or an umbilicus of the shape of this solid, will be formed in the shell.

Ribs. The longitudinal elevations which are observed on univalve shells, which run in a transverse direction to the successive growth of the convolutions of the spire, have been denominated *varices*, by Linnæus, in allusion to the dilated veins on the bodies of other animals. They are composed of one or more elevations, usually arranged in a line parallel to the axis of the shell, and sometimes slightly oblique. They consist of the same substance as that of the rest of the shell, but are thicker and always more elevated than the surface of the convolutions of the spire on which they are placed. To explain the manner in which these elevations are formed, we may examine the opening of land shells which have arrived at the last stage of their growth. This period is marked in these shells by a kind of margin of about a line in breadth, which is sometimes turned outwards, although the rest of the shell turns on a regular, spiral line. This reflected margin never appears in land shells, but when they have reached the last period of their growth, and when it is once formed, the animal of some species ceases afterwards to continue the convolutions of its spire. Having now arrived at that period of its growth, when it is fit to perform the act of generation, it protrudes itself more frequently from its shell, and each time it returns, a viscid fluid which exudes from its neck, is interrupted and deposited on the external margin of the shell. The bulk which the anterior parts of the body have acquired, in consequence of the evolution of the generative organs which are contained in that part of the body, causes it to press more strongly than formerly on the edges of the opening of the shell, every time it protrudes itself, and gradually forces the particles of testaceous matter which have been recently deposited, to the external surface, and in a direction quite different from that of the former plane of the spire. A short time is only requisite for the complete formation of this elevation; but after it has been formed, if the animal has the power of continuing the spire on the former plane, the shell which had arrived at a larger size will exhibit from time to time, if the same process be repeated, longitudinal projecting ribs, convex or bent, exactly similar to the external swelling of the opening of the shell, and analogous to the *varices* which are seen on some species of marine shells.

113 Formation of ribs accounted for.

114 Limited to sea-shells.

This power of continuing the spire, after the formation of the eminence at the opening, is peculiar to sea-shells. No farther increase, after it is once formed in land shells takes place. The young of some sea-shells, as some species of *murex*, also possess this faculty of continuing the growth of the shell after the formation of similar elevations, even from the earliest period of their existence, and long before it can be supposed that the organs of generation are evolved. This no doubt depends on some peculiar structure or organization of the animal, and particularly on those of the anterior parts of the body.

115 Tubercles produced in the same way.

Tubercles. Many shells are furnished with tubercles, which are produced by the same organs as the rest of the shell. The fleshy protuberances which are placed on the external surface of the neck of the animals which inhabit them, serve as a mould, and according as there are more or less of these tubercles, while the animal enlarges the turn of the spire, and increases its shell so much, there is the same number of protuberances in the convolution. These protuberances, while they remain on that part of the body of the animal on which they were formed, are hollow, and during the remaining part of its existence, as the body enlarges, they are partly hollow, and partly solid, being filled up with testaceous matter, excreted from the body of the animal, and then the internal surface of the shell becomes smooth and even.

Spines, and fringed or irregular protuberances, with which some shells are armed, have, according to all appearance, the same origin as the other inequalities on the external surface of shells. They are usually formed at the end of the different successive periods of the growth of the shell. This will be sufficiently obvious, if we trace the whole series of wrinkles or striæ which run parallel to the circumference of the opening. Those which arise immediately from the ribs or *varices*, are produced by particular organs which surround the extremity of the neck, and stretch out from every part of its circumference, secreting a testaceous matter,

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matter, which partly forms a sheath around them, gradually increases in thickness, and successively assumes the form of that part of the body which in some measure serves the purpose of a mould. In all the species of murex, which are furnished with spines, the elevations called varices or ribs, as well as the spines with which they are armed, are placed on the shell at equal distances; and the intermediate parts of the shell, although frequently grooved or striated, are not furnished with spines. This uniform observation, not only in shells belonging to this genus, but also in almost all spinous shells, proves, that the spines as well as the ribs, are to be considered as formed by the margin of the anterior parts of the body, which is renewed in the same proportion as the change in the position of this part of the body takes place. It proves also, that the formation of shells is entirely owing to the successive and regular enlargement of the animal; and that it increases every time it is displaced from the whole extent in breadth of the anterior part of the body, the margin of which only being furnished with long fleshy processes or fringed appendices, is in reality the only part which produces them on the shell at each period of its increase. In the same way is formed the beak or prolongation of the shell, which terminates the inferior extremity in the form of a canal. This canal is produced in all shells in which it exists, by a cylindrical organ, susceptible of extension and contraction, and which, according to some naturalists, is employed by the animal as a kind of feeler, and occasionally to attach itself to solid bodies. It excretes and deposits a testaceous layer which serves it as a kind of sheath, in a similar manner to the production of spines.

116 Spines produced by fleshy processes.

117 Formation of ribs and grooves.

It is easy to explain the formation of the grooves or elevated ribs which are found on the outer surface of other shells; while the whole of the internal surface is smooth and polished. In bivalve shells, which exhibit this structure, the whole anterior surface of the animal is grooved or channelled in the same way; and from this the shell derives its shape and structure. In these shells it may be observed, that it is only the anterior margin that is grooved on the internal surface; because, in the progress of the growth of the animal, that part of the body which presents a smooth, equal surface has advanced, and nearly filled the whole of the shell; and the testaceous matter secreted from this part of the body being deposited on the grooves, channels, or striæ, which were formed when the anterior part of the body occupied that part of the shell, fills them up completely, and leaves the surface quite smooth and polished. New additions being made to the shell as the growth of the animal requires it, the smooth surface of the body advances forward, and fills up with its secretions what is now grooved; while the new part of the shell which corresponds to that part of the body which has an unequal surface, only presents this appearance. It is in this way that the ribs or grooves are formed in different species of ostrea, cardium, and other bivalve shells.

118 Formation of hollow ribs,

But there is a peculiarity of structure in a species of cockle, the white fluted or ribbed cockle, *cardium costatum*, which seems more difficult of explanation in its mode of formation. The ribs of this species are not only of the usual structure of other species of ribbed or grooved shells, but are particularly distinguished by having them hollow. The whole number of the ribs amounts to about 18 on each valve, of which the 11 exterior ones are of a triangular form, of about three lines high, and hollowed through their whole length, from the beak to the margin of the valves. To have a distinct notion of the formation of these hollow, triangular ribs, it is necessary to conceive, that the margin of the anterior part of the animal is deeply channelled or grooved; and when this part of the body is in contact with the recent shell, the ribs or elevations are formed, and are then open to the internal surface of the shell; but the posterior part of the body being hard and smooth, never comes in contact with the excavated part of the ribs. On the contrary, as the testaceous matter is excreted from this part of the body, it is deposited on that part of the internal surface of the shell which it touches, stretches across the deep grooves, and forms the third and interior side of the triangular ribs.

119 and of striæ, &c.

Thus it appears, that spines, tubercles, and all other protuberances on the surface of bivalve shells, owe the peculiarity of their form and shape to the peculiar structure of different organs situated on the anterior margin of the body of the animal, and are composed of the testaceous matter which is excreted by these organs. The nature of the process is the same as in univalve shells of a spiral form. The diversity only appears in the difference of the organs and structure of the animals which inhabit different shells. To a similar process may be ascribed the formation of striæ, of scales, and of various excavations which sometimes accompany them.

Sect. V. *Of the Production of Pearls.*

120 Pearl found in mother-of-pearl shells.

In treating of the constituent parts of shells, it was observed, that the composition of the pearl appears, from analysis, to be precisely the same as the mother-of-pearl, or those shells in which the pearl is usually found. From this we must conclude, that the pearl, and the mother-of-pearl, are produced by the same secretion. It appears, from the observations of naturalists, and indeed it might have been expected, from the similarity of composition, that all testaceous animals, whose shells come under the description of mother-of-pearl, occasionally produce pearls.

Different opinions have been entertained with regard to the cause of the formation of this precious production. According to some, it is merely a morbid concretion, formed within some part of the body of the animal, or at least within the shell, without any apparent external injury; while others suppose that it is only owing to wounds which the shell or the animal, or both, have received from accidental causes, or from the action of insects, or some testaceous animal, making perforations in the shell. It is not improbable that pearls may be formed in both ways.

121 Supposed to be morbid concretions;

Every day's experience informs us, that similar concretions are formed in different cavities of the bodies of other animals; but without any obvious cause or external injury. The formations of such concretions, as, for instance, biliary and urinary calculi, producing the most excruciating disorders in the human body, are too fatally known. These concretions, no doubt, owe their origin to the diseased or unhealthy action of the vessels

Of the Constituent Parts of Shells, &c.

vessels secreting the fluids in which they are formed: By this diseased action producing a superabundance of the matter which enters into the composition of the concretion; or this matter in the fluid state meeting with some solid body, which becomes a nucleus, is attracted by it, and deposited in concentric layers, till the concretion acquires a larger or smaller size, according to the duration and quantity of the secretion and deposition. In the same way, it seems extremely probable the pearl may be frequently formed; the matter of which it is composed being constantly secreted by the animal for the production of the new part of the shell. If then this matter should at any time be produced in greater quantity than what is necessary to form the inner layers of the shell, and particularly if it should meet with a solid particle of any body, it will be attracted by it, and thus constitute the rudiments of a pearl, which will receive constant additions of concentric layers, and increase in size in proportion to the age of the animal and the quantity of matter deposited. Pearls, it is said, have been found within the body of the animal. If this be true, the pearly matter, in its passage through the vessels of the body, must have met with some nucleus, around which the concentric layers have been formed. In most cases, however, the pearl is found loose in the shell, entirely detached from the animal. It must then have been formed of the matter which was thrown out of the body; but it is not unlikely that pearls are formed both ways, or that the same pearl may be partly formed within the body of the animal, and be afterwards excluded, and arrive at its utmost size, while it remains loose in the shell.

122 or formed from external injury.

But, according to others, the pearl owes its formation to some external injury. The following seems to be a pretty distinct view of this opinion. When Faujas de St Fond visited Loch Tay, he was led to make some inquiries concerning the pearl-fishery, which had been carried on in several parts of the river Tay for some years. Shells were brought to him; and in these shells the fishermen pretended to find pearls, which they expected to sell at a higher rate, as they were found in the presence of the traveller. But he informs us, that they attempted to impose on him, by introducing a pearl secretly into the shells as they opened them. Observing this circumstance, he told them that he could know at once, by examining the outside of the shell, before opening it, whether it contained any pearl. He mentions this to introduce some speculations concerning its formation. When no perforation or callosity appeared on the outside, he concluded that there was no pearl in the shell. The pearl-fish, he supposes, is attacked by two classes of enemies. One is what he calls the *auger-worm*, which penetrates into the inside near the edge of the valve, by making a longitudinal passage between the layers of the shell. The length of the channel is one inch, or one inch and a half when it doubles back in a line parallel to the first. At the inner extremity there is a small circular portion, formed by the worm in turning round. These excavations are in the pearly part of the shell. The pearly juice, extravasating, forms protuberances in the same direction; and the cylindrical bodies which are thus formed, may be considered as elongated pearls adhering to the internal surface. When several worms of this kind unite their labours by penetrating near each other, the result is a kind of pearly wen with irregular protuberances.

Another sea-worm, which he says belongs to the multivalves, a species of pholas, also attacks the pearl shells. The shell of this species of pholas has a hinge in the form of a crooked bill, as he saw in some species of oyster, which he examined, from the coast of Guinea. The hole was of the shape of a pear. Pearls of this shape have been found, and have been held in great estimation. Observing this circumstance, artificial perforations are made in the shell, and this forces the animal to produce pearls. In some shells brought from China, this artificial hole has been observed filled up with brass wire, rivetted on the outside like a nail, and the inner extremity of the wire was covered with a well-formed pearl, which seemed as if soldered to its extremity *.

* Trav. vol. ii.

Pearls are also produced by another artificial process. The shell is opened with great care to avoid injuring the animal, and a small portion of the internal surface of the shell is scraped off. In its place is inserted a spherical piece of mother-of-pearl, about the size of a small grain of lead shot. This serves as a nucleus, on which is deposited the pearly fluid, and in time forms a pearl. Experiments of this kind have been made in Finland, and have been repeated in other countries.

123 Discovery of Linnæus.

A remarkable discovery has been ascribed to Linnæus respecting the generation of pearls. This was a method which he found out, of putting the pearl-mussel (*mya margaritifera*) into a state of producing pearls at his pleasure. It was some years before the final effect could take place; but in five or six years after the operation, the pearl, it is said, had acquired the size of a vetch. But it does not seem to be known in what this operation consisted. Whether it consisted in imitating the process of insects, by wounding the shell from the outside, or by following the other process, by scraping away part of the inner layer; nor is it much known what have been the effects of this operation, or whether it has turned to any account, or indeed is at all practised in Sweden or any of the northern states, where it must have been originally known. For this discovery, however, the Swedish naturalist, it is said, was raised to the rank of nobility, and otherwise liberally rewarded by the states of the kingdom.

The value which is put on the pearl depends on its size, colour, shape, and purity. The largest pearls are always held in the highest estimation, when their other qualities are in any degree of perfection. The finest shape of the pearl must be quite globular; it must be of a clear brilliant white, smooth and glossy, and entirely free from spot or stain. Pearls were greatly esteemed and much sought after by the Romans. Servilia, the mother of Marcus Brutus, we are informed, presented a pearl to Cæsar, which was valued at 50,000l. sterling; and Cleopatra dissolved one, which is said to have been worth 250,000l. sterling, in vinegar, which she drank at a supper with Mark Antony.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI. OF THE HABITATION OF TESTACEOUS ANIMALS, METHODS OF FISHING, COLLECTING, &c.

TO the detailed account which we have now given of the natural history of testaceous animals, and particularly of the formation and growth of the shell, we have only to add a few observations concerning their habitation, the methods of fishing, collecting, and preserving them. These topics shall be the subject of the following sections.

SECT. I. *Of the Habitation of Testaceous Animals.*

124 Found on every part of the globe.

TESTACEOUS animals are found on every part of the surface of the globe. Some are inhabitants of the land, while others only frequent rivers and lakes, and a third and numerous class live in the ocean. From this a classification of shells has been formed, and they have been divided into land, fresh-water, and sea shells. But whatever difference might exist in the habits and economy of testaceous animals which are produced in places so different, it affords few marks of discrimination for the purpose of classification.

125 Land shells very numerous.

Land shells are spread over the whole surface of the earth, and although more accessible, are perhaps less known than those which inhabit the ocean. From the small number of land shells which have been collected, it would appear at first sight that they are less numerous than marine shells. This, however, seems not to be the case, with regard to the number of species; and it is well known, that the number of individuals of land shells, in some instances, far exceeds that of sea shells. The sea shells of the Mediterranean have been observed by naturalists, to be nearly the same from the straits of Gibraltar to the island of Sicily; but the land shells of Languedoc are different from those of Provence, of Dauphiny, Piedmont, and different parts of Italy. Some are found in Spain, in Corsica, in Sardinia and Sicily, which are not to be met with in other places; and from the great variety and number of land shells, it seems probable that many of them are yet unknown. But let us now take a general view of those places of the world where different testaceous animals are most frequently found.

126 Shells most beautiful within the tropics.

It has been already observed, that light and heat have very considerable influence in adding to the splendour of the colours of shells. The most beautiful shells are found in countries between the tropics, where they are more immediately subject to the direct rays of the sun, and a higher temperature. From these causes, the shells produced in these countries have a lustre and brilliancy, which those of colder climates never possess.

127 Shells found in Asia.

The shores of Asia furnish us with the pearl oysters and scallops in great perfection. About Amboyna are found the most beautiful specimens of the cabbage-shell, the arrosoir, the ducal mantle, and the coral-oysters, or echinated oysters. Here also are found a great variety of extremely beautiful mussels, tellinæ, and volutæ; some fine buccinums, and the shell called the *Ethiopian crown*, in its greatest perfection. The dolia, the murices, and the cassandræ, are also found on these coasts in great beauty. Many elegant snails and screw-shells are also brought from thence; and finally, the scorpion and spider shells. The Maldive and Philippine islands, Bengal, and the coast of Malabar, abound with the most elegant of all the species of snails, and furnish many other kinds of shells in great abundance and perfection. China abounds in the finest species of porcelain shells, and has also a great variety of beautiful snails. Japan furnishes us with all the thicker and larger bivalves; and the isle of Cyprus is famous above all other parts of the world for the beauty and variety of the patella or limpet found there.

128 In America.

America affords many very elegant shells, but neither in so great abundance nor beauty as the shores of Asia. Panama is famous for the cylinders or rhombi, and we have beside, from the same place, some good porcelains, and a very fine species of *dolium*, or *concha globosa*, called from this place the *Panama purple shell*. One of the most beautiful of the cylinders is also known among our naturalists under the name of the *Panama shell*. About Brasil, and in the gulf of Mexico, there are found murices and dolia of extreme beauty; and also a great variety of porcelains, purpuræ, pectens, neritæ, bucardiæ or heart-shells, and elegant limpets. The isle of Cayenne affords one of the most beautiful of the buccinum kind, and the Midas ear is found principally about this place. Jamaica and the island of Barbadoes have their shores covered with porcelain, chamæ, and buccina; and at St Domingo there are found almost all the same species of shells that we have from the East Indies; only they are less beautiful, and the colours more pale and dead. The pearl-oyster is found also on this coast, but smaller than in the Persian gulf. At Martinico there are found in general the same shells as at St Domingo, but yet less beautiful. About Canada are found the violet chamæ; and the lakes of that country abound with mussels of very elegant pale blue and pale red colours. Some species of these are remarkably light and thin; others are very thick and heavy. The Great Bank of Newfoundland is very barren in shells; the principal kind found there are mussels of several species, some of which are of considerable beauty. About Carthagena there are many mother-of-pearl shells, but they are not of so brilliant colours as those of the Persian gulf. The island of Magellan, at the southern point of America, furnishes us with a very remarkable species of mussel called by its name; and several very elegant species of limpets are found there, particularly the pyramidal.

129 In Africa.

In Africa, on the coast of Guinea, there is a prodigious quantity of that small species of porcelain which is used there as money; and there is another species of porcelain on the same coast which is all over white: the women make bracelets of the latter, and the people of the Levant adorn their hair with them. The coast of Zanguebar is very rich in shells: we find there a vast variety of the large porcelains, many of them of great beauty; and the *nux maris* or sea-nut is very frequent there.

Of the Habitation of Shells, &c.

there. Beside these, and many other shells, there are found on this coast all the species of nautili, many of which are very beautiful. The Canary isles abound with a vast variety of the murices, and some other good shells; and we have from Madeira great variety of the echini or sea-eggs, different from those of the European seas. Several species of mussels are also common there, and the sea-ears are nowhere more abundant. The Red sea is beyond all other parts of the world abundant in shells: scarcely any kind is wanting there; but what we principally have from thence are the purpuræ, porcelains, and echini marini.

130 In the Mediterranean.

The Mediterranean and Northern ocean contain a great variety of shells, and many of very remarkable elegance and beauty; they are upon the whole, however, greatly inferior to those of the East Indies. The Mediterranean abounds much more in shells than the ocean. The gulf of Tarentum affords great variety of purpuræ, of porcelains, nautili, and elegant oysters; the coasts of Naples and Sardinia afford also the same, and with them a vast number of the solens of all the known species. The island of Sicily is famous for a very elegant kind of oyster which is entirely white; pinnæ marinæ and porcelains are also found in great plenty there, with tellinæ and chamæ of many species, and a great variety of other beautiful shells. Corsica is famous, beyond all other places, for vast quantities of the pinnæ marinæ; and many other very beautiful shells are found there. About Syracuse are found the gondola shell, the alated marex, and a great variety of elegant snails, with some of the dolia and neritæ. The Adriatic sea, or gulf of Venice, is less furnished with shells than almost any of the seas thereabout. Mussels and oysters of several species are however found there, and some of the cordiform or heart shells; there are also some tellinæ. About Ancona there are vast numbers of the pholades buried in stone; and the sea-ears are particularly frequent about Puzzoli. (*Bonani Recreat. Ment. et Ocul.*).

131 On the coast of France.

The ports of Marseilles, Toulon, and Antibes, are full of pinnæ marinæ, mussels, tellinæ, and chamæ. The coasts of Bretagne afford great numbers of the conchæ anatiferæ and pousse-pieds; they are found on old rotten boards, on sea substances, and among clusters of sponges. The other ports of France, as Rochelle, Dunkirk, Brest, St Maloes, and others, furnish oysters excellent for the table, but of the common kind, and of no beauty in their shells: great numbers of mussels are also found there; and the common tellinæ, the onion-peel oysters, the solens, and conchæ anatiferæ, are also frequent there. At Granville, in Lower Normandy, there are found very beautiful pectens, and some of the cordiform or heart-shells.

132 of Britain.

Our own English coasts are not the least fruitful in shells, though they do not produce such elegantly painted ones as the Indies. About Plymouth are found oysters, mussels, and solens, in great abundance; and there, and on most of our shores, are numbers of the aures marinæ and dentalia, with pectens, which are excellent food; and many elegant species of the chamæ and tellinæ are fished up in the sea about Scarborough and other places. Ireland affords us great numbers of mussels, and some very elegant scallop-shells in great abundance, and the pholades are frequent on most of our shores. We have also great variety of the buccina and cochleæ, some volutæ; and, on the Guernsey coast, a peculiarly beautiful snail, called thence the *Guernsey-snail.*

133 of Spain and Portugal, &c.

The coasts of Spain and Portugal afford much the same species of shells with the East Indies, but they are of much fainter colours, and greatly inferior in beauty. There are, according to Tavernier and others, some rivers in Bavaria in which there are found pearls of a fine water. About Cadiz there are found very large pinnæ marinæ, and some fine buccina. The isles of Majorca and Minorca afford great variety of extremely elegant shells. The pinnæ marinæ are also very numerous there, and their silk is wrought into gloves, stockings, and other things. The Baltic affords a great many beautiful species, but particularly an orange-coloured pecten, or scallop shell, which is not found in any other part of the world.

134 Fresh water shells.

The fresh-water shells are found much more frequently, and in much greater plenty than the sea-kinds; there is scarce a pond, a ditch, or a river of fresh water in any part of the world, in which there are not found vast numbers of these shells with the fish living in them. All these shells are small, and they are of very little beauty, being usually of a plain grayish or brownish colour. Our ditches afford us chamæ, buccina, neritæ, and some patellæ; but the Nile, and some other rivers, furnished the ancients with a species of tellina which was large and eatable, and so much superior to the common sea tellina in flavour, that it is commonly known by the name of *tellina regia*, "the royal tellina." We have a small species of buccinum common in our fresh waters, which is very elegant, and always has its operculum in the manner of the larger buccina; a small kind of mussel is also very common, which is so extremely thin and tender, that it can hardly be handled without breaking to pieces. The large fresh-water mussel, commonly called in England the *horse-mussel*, *mya margaritifera*, is too well known to need a description; and the size sufficiently distinguishes it from all other fresh-water shells.

Sect. II. *Of the Methods of Fishing and Collecting Shells.*

135 Land shells.

Land shells are immediately within the reach of the hand of the collector, as well as many sea and river shells, which inhabit shallow waters, or attach themselves to rocks or marine plants on the shores of the ocean. Those shells which are at moderate depths in the sea, are to be collected by dredging. But in whatever way shells are found, those are always to be preferred which still contain the living animal; for then, not only some information may be obtained with regard to its structure and natural history, but the shells themselves are in all their natural beauty, and the full glow of their colours. Those shells too should be preferred, which are procured from the deeper parts of the ocean, because they have then arrived at the largest size, and are in the greatest perfection. But these are beyond the reach of man, and are only accidentally found on the shores after storms, or attached to sea-weeds which have been torn from the rocks by the agitation of the waves.

136 Sea shells.

When shells are found with the animal alive; the method

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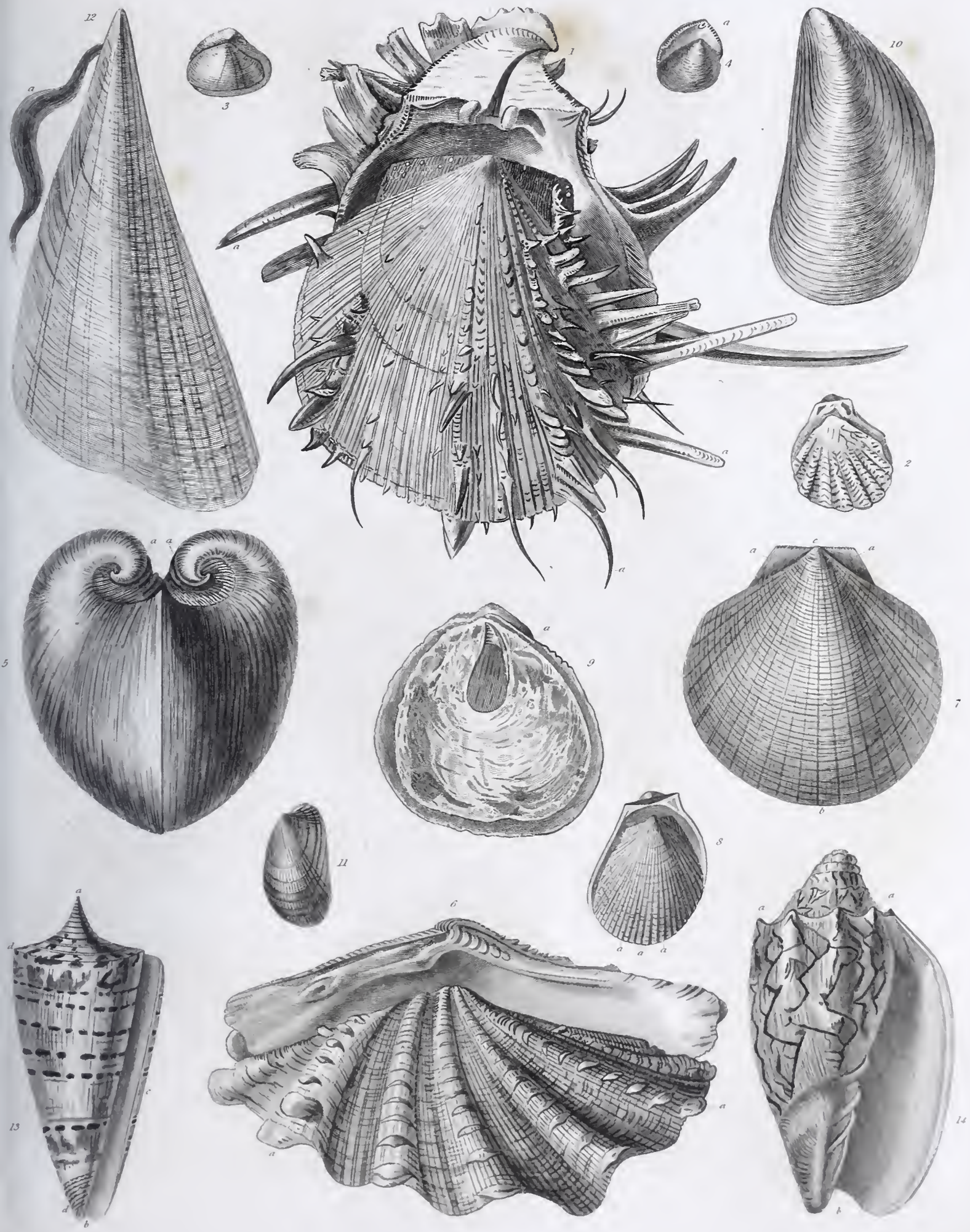

Drawn by Capt. Brown
Published by A. Constable & Co. Edin. 1826
A. Wilson Sculp.

Published by A. Constable & Co. Edin. 1830.

Drawn by Capt. Brown Published by A. Constable & Co. Edinr. Engd. by W. Lizars Edinr.

Of the Habitation of Shells, &c.

137 Method of killing the animal.

method recommended to destroy it and separate it entirely from the shell, is to boil it in water for a very short time, and after allowing it to cool gradually, to lay it in cold water till it is cleaned. By this process, the attachment between the shell and animal is destroyed, and the latter, which has become hard and contracted, is easily picked out from its covering. The shell, after this treatment, is ready to be placed in the cabinet, or to be polished in the way we shall presently describe, according to the state in which it is found, or the views of the collector.

138 Pearl-fishery

As the pearl has been held in high estimation in all ages of the world, and as it is an important object of commerce in many parts of it, the history of the pearl fishery, or of those shell fish which produce the pearl, connot fail to be interesting.

139 in Britain.

In different parts of Britain the pearl-fishery has been carried on to a considerable extent; and in some places it has been reckoned of such value, that government have granted the right of fishing to individuals by patent. By a grant of this kind, Sir John Hawkins obtained the privilege of fishing for pearls in the river Irt in Cumberland; and Buchan of Auchmacoy seems to have held, by a similar right, the sole privilege of the pearl fishery near the mouth of the river Ythan in Aberdeenshire; for it appears that this grant was resumed by government in 1633, in the first parliament of Charles I. In the same river, at the distance of 10 miles from the sea, a successful fishery of pearls has been frequently carried on; and a few years ago, in the river Cluny in the same county, a Jew employed a number of people to collect the mussels which contained them, and some large and valuable pearls were found. Some years ago, in the river Teath in Perthshire, the pearls which were got brought about 100l. sterling to those employed in searching for them, in the course of one season. It was observed, that those mussels only which were crooked and distorted, yielded pearls. The method which has been practised in this river for fishing the pearl mussel, is the following. The fisherman provides himself with an instrument formed of two iron plates or spoons, having something of the shape of the mussel. Each of these is attached to an elastic handle of the same metal, terminating in an open tube, which is fixed to the end of a long wooden handle. The concave sides of the plates approach other, and are kept in close contact by the elasticity of the handles. With this instrument the fisherman enters the water, and directs his course to those places which he supposes are resorted to by the mussels. These he discovers with his feet, and having found one, he presses the instrument upon it, the plates or valves of which, in consequence of the elasticity of the handles, separate, and then grasp it firmly. In this way he can detach it from the place to which it adheres, and bring it to the surface of the water. The pearl-mussel is a native of many other of the rivers of Scotland, as of the Esk in Forfarshire, where a pearl was found of the size of a pistol bullet, and sold for 4l. sterling; of the Devon in Clackmannanshire, the Clyde, and of Loch Ken in Galloway, where it is said great numbers of pearls are fished in dry summers, many of which sell from one shilling to one guinea. But the greatest pearl-fishery which has ever been established in Scotland, of which there is any record, is that of the river Tay, about 30 years ago. The pearl-mussel is found in every part of this river, from its source in Loch Tay, to its junction with the sea. In different parts of the river, but particularly in the vicinity of Perth, we are informed, that not less than 11,000l. worth of pearls were sent to London between the years 1761 and 1764. They were sold from 10s. to 1l. 16s. per ounce. About this time one pearl was found which weighed 33 grs. This fishery, however, as well as the pearl-fishery in the other rivers of Scotland, seems to be greatly exhausted, and very probably, as it has been supposed, from the improvident avarice of the undertakers, not allowing the animal to arrive at that age which seems to be necessary for the production of pearl.

Of the Habitation of Shells, &c.

But the pearl-fishery of the warmer climates, in different places of the East Indies, in the gulf of Persia, and the Red sea, and particularly that which is annually carried on in the bay of Condatchy, in the island of Ceylon, is by far the most extensive and most important of any in the world. The latter, of which we have given a detailed account in the description of CEYLON, and to which we refer our readers, has been under the inspection of government since it fell into the hands of the British, as it was under that of the Portuguese and Dutch, its former masters. To the Dutch, it is said, while they were in possession of the island, this fishery brought an annual tribute of 20,000l. To the account which has been already given of this fishery, we may add the following, from the Asiatic Annual Register for the year 1800.

140 in Ceylon.

"The person who farmed the pearl-fishery at Ceylon, last year, was a Tamu merchant, who for the privilege of fishing with more than the usual number of donies or boats, paid between two and three hundred thousand Porto Novo pagodas (D), a sum nearly double the usual rent. His excellency the honourable Mr North, by the last ships from Ceylon, has transmitted a very minute detail of the fishery in all its stages, some of which are truly singular and remarkable. It appears that the fear of sharks is the cause of a great deal of interruption to the fishery, the divers being extremely timid and superstitious; every one of them, even the most expert, entertain a dread of sharks, and will not on any account descend until the conjuror has performed his ceremonies. This prejudice is so deeply rooted in their minds, that the government was obliged to keep two such conjurors in their pay, to remove the fears of the divers. The manner of enchanting consists of a number of prayers learned by heart, that nobody, probably not even the conjuror himself, understands, which he, standing on the shore, continues muttering and grumbling from sunrise until the boats return. During this period, they are obliged to abstain from food and sleep, otherwise their prayers

(D) Perhaps near 100,000l. sterling. The pagoda is from 7s. to 8s. 6d. sterling.

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prayers would be of no avail; they are, however, allowed to drink, which privilege they indulge in a high degree, and are frequently so giddy as to be rendered very unfit for devotion. Some of these conjurors accompany the divers in their boats, which pleases them very much, as they have their protectors near at hand. Nevertheless. I was told, said Mr North, that in one of the preceding fisheries, a diver lost his leg by a shark; and when the head conjuror was called to an account for the accident, he replied, that an old witch had just come from the coast, who, from envy and malice, had caused this disaster by a counter-conjuration, which made fruitless his skill, and which he was informed of too late; but he afterwards shewed his superiority, by enchanting the sharks so effectually, that, though they appeared to most of the divers, they were unable to open their mouths. During my stay, continues Mr North, at Condatchy, no accident of this kind happened. If a shark is seen, the divers instantly make a signal, which on perceiving all the boats return immediately. A diver who trod upon a hammer oyster, and was somewhat wounded, thought he was bit by a shark; consequently made the usual signal, which caused all the boats to return; for which mistake he was afterwards punished. The largest and most perfect pearl taken last season, was about the size of a small pistol bullet."

Sect. III. *Of the Methods of Polishing Shells.*

The art of polishing shells has but lately reached its present state of perfection; and as the admiration of sea shells has become so general, it may be expected that we should give some instructions in the means of adding to their natural beauty.

Among the immense variety of shells with which we are acquainted, some are taken up out of the sea, or found on its shores, in all their perfection and beauty; their colours being all disposed by nature upon the surface, and their natural polish superior to any thing that art could give. Where nature is in herself thus perfect, it were madness to attempt to add any thing to her charms: but in others, where the beauties are latent and covered with a coarser outer skin, art is to be called in; and the outer veil being taken off, all the internal beauties appear.

141 Methods employed.

Among the shells which are found naturally polished are the porcelains, or cowries; the cassanders; the dolia, or conchæ globosæ, or tuns; some buccina, the volutes and the cylinders, or olives, or, as they are generally though improperly called, the *rhombi*; excepting only two or three, as the tiara, the plumb, and the butter-tub rhombus, where there is an unpromising film on the surface, hiding a very great share of beauty within. Though the generality of the shells of these genera are taken out of the sea in all their beauty, and in their utmost natural polish, there are several other genera, in which all or most of the species are taken up naturally rough and foul, and covered with an epidermis, or coarse outer skin, which is in many rough and downy or hairy. The tellinæ, the mussels, the cochleæ, and many others, are of this kind. The more nice collectors, as naturalists, insist upon having all their shells in their native and genuine appearance, as they are found when living at sea; but others who make collections, hate the disagreeable outsides, and will have all such polished. It would be very advisable, however, for both kinds of collectors to have the same shells in different specimens both rough and polished: the naturalist would by this means, besides knowing the outside of the shell, be better acquainted with its internal characters than he otherwise could be; while those who wish to have them polished, might compare the beauties of the shell, in its wrought state, to its coarse appearance as nature gives it. How many elegancies in this part of the creation must be wholly lost to us, if it were not for the assistance of an art of this kind! Many shells in their native state are like rough diamonds; and we can form no just idea of their beauties till they have been polished and wrought into form. The safest way of removing the epidermis or outer skin from shells, is by a simple process discovered by our friend William Nicol Esq. Lecturer on Natural Philosophy. The shell from which the epidermis is wished to be removed, should be put into a vessel of water, with a quantity of quicklime, and boiled for some time. The skin of the common muscle requires only three hours boiling, while that of the mya margaritifera, or river mya, requires from twelve to fourteen hours. When the shells have boiled the proper time, they should be washed over with diluted muriatic acid, when the skin may be easily removed by rubbing it off with the fingers.

Though the art of polishing shells is a very valuable one, yet it is very dangerous to the shells; for without the utmost care, the means used to polish and beautify a shell often wholly destroy it. When a shell is to be polished, the first thing to be examined, is whether it have naturally a smooth surface, or be covered with tubercles and prominences.

142 With leather.

A shell which has a smooth surface, and a natural dull polish, need only be rubbed with the hand, or with a piece of chamoy leather, with some tripoli, or fine rotten stone, and it will become of a perfectly bright and fine polish. Emery is not to be used on this occasion, because it wears away too much of the shell. This operation requires the hand of an experienced person, that knows how superficial the work must be, and where he is to stop; for in many of these shells the lines are only on the surface, and the wearing away ever so little of the shell defaces them. A shell that is rough, foul, and crusty, or covered with a tartarcous coat, must be left a whole day steeping in hot water: when it has imbibed a large quantity of this, it is to be rubbed with rough emery on a stick, or with the blade of a knife, in order to get off the coat. We have found different kinds of engraving instruments, of much service in removing the crust and extraneous matter from shells, particularly the parasitic species of shells which adhere to them, such as serpulæ and balanæ. If done with caution, it will be found by far the best mode; and indeed, where there are spines, they cannot be removed by any other means, as, by applying acids, they are often completely destroyed. After this, it may be dipped in diluted aquafortis, spirit of salt, or any other acid; and after remaining a few moments in it, be again plunged into common water. This will add greatly to the speed of the work. After this it is to be well rubbed

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rubbed with linen cloths, impregnated with common soap; and when by these several means it is made perfectly clean, the polishing is to be finished with fine emery and a hair-brush. If after this the shell when dry appears not to have so good a polish as was desired, it must be rubbed over with a solution of gum arabic; and this will add greatly to its gloss, without doing it the smallest injury. The gum-water must not be too thick, and then it gives no sensible coat, only heightening the colours. The white of an egg answers this purpose also very well; but it is subject to turn yellow. If the shell has an epidermis, which will by no means admit the polishing of it, it is to be dipped several times in diluted aquafortis, that this may be eaten off; and then the shell is to be polished in the usual way with putty, fine emery, or tripoli, on the hair of a fine brush. When it is only a pellicle that hides the colours, the shell must be steeped in hot water, and after that the skin worked off by degrees with an old file. This is the case with several of the cylinders, which have not the natural polish of the rest.

When a shell is covered with a thick and fatty epidermis, as is the case with several of the mussels and tellinæ; in this case aquafortis will do no service, as it will not touch the skin: then a rough brush and coarse emery are to be used; and if this does not succeed, seal-skin, or, as the workmen call it, *fish-skin*, and *pumice-stone*, are to be employed.

143 With pumice-stone.

When a shell has a thick crust, which will not give way to any of these means, the only way left is to plunge it several times into strong aquafortis, till the stubborn crust is wholly eroded. The limpets, auris marina, the helmet-shells, and several other species of this kind, must have this sort of management; but as the design is to shew the hidden beauties under the crust, and not to destroy the natural beauty and polish of the inside of the shell, the aquafortis must be used in this manner: A long piece of wax must be provided, and one end of it made perfectly to cover the whole mouth of the shell; the other end will then serve as a handle, and the mouth being stopped by the wax, the liquor cannot get into the inside to spoil it; then there must be placed on a table, a vessel full of aquafortis, and another full of common water.

144 With acids, &c.

The shell is to be plunged into the aquafortis; and after remaining a few minutes in it, is to be taken out, and plunged into the common water. The progress the aquafortis makes in eroding the surface is thus to be carefully observed every time it is taken out: the point of the shell, and any other tender parts, are to be covered with wax, to prevent the aquafortis from eating them away; and if there be any worm-holes, they also must be stopped up with wax, otherwise the aquafortis would soon eat through in those places. When the repeated dippings into the aquafortis show that the coat is sufficiently eaten away, then the shell is to be wrought carefully with fine emery and a brush; and when it is polished as high as can be by this means, it must be wiped clean, and rubbed over with gum-water or the white of an egg. In this sort of work the operator must always have the caution to wear gloves; otherwise the least touch of the aquafortis will burn the fingers, and turn them yellow; and often, if it be not regarded, will eat off the skin and the nails.

These are the methods to be used with shells which require but a moderate quantity of the surface to be taken off; but there are others which require to have a larger quantity removed and to be uncovered deeper: this is called entirely scaling a shell. This is done by means of a horizontal wheel of lead or tin impregnated with rough emery; and the shell is wrought down in the same manner in which stones are wrought by the lapidary. Nothing is more difficult, however, than the performing this work with nicety: very often shells are cut down too far by it, and wholly spoiled; and to avoid this, a coarse vein must be often left standing in some place, and taken down afterwards with the file, when the cutting it down at the wheel would have spoiled the adjacent parts.

After the shell is thus cut down to a proper degree, it is to be polished with fine emery, tripoli, or rotten stone, with a wooden wheel turned by the same machine as a leaden one, or by the common method of working with the hand with the same ingredients. When a shell is full of tubercles or protuberances which must be preserved, it is then impossible to use the wheel: and if the common way of dipping into aquafortis be attempted, the tubercles being harder than the rest of the shell, will be corroded before the rest is sufficiently scaled, and the shell will be spoiled. In this case, industry and patience are the only means of effecting a polish. A camels-hair pencil must be dipped in aquafortis; and with this the intermediate parts of the shell must be wetted, leaving the protuberances dry: this is to be often repeated; and after a few moments the shell is always to be plunged into water to stop the erosion of the acid, which would otherwise eat too deep, and destroy the beauty of the shell. When this has sufficiently taken off the foulness of the shell, it is to be polished with emery of the finest kind, or with tripoli, by means of a small stick; or the common polishing-stone used by the goldsmiths may be used.

This is a very tedious and troublesome thing, especially when the echinated oysters and murices, and some other such shells, are to be wrought: and what is worst of all is, that when all this labour has been employed, the business is not well done; for there still remain several places which could not be reached by any instrument, so that the shell must necessarily be rubbed over with gum-water or the white of an egg afterwards, in order to bring out the colours and give a gloss; in some cases it is even necessary to give a coat of varnish.

145 Some shells are disguised by polishing, such as

These are the means used by artists to brighten the colours and add to the beauty of shells; and the changes produced by polishing in this manner are so great, that the shell can scarcely be known afterwards to be the same it was; and hence we hear of new shells in the cabinets of collectors, which have no real existence as separate species, but are shells well known, disguised by polishing. To caution the reader against errors of this kind, it may be proper to add the most remarkable species thus usually altered.

146 the onyx-shell.

The onyx-shell or volute, called the *purple* or *violet-tip*, which in its natural state is of a simple pale brown, when

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when it is wrought slightly, or polished with just the superfices taken off, is of a fine bright yellow; and when it is eaten away deeper, it appears of a fine milk-white, with the lower part bluish: it is in this state that it is called the *onyx-shell;* and it is preserved in many cabinets in its rough state, and in its yellow appearance, as different species of shells.

147 Violet shells.

The *violet shell*, so common among the curious, is a species of porcelain, or common cowry, which does not appear in that elegance till it has been polished; and the common sea-ear shows itself in two or three different forms, as it is more or less deeply wrought. In its rough state it is dusky and coarse, of a pale brown on the outside, and pearly within; when it is eaten down a little way below the surface, it shows variegations of black and green; and when still farther eroded, it appears of a fine pearly hue within and without.

148 Nautilus.

The *nautilus*, when it is polished down, appears all over of a fine pearly colour; but when it is eaten away but to a small depth, it appears of a fine yellowish colour with dusky hairs. The burgau, when entirely cleared of its coat, is of the most beautiful pearl colour: but when slightly eroded, it appears of a variegated mixture of green and red; whence it has been called the *parroquet shell.* The common helmet-shell, when wrought, is of the colour of the finest agate; and the mussels, in general, though very plain shells in their common appearance, become very beautiful when polished, and show large veins of the most elegant colours. The Persian shell, in its natural state, is all over white, and covered with tubercles; but when it has been ground down on a wheel, and polished, it appears of a gray colour, with spots and veins of a very bright and highly polished white. The limpets, in general, become very different, when polished, most of them showing very elegant colours; among these the tortoise-shell limpet is the principal; it does not appear at all of that colour or transparence till it has been wrought.

149 Jonquil-chama.

That elegant species of shell called the *jonquil chama*, which has deceived so many judges of these things into an opinion of its being a new species, is only a white chama with a reticulated surface; but when this is polished, it loses at once its reticular work and its colour, and becomes perfectly smooth, and of a fine bright yellow. The violet-coloured chama of New England, when worked down and polished, is of a fine milk-white, with a great number of blue veins, disposed like the variegations in agates.

150 The asses-ear shell.

The *asses-ear shell*, or *haliotis asinina* of Linnæus, when polished after working it down with the file, becomes extremely glossy, and obtains a fine rose-colour all about the mouth. These are some of the most frequent among an endless variety of changes wrought on shells by polishing; and we find there are many of the very greatest beauties of this part of the creation, which must have been lost but for this method of searching deep in the substance of the shell for them.

151 Dutch method of polishing shells.

The Dutch are very fond of shells, and are very nice in their manner of working them: they are under no restraint, however, in their works; but use the most violent methods, so as often to destroy all the beauty of the shell. They file them down on all sides, and often take them to the wheel, when it must destroy the very characters of the species. Nor do they stop here: but determined to have beauty at any rate, they are for improving upon nature, and frequently add some lines and colours with a pencil, afterwards covering them with a fine coat of varnish, so that they seem the natural lineations of the shell: the Dutch cabinets are by these means made very beautiful, but they are by no means to be regarded as instructors in natural history. There are some artificers of this nation who have a way of covering shells all over with a different tinge from that which nature gives them; and the curious are often enticed by these tricks to purchase them for new species.

There is another kind of work bestowed on certain species of shells, particularly the nautilus; namely, the engraving on it lines and circles, and figures of stars, and other things. This is too obvious a work of art to suffer any one to suppose it natural. Buonani has figured several of these wrought shells at the end of his work; but this was applying his labour to very little purpose; the shells are spoiled as objects of natural history by it.—They are principally done in the East Indies.

152 Imperfections of shells natural and accidental.

Shells are subject to several imperfections; some of which are natural and others accidental. The natural defects are the effect of age, or sickness in the fish. The greatest mischief happens to shells by the fish dying in them. The curious in these things pretend to be always able to distinguish a shell taken up with the fish alive from one found on the shores: they call the first a *living*, the second a *dead* shell; and say that the colours are always much fainter in the dead shells. When the shells have lain long dead on the shores, they are subject to many injuries, of which the being eaten by sea-worms is not the least; age renders the finest shells livid or dead in their colours.

Besides the imperfections arising from age and sickness in the fish, shells are subject to other deformities, such as morbid cavities, or protuberances, in parts where there should be none. When the shell is valuable, these faults may be hid, and much added to the beauty of the specimen, without at all injuring it as an object of natural history, which should always be the great end of collecting these things. The cavities may be filled up with mastic, dissolved in spirit of wine, or with isinglas: these substances must be either coloured to the tinge of the shell, or else a pencil dipped in water-colours must finish them up to the resemblance of the rest; and then the whole shell being rubbed over with gum-water, or with the white of an egg, scarce any eye can perceive the artifice; the same substances may also be used to repair the battered edge of a shell, provided the pieces chipped off be not too large. And when the excrescences of a shell are faulty, they are to be taken down with a fine file. If the lip of a shell be so battered that it will not admit of repairing by any cement, the whole must be filed down or ground on the wheel till it become even.

EXPLANATION

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

Plate CLII. Multivalve Shells.

Fig. 1. *Chiton squamosus; a*, the margin. From *a* to the opposite side is the breadth of the shell. Page 401, N° 1.

Fig. 2. *Lepas anatifera*, (Anatifa laevis, Lamarck's System); *a*, the feelers; *b*, the cartilage; *c*, the peduncle or pedicle. Page 403, N° 39.

Fig. 3. *Lepas tintinnabulum*, (Balanus tintinnabulum, Lamarck); *a*, the operculum, or lid; *b*, the base. Page 403, N° 2.

Fig. 4. *Lepas tracheæformis*, (Tubicinella balanarum, Lamarck); *a*, the operculum, or lid; *b*, *b*, the ribs.

Fig. 5. *Pholas crispatus*. Page 404, N° 11.

Bivalve Shells.

Fig. 6. *Mya arenaria; a*, projecting tooth; *b*, *b*, the breadth of the shell; *c*, cicatrix, or tongue.

Fig. 7. *Solen ensis*; *a*, the ligament; *b*, *b*, length of the shell; *c*, *c*, the breadth. Page 406, N° 5.

Fig. 8. *Tellina virgata; a*, primary tooth. Page 406, N° 5.

Fig. 9. *Cardium oblongum; a*, *a*, lateral teeth; *b*, *b*, length of the shell; *c*, *c*, breadth. Page 409, N° 27.

Fig. 10. *Mactra stultorum; a*, triangular tooth; *b*, *b*, sides; *c*, the base; *d*, the summit; also one of the umbones. Page 410, N° 18.

Fig. 11. *Donax trunculus; a*, the posterior slope; *c*, right valve; *d*, left valve; *e*, crenulated margin; *f*, the hinge. Page 411, N° 5.

Fig. 12. *Venus erycina*, (Cytherea erycina, Lamarck); *a*, the umbo; *b*, the posterior slope; *c*, the anterior slope; *d*, the muscular impression. Page 412, N° 21.

Fig. 13. *Arca barbata; a*, numerous teeth, the characteristic of the genus arca; *b*, *b*, the byssus, or beard. Page 416, N° 3.

Plate CLIII.—Bivalve Shells continued.

Fig. 1. *Spondylus longispina; a*, *a*, *a*, spines. Page 414, N° 8.

Fig. 2. *Spondylus plicatus*, (Plicatula ramosa, Lamarck). Page 415, N° 22.

Fig. 3. *Mya inæquivalvis*, (Corbula nucleus, Lamarck). Page 405, N° 38.

Fig. 4. *Arca nucleus*, (Nucula margaritacea, Lamarck); *a*, the pit in which the cartilage is fixed. Page 417, N° 42.

Fig. 5. *Chama cor*, (Iocardia cor, Lamarck); *a*, *a*, beaks. Page 415, N° 1.

Fig. 6. *Chama gigas*, (Tridacna gigas, Lamarck); *a*, *a*, scales. Page 415, N° 3.

Fig. 7. *Ostrea pleuronectes*, (Pecten pleuronectus, Lamarck); *a*, *a*, ears; *b*, base; *c*, apex; from *b*, to *c*, is the length of the shell, and the reverse is the breadth Page 417, N° 6.

Fig. 8. *Ostrea lima*, (Lima ———, Lamarck); *a*, *a*, *a*, ribs. Page 419, N° 53.

Fig. 9. *Anomia undulata; a*, the ligament perforation. Page 422, N° 21.

Fig. 10. *Mytilus edulis*. Page 423, N° 16.

Fig. 11. *Mytilus discrepans*, (Modiola discrepans, Lamarck). Page 424, N° 31.

Fig. 12. *Pinna muricata; a*, byssus, or beard, by which the animal affixes itself to rocks. Page 424, N° 9.

Univalve Shells.

Fig. 13. *Conus generalis; a*, the apex, or tip of the spire; from *d*, to *a*, is the spire; *d*, *d*, the body; *b*, the base; *c*, the outer lip. Page 427, N° 11.

Fig. 14. *Voluta vespertilio; a*, *a*, spines. Page 438, N° 153.

Plate CLIV.—Univalve Shells continued.

Fig. 1. *Argonauta tuberculata; a*, *a*, toothed ridges. Page 425, N° 2.

Fig. 2. *Nautilus suborbiculatus; a*, umbilicus. Page 426, N° 2.

Fig. 3. *Nautilus spirula*, (Spirula fragilis, Lamarck); *a*, the siphuncle; *b*, *b*, *b*, partitions of the chambers. Page 426, N° 16.

Fig. 4. *Cypræa Arabica; a*, *a*, the aperture; and from *a* to *a*, is the length of the shell; from *b* to *b*, its breadth; the face presented to the observer is the venter or belly of the shell. Page 431, N° 3.

Fig. 5. *Bulla ficus*, (Pyrula ficus, Lamarck). Page 433, N° 19.

Fig. 6. *Voluta nitidula*, (Tornatella nitidula, Lamarck). Page 335, N° 46.

Fig. 7. *Buccinum areola*, (Cassis areola, Lamarck); *a*, the pillar lip, much reflected on the columella; *b*, canal, or gutter; *c*, the outer lip; *d*, *d*, varices. Page 440, N° 20.

Fig. 8. *Murex spiralis*, (Pyrula spirillus, Lamarck); *a*, the beak or rostrum. Page 447, N° 73.

Fig. 9. *Murex perversus*, (Pyrula perversa, Lamarck). This is an example of a shell with a reversed spire. It will be observed the aperture is on the right side of the shell, in place of the left side.

Fig. 10. *Turbo setosus; a*, *a*, *a*, furrows; *b*, ribs.

Fig. 11. *Turbo nautileus*, (Planorbis nautilea, Lamarck).

Fig. 12. *Haliotis imperforata*, (Stomatella auricula, Lamarck).

Plate CLV.

Fig. 1. *Bulla naucum*.

Fig. 2. *Bulla aperta*, (Bullæa aperta, Lamarck).

Fig. 3. *Bulla rivalis*.

Fig. 4. *Bulla Virginea*, (Achatina virginea, Lamarck).

Fig. 5. *Bulla cylindrica*, (Volvaria cylindrica).

Fig. 6. *Bulla terebellum*, (Terebellum, Lamarck).

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Explanation of the Plates.

Fig. 10. *Buccinum zeylanica*, (Eburna Zeylanica, Lamarck).

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Fig. 13. *Buccinum vittatum*, (Terebra vittata, Lamarck). Page 443, N° 141.

Fig. 14. *Strombus nodosa*, (Pterocera nodosa, Lamarck).

Fig. 15. *Murex lineatus*, (Clavatula lineata, Lamarck).

Fig. 16. *Murex horridus*, (Ricinula horrida, Lamarck).

Fig. 17. *Murex semigranosus*, (Ceritheum semigranosum, Lamarck).

Fig. 18. *Trochus moniliferus*.

Fig. 19. *Trochus coronaria*, (Monodonta coronaria, Lamarck).

Fig. 20. *Turbo scalaris*. Variety, rare, (Scalaria pretiosa, Lamarck).

Fig. 21. *Turbo uva*, (Pupa uva, Lamarck).

Fig. 22. *Turbo laminatus*.

Fig. 23. *Helix fasciatus*, (Bulimus fasciata, Lamarck).

Fig. 24. *Helix vivipara*, (Paludina achatina, Lamarck).

Fig. 25. *Helix putris*, var. (Lymnaea putris, Lamarck.)

Fig. 26. *Helix ianthina*, (Ianthina fragilis, Lamarck).

Fig. 27. *Nerita canrena*, (Natica canrena, Lamarck).

Fig. 28. *Patella oculus-capri*.

Fig. 29. *Patella fissura*, (Emarginula cornea, Lamarck.

Fig. 30. *Dentalium elephantinum*.

Fig. 31. *Serpula anguina*, (Siliquaria anguina, Lamarck).

Fig. 32. *Teredo navalis*.

Fig. 33. *Patella aculeata*, (Crepedula aculeata, Lamarck).

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Conchylia || Conclusion.

CONCHYLIA, a general name for all petrified shells, as limpets, cochleæ, nautili, conchæ, lepades, &c.

CONCIATOR, in the glass art, is, for the crystal-glass, what the founder is at the green-glass houses. He is the person that weighs and proportions the salt on ashes and sand; and works them with a strong fire till they run into lumps and become white; and if the metal be too hard, and consequently brittle, he adds salt or ashes, and if too soft, sand; still mixing them to a fit temper, which is only known by the working.

CONCINNOUS INTERVALS, in *Music*, are such as are fit for music, next to, and in combination with, concords; being neither very agreeable nor disagreeable in themselves; but having a good effect, as by their opposition they heighten the more essential principles of pleasure: or as, by their mixture and combination with them, they produce a variety necessary to our being better pleased.

Concinnous System, in *Music*. A system is said to be concinnous, or divided concinnously, when its parts, considered as simple intervals, are concinnous; and are besides placed in such an order between the extremes, as that the succession of sounds, from one extreme to the other, may have an agreeable effect.

CONCLAMATIO, in antiquity, a shout raised by those present at burning the dead, before they set fire to the funeral pile. See SHOUT. The word was also applied to the signal given to the Roman soldiers to decamp, whence the expression *conclamare vasa; conclamare arma*, was a signal for battle. It was likewise used for a practice of calling to a person deceased three times by his name; and when no reply was returned, they thus expressed his decease, *conclamatum est*. Whence the same term was afterwards applied to the cessation of the Roman empire.

CONCLAVE, the place in which the cardinals of the Romish church meet, and are shut up, for the election of a pope.

The conclave is a range of small cells, 10 feet square, made of wainscot: these are numbered, and drawn for by lot. They stand in a line along the galleries and hall of the Vatican, with a small space between each. Every cell has the arms of the cardinal over it. The conclave is not fixed to any one determinate place, for the constitutions of the church allow the cardinals to make choice of such a place for the conclave as they think most convenient; yet it is generally held in the Vatican.

The conclave is very strictly guarded by troops; neither the cardinals, nor any person shut up in the conclave, are spoken to, but at the hours allowed of, and then in Italian or Latin: even the provisions for the conclave are examined, that no letters be conveyed by that means from the ministers of foreign powers, or other persons who may have an interest in the election of the pontiff.

CONCLAVE is also used for the assembly, or meeting, of the cardinals shut up for the election of a pope.

CONCLUSION, in *Logic*, the consequences or judgment drawn from what was asserted in the premises; or the previous judgments in reasoning, gained from combining the extreme ideas between themselves.

Concoction || Concordance.

CONCOCTION, in *Medicine*, the change which the food undergoes in the stomach, &c. to become chyle. See CHYLE.

CONCOMITANT, something that accompanies or goes along with another.

CONCORD, in *Grammar*, that part of construction called *syntax*, in which the words of a sentence agree; that is, in which nouns are put in the same gender, number, and case; and verbs in the same number and person with nouns and pronouns. See GRAMMAR.

CONCORD, in *Music*, the relation of two sounds that are always agreeable to the ear, whether applied in succession or consonance.

Form of CONCORD, in ecclesiastical history, a standard book among the Lutherans, composed at Torgaw, in 1576, and thence called the book of Torgaw, and reviewed at Berg by six Lutheran doctors of Germany, the principal of whom was James Andreæ. This book contains, in two parts, a system of doctrine, the subscription of which was a condition of communion, and a formal and very severe condemnation of all who differed from the compilers of it, particularly with respect to the majesty and omnipresence of Christ's body, and the real manducation of his flesh and blood in the eucharist. It was first imposed on the Saxons by Augustus, and occasioned great opposition and disturbance. The dispute about it was revived in Switzerland in 1718, when the magistrates of Berne published an order for adopting it as the rule of faith; the consequence of which was a contest, that reduced its credit and authority.

CONCORDANCE, a dictionary or index to the Bible, wherein all the leading words, used in the course of the inspired writings, are ranged alphabetically; and the various places where they occur referred to; to assist in finding out passages and comparing the several significations of the same word.

Cardinal Hugo de St Charo, is said to have employed 500 monks at the same time in compiling a Latin concordance; besides which, we have several other concordances in the same language; one, in particular, called the *concordance* of England, compiled by J. Darlington, of the order of Predicants; another more accurate one, by the Jesuit de Zamora.

R. Mordecai Nathan has furnished us with a Hebrew concordance, first printed at Venice in 1523, containing all the Hebrew roots branched into their various significations, and under each signification all the places in scripture where it occurs: but the best and most useful Hebrew concordance is that of Buxtorf, printed at Basil in 1632.

Dr Taylor published, in 1754, a Hebrew concordance in two volumes folio, adapted to the English Bible, and disposed after the manner of Buxtorf.

The Greek concordances are only for the New Testament: indeed we have one of Conr. Kircher's on the Old; but this is rather a concordantial dictionary than a concordance; containing all the Hebrew words in an alphabetical order; and underneath all the interpretations or senses the LXX. give them; and in each interpretation all the places where they occur in that version.

In 1718, Trommius published his Greek concordance for the Septuagint at Amsterdam, in two volumes folio;

folio; and Schmidius improving on a similar work of H. Stephen, has given an excellent Greek concordance for the New Testament, the best edition of which is that of Leipsic, an. 1717.

Calasius, an Italian Cordelier, has given us concordances of the Hebrew, Latin, and Greek, in two columns; the first, which is Hebrew, is that of R. Mordecai Nathan, word for word, and according to the order of the books and chapters: in the other column is a Latin interpretation of each passage of Scripture quoted by R. Mordecai; this interpretation is Calasius's own; but in the margin he adds that of the LXX. and the Vulgate, when different from his. The work is in 4 vols folio, printed at Rome in 1621.

We have several very copious concordances in English, as Newmann's, &c. but the last and best esteemed is that in 4to by Alexander Cruden.

CONCORDANT VERSES, such as have several words in common; but which, by the addition of other words, convey an opposite, at least a different meaning. Such are those.

Et { *canis* / *lupus* } *in silva* { *venatur* / *nutritur* } *et omnia* { *servat.* / *vastat.* }

CONCORDAT, in the canon law, denotes a covenant or agreement concerning some beneficiary matter, as a resignation, permutation, promotion, or the like.

The council of Trent, sess. vi. *de reform.* cap. 4. speaking of concordats made without the authority and approbation of the pope, calls them *concordias quæ tantum suos obligant auctores, non successores.* And the congregation of cardinals, who have explained this decree, declares also that a concordat cannot be valid so as to bind successors, unless confirmed by the pope.

CONCORDAT is also used, absolutely, among the French, for an agreement concluded at Bologna in 1516, between Pope Leo X. and Francis I. of France, for regulating the manner of nominating to benefices.

The concordat serves in lieu of the pragmatic sanction, which has been abrogated; or rather, it is the pragmatic sanction softened and reformed. The concordat between the pope and the republic of Venice resembles the former.

There is also a German concordat, made between the emperor Frederic III. and the princes of Germany, in 1448, relating to beneficiary matters, confirmed by Pope Nicholas V.

CONCORDIA, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Mirandola; seated on the river Sechia, 5 miles west of Mirandola, and 15 miles south-east of Mantua; subject to the house of Austria. E. Long. 11. 13. N. Lat. 44. 52.

CONCORDIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Veneti, situated at the confluence of the rivers Romatinus Major and Minor, 31 miles to the west of Aquileia, (Pliny, Ptolemy, Antonine); a colony surnamed *Julia.* Its ruins still go by the name of *Concordia.*—Another Concordia (Ptolemy), of Lusitania, to the north-west of Trajan's bridge, on the Tagus.—A third of the Nemetes, in Belgica, on the west side of the Rhine; a Roman fortress, situated between Brocomagus and Noviomagus. Now Drusenheim, in Alsace. E. Long. 8. N. Lat. 48. 40.

CONCORDIA, a Pagan divinity of the Romans. She had a temple on the declivity of the Capitol; another in the Portico of Livia; and a third on Mount Palatine, built of brass by Cn. Flavius, on account of a vow made for reconciling the senate and people. She was pictured with a cup in her right hand; in her left was sometimes a sceptre, and sometimes a *cornucopiæ.* Her symbols were two hands joined, as is seen in a coin of Aurelius Verus, and another of Nero; also two serpents twisting about a caduceus. She was addressed to promote the peace and union of families and citizens.

CONCOU, in *Botany*, a name given by the people of Guinea to an herb, which is in great esteem among them for killing that troublesome sort of worm called the *Guinea-worm*, that breeds in their flesh. They bruise the leaves, and mixing them with oil apply them in form of a cataplasm.

CONCRETE, in the school-philosophy, an assemblage or compound.

CONCRETE, in *Natural Philosophy* and *Chemistry*, signifies a body made up of different principles, or any mixed body: thus, soap is a factitious concrete, mixed together by art; and antimony is a natural concrete, or a mixed body compounded in the bowels of the earth.

CONCRETION, the uniting several small particles of a natural body into sensible masses or concretes, whereby it becomes so and so figured and determined, and is endued with such and such properties.

CONCRETION is also the act whereby soft bodies are rendered hard: or an insensible motion of the particles of a fluid or soft body, whereby they come to a consistence. It is indifferently used for induration, condensation, congelation, and coagulation.

CONCUBINAGE sometimes expresses a criminal or prohibited commerce between the two sexes; in which sense it comprehends adultery, incest, and simple fornication.

In its more restrained sense, concubinage is used for a man's and a woman's cohabiting together in the way of marriage, without having passed the ceremony thereof.

Concubinage was anciently tolerated: the Roman law calls it an allowed custom, *licita consuetudo.* When this expression occurs in the constitutions of the Christian emperors, it signifies what we now call a *marriage in conscience.*

The concubinage tolerated among the Romans in the time of the republic, and of the heathen emperors, was that between persons not capable of contracting marriage together; nor did they even refuse to let inheritances descend to children which sprung from such a tolerated cohabitance. Concubinage between such persons they looked on as a kind of marriage, and even allowed it several privileges: but then this concubinage was confined to a single person, and was of perpetual obligation as much as marriage itself. Hottoman observes, that the Roman laws had allowed of concubinage long before Julius Cæsar made that law whereby every one was allowed to marry as many wives as he pleased. The emperor Valentinian, Socrates tells us, allowed every man two.

CONCUBINAGE is also used for a marriage performed with less solemnity than the formal marriage: or a marriage

Concubinage, Concubine.

marriage with a woman of inferior condition, and to whom the husband does not convey his rank or quality. Cujas observes, that the ancient laws allowed a man to espouse, under the title of *concubine*, certain persons, such as were esteemed unequal to him, on account of the want of some qualities requisite to sustain the full honour of marriage. He adds, that though concubinage was beneath marriage, both as to dignity and civil effects; yet was concubine a reputable title, very different from that of mistress among us. The commerce was esteemed so lawful, that the concubine might be accused of adultery in the same manner as a wife.

This kind of concubinage is still in use in some countries, particularly in Germany, under the title of *a half marriage*, *morgengabic marriage*, or *marriage with the left-hand;* alluding to the manner of its being contracted, viz. by the man's giving the woman his left hand instead of the right. This is a real marriage, though without solemnity: the parties are both bound for ever: though the woman be thus excluded from the common rights of a wife for want of quality or fortune.

The children of concubines were not reputed either legitimate or bastards, but natural children, and were capable only of donations. They were deemed to retain the low rank of the mother; and were on this ground unqualified for inheriting the effects of the father.

CONCUBINAGE, in a legal sense, is used as an exception against her that sueth for dower, alleging thereby, that she was not a wife lawfully married to the party, in whose lands she seeks to be endowed, but his concubine.

CONCUBINE, a woman whom a person takes to cohabit with him, in the manner, and under the character, of a wife, without being authorized thereto by a legal marriage.

CONCUBINE is also used for a real, legitimate, and only wife, distinguished by no other circumstance but a disparity of birth or condition between her and the husband. Du Cange observes, that one may gather from several passages in the epistles of the popes, that they anciently allowed of such concubines. The seventeenth canon of the first council of Toledo declares, that he who, with a faithful wife, keeps a concubine, is excommunicated; but that if the concubine served him as a wife, so that he had only one woman, under the title of concubine, he should not be rejected from communion: which shows that there were legitimate wives under the title of concubines.

In effect, the Roman laws did not allow a man to espouse whom he pleased; there was required a kind of parity, or proportion, between the conditions of the contracting parties; but a woman of inferior condition, who could not be espoused as a wife, might be kept as a concubine; and the laws allowed of it, provided the man had no other wife.

It is certain the patriarchs had a great number of wives, and that these did not all hold the same rank; some being subaltern to the principal wife; which were what we call *concubines* or half-wives. The Romans prohibited a plurality of concubines, and only had regard to the children issuing from a single concubine, because she might become a legitimate wife. Solomon had 700 wives and 300 concubines; the emperor of China has sometimes two or three thousand concubines in his palace. Q. Curtius observes, that Darius was followed in his army by 365 concubines, all in the equipage of queens.

Concubine || Conde.

CONCUPISCENCE, according to divines, an irregular appetite, or lust after carnal things, inherent in the nature of man ever since the fall.

COND, CON, or CONN, in sea language, signifies to guide or conduct a ship in her right course. He that cons her, stands aloft with a compass before him, and gives the word of direction to the man at the helm how he is to steer. If the ship go before the wind, or, as they call it, betwixt the sheets, the word is either Starboard, or Port the helm; according as the conder would have the helm put to the right or left side of the ship, upon which the ship always goes the contrary way. If he says, Helm a midship, he would have the ship to go right before the wind, or directly between her two sheets. If the ship sail by a wind, or on a quarter wind, the word is, Aloof, keep your luff, fall not off, veer no more, keep her to, touch the wind, have a care of the lee-latch: all which expressions are of the same import, and imply that the steersman should keep the ship near the wind. On the contrary, if he would have her sail move large, or more before the wind, the word is, Ease the helm, no near, bear up. If he cries Steady, it means, keep her from going in and out, or making yaws (as they call it), howsoever she sails, whether large or before a wind: and when he would have her go just as she does, he cries, Keep her thus, thus, &c.

CONDAMINE, CHARLES M. DE LA, a French traveller, and man of science. See SUPPLEMENT.

CONDATE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Armorica in Gaul: called *Civitas Rhedonum*, in the Notitia; afterwards *Redonæ;* Redonica Regio, the district. Hence the modern name *Rennes*, in Brittany. W. Long. 1. 45. Lat. 48. 5. Another Condate of Britain (Antonine); now thought to be Congleton in Yorkshire; others say in Lancashire.

CONDE, LEWIS DE BOURBON, PRINCE OF, was born at Paris Sept. 7. 1621. He was styled Duke d'Enguien, till he succeeded to the title of Prince of Conde by his father's death in 1646. As he was of a tender and delicate constitution, the prince sent him to the castle of Montrond in Berry, that he might breathe a more pure and salutary air. Here he was educated in his infancy by some experienced and prudent citizens wives, When he was of a proper age, the prince took upon himself the task of governor, and appointed for his assistant M. de la Boussieres, a private gentleman, a man of honour, fidelity, and good nature, and who made it a rule to observe inviolably the orders that were given him. Two Jesuits distinguished for their genius and knowledge were also given him for preceptors. He formed him a household of 15 or 20 officers, all men of the greatest virtue and discretion.

With these attendants the duke d'Enguien went to settle at Bourges, where he frequented the college of Jesuits. Here, besides the ordinary studies, he was taught ancient and modern history, mathematics, geography, declamation; also riding and dancing, in which last he soon excelled. He made such a surprising progress, that before the age of 13 he defended in public some questions in philosophy with incredible applause.

applauſe. At his return from Montrond, he had for his tutor M. de Merille; a man deeply verſed in the knowledge of common law, of ancient and modern laws, of the holy ſcriptures, and of the mathematics. Under his direction the duke went through that new courſe with prodigious ſucceſs. He acquired a critical taſte in the arts and ſciences, which he retained all his life; he never ſuffered a day to paſs without dedicating two or three hours at leaſt to reading; his thirſt for knowledge was univerſal, and he endeavoured to ſearch every thing to the bottom. His chief inclination, however, lay towards the military art; and at the age of 18 he obtained permiſſion to make his firſt campaign as a volunteer in the army commanded by M. de la Meilleraye. This campaign was unfortunate; and the duke d'Enguien was only a witneſs of the marſhal's imprudence and diſgrace. Nevertheleſs, in this campaign he laid the foundation of that renown which made him afterwards conſidered as the greateſt general of his age.

On his return to Paris, the duke waited upon Cardinal Richelieu at Ruel. The miniſter was ſo pleaſed with his converſation, that he ſoon after made propoſals of an alliance with the prince of Conde, by marrying the duke d'Enguien to Claire Clemence de Maille Breza, the cardinal's niece. The duke conſented to this match out of obedience to his father; but the force he put upon himſelf by yielding to it was ſo great, that he fell dangerouſly ill. It was long before he got the better of his diſtemper; but at length he not only recovered, but became ſo ſtrong as afterwards to bear the greateſt fatigues with eaſe.

The duke made two more campaigns as a volunteer; the one under the marſhal de la Meilleraye, the other in the army of Louis XIII. which conquered Rouſſillon. In 1643, at the age of 22, he obtained from the king, at the perſuaſion of Cardinal Mazarin, the command of the army deſtined to cover Champagne and Picardy; which command was confirmed to him after the king's death by the queen regent, Anne of Auſtria, to whoſe intereſt he was ſtrongly devoted. In this ſtation, though he had never been preſent at any battle, he ſoon gave ſuch a ſpecimen of his abilities as crowned him with glory. The Spaniards, who threatened France with an invaſion, were defeated by him at Rocroi; and this ſignal victory made him from that time conſidered as the guardian genius of his country. He next formed the project of beſieging Thionville, and propoſed it to the council of regency. They conſented with fear and diſtruſt; but the duke carried it into execution with ſuch ſkill, activity, and courage, that he became juſtly the ſubject of general admiration. In two months time Thionville ſurrendered. At length, having covered Alſace and Lorrain from the enterpriſes of the Imperialiſts, the duke returned to Paris, where he obtained the government of Champagne, and of the city of Stenai.

The three following years were little more than a ſeries of military operations. The three battles of Fribourg, in which the duke d'Enguien triumphed over Velt Marſhal Count de Mercy, the greateſt general in all Germany; the taking of Philipſbourg, and a great number of other places, which rendered him maſter of the palatinate, and of the whole courſe of the Rhine; the victory of Nortlingue, by which he revenged the viſcount du Turenne's defeat at Mariendal; the ſiege and conqueſt of Dunkirk; the good and bad ſucceſs of his arms in Catalonia, where, though he was forced to raiſe the ſiege of Lerida, he kept the Spaniards in awe, and cut to pieces their rear-guard; theſe are the principal events which diſtinguiſh the campaigns of 1644, 1645, and 1646.

The victories of the duke d'Enguien, his great reputation and eſteem with the people, began now to give umbrage to Mazarin. The cardinal's diſlike to him appeared on the death of the duke de Breze, admiral of France. The prince of Conde earneſtly demanded for his ſon the duke de Breze's places. But Mazarin, afraid of increaſing the wealth and power of a prince, whom his victories and the love and confidence of the people and the army had already rendered too formidable to him, evaded his requeſt, by perſuading the queen to take the admiralty to herſelf. On the death of his father, the miniſter's diſlike to the young prince of Conde became ſtill more apparent. By the miniſter's perſuaſion he had accepted of the command of the army in Catalonia; but, on his arrival at Barcelona, he found neither troops, money, artillery, proviſions, nor ammunition. Enraged at this deception, he vented his reſentment in bitter complaints and ſevere threats: but by the reſources that he found in this dilemma, the prince added new luſtre to his glory.

The campaign of 1648 was as glorious to Conde as thoſe which preceded it had been. To diſconcert at once the projects of the archduke Leopold, the prince reſolved to attack him even in the heart of the Low Countries; and notwithſtanding the conſiderable difficulties which he had to ſurmount, he beſieged the important city of Ypres, and took it in ſight of all the enemy's forces.

Notwithſtanding this ſucceſs, Conde ſaw himſelf at the point of experiencing the greateſt reverſe of fortune. His army was a prey to ſcarcity, to nakedneſs, contagious diſtempers, and deſertion. For eight months it received no ſupply from the miniſter, but half a muſter. Every thing was ſupplied by the prince himſelf; he laviſhed his money, and borrowed more to ſupply his troops. When it was repreſented to him that he was in danger of ruining himſelf by ſuch an enormous expence, he replied, that "ſince he every day ventured his life for the ſervice of his country, he could very well ſacrifice his fortune to it. Let but the government exiſt (added he), and I ſhall want for nothing."

The French army having been reinforced by 4000 of the troops of Weimar, Conde attacked the Spaniards advantageouſly encamped near Lens, and gained a complete victory over them, which diſabled them from attempting any thing more, and even from ſupporting themſelves. Afterwards he beſieged Furnes, the garriſon of which, 500 men, ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war. But the prince was wounded there in the trenches by a muſket-ſhot above the right hip; and the contuſion was ſo great, that he was forced to ſubmit to ſeveral inciſions.

The French court, animated with the victory at Lens, thought this a proper time to take vengeance on

Conde.

on the factions which for ſome time had violently agitated the kingdom; and accordingly impriſoned Brouſſel and Blancmenil, two of the principal leaders of the country party. This vigorous proceeding, however, occaſioned a general revolt. Two hundred thouſand men took arms in Paris, barricaded the ſtreets, inveſted the palais-royal, and demanded the priſoners. It was neceſſary to releaſe them; but from that time the regal authority was annihilated; the queen was expoſed to a thouſand inſults, and Mazarin dared no longer venture out of the palais royal, In this embarraſſment the queen recalled the prince of Conde, as the only one from whom ſhe could hope for ſupport. He retired to Ruel, whither the regent had gone with the young king and Mazarin. Anne of Auſtria propoſed to him the reducing of Paris by force of arms: but he calmed the reſentments of that princeſs; and inſtead of being acceſſory to her vengeance, he directed all his views to pacify the kingdom, and at length brought about an accommodation between the parties, who deſired it with equal ardour. But new incidents ſoon rekindled the combuſtion. The treachery of Mazarin, and the artifices of the leaders of the country party, occaſioned new cabals and freſh troubles. Conde was careſſed by the leaders of both parties; but at laſt, enraged at the arrogance of the malecontents, who every day formed new pretenſions, he took part openly with the court, though he thought it ungrateful, and protected the miniſter, though he did not eſteem him.

The royal family, the duke of Orleans, Conde, and Mazarin, left Paris privately in the night between the 5th and 6th of January 1646, and went to St Germains. The parliament ſent deputies to learn from the queen herſelf the reaſons of her departure, and to beg her to name the citizens whom ſhe ſuſpected, that they might be tried. Mazarin had the imprudence to diſmiſs them without any anſwer. Exaſperated at this, the people again took up arms in order to defend themſelves againſt the enterpriſes of the court, who had determined to block up and to ſtarve the capital, in order to ſuppreſs the party of malecontents. With 7000 or 8000 men, the broken relics of the laſt campaign, the prince of Conde formed a deſign of reducing above 500,000 intrenched behind walls. He had neither money nor magazines; he ſaw himſelf in the depth of a moſt ſevere winter; nevertheleſs he triumphed over Paris, and this great ſucceſs completed his glory. It did him ſo much the more honour, as during the ſiege he conſtantly defeated the troops of the malecontents; he prevailed on the army that marched to their aſſiſtance under Turenne, to abandon that general; he ſtopped the progreſs of the duke de Longueville, who had cauſed an inſurrection in Normandy; and got the ſtart of the Spaniards, who were advancing to give him battle.

Condi de Retz, coadjutor of Paris, and afterwards cardinal, was the life and ſoul of the revolters, and directed all their motions. He had taken Catiline for his model; and was equally intrepid and capable of the greateſt actions; of an exalted genius, but governed by his ambition. He diſtinguiſhed his hatred to Mazarin by arming the malecontents; and he himſelf raiſed at his own expence a regiment which he called the regiment of *Corinth;* as ſoon as this corps took the field during the blockade of Paris, it was defeated and diſperſed. This check was called *the firſt to the Corinthians.* The peace was ſigned at St Germains; but neither party carried its point, and ſcarce any one but Conde acquired glory by this war. After the concluſion of the treaty, the prince repaired to the capital, and traverſed all the ſtreets in his coach alone. All perſons of any conſequence paid their compliments to him, and the parliament ſent a ſolemn deputation to thank him for the peace to which he had ſo powerfully contributed. The people, however, made loud complaints on account of the king's abſence (for the court was not yet returned to Paris), and the malecontents gave reaſon to apprehend a new inſurrection. Conde encouraged the king and queen to return; and at length brought them to Paris, amidſt the acclamations and bleſſings of the public.

The important ſervice which Conde had juſt done the court entitled him to the acknowledgments of the queen, and eſpecially of Mazarin; but the dark ſoul of that cardinal only remembered it to puniſh a too fortunate and too powerful protector. He privately ſwore the prince's deſtruction; at leaſt that he ſhould give the whole kingdom a pattern of ſubmiſſion and dependence on his will. However, not to excite the public indignation, he ſtill kept up appearances with the prince, while he ſecretly ſpread about him diſguſts, ſuſpicions, ſnares of every kind, and the moſt heinous calumnies. The ungrateful miniſter deceived the prince by making him the moſt flattering propoſals; and with the moſt alluring promiſes, which he always found means to avoid fulfilling. The enraged prince deſpiſed the miniſter, and treated him with diſdain. After this they were reconciled again only to be again at variance. Each of them in their turn courted the country party, in order to make it ſubſervient to their deſigns. At laſt Mazarin thought of an expedient, which but too effectually anſwered his purpoſe, of making an irreconcileable quarrel between that party and the prince. Among the malecontents, the marquis de la Boulaie, a man of an infamous character, had obtained the confidence of the party by falſe appearances of hatred to the cardinal, but ſecretly kept up a correſpondence with him. It is pretended that he made him an offer of privately killing Conde. Mazarin was charmed with the propoſal; yet he only required Boulaie to exhibit all the proofs of an aſſaſſination, and to act in ſuch a manner that every thing might concur to render the country party ſuſpected of that crime. He was punctually obeyed; the coach was ſtopped; ſome piſtols were fired at it, by which two of the footmen were dangerouſly wounded; and after that ſhameful exploit, la Boulaie took refuge in the hotel of the duke of Beaufort who was the hero of the party, in order no doubt to countenance the prince's ſuſpicion of the malecontents. Luckily Conde was not in his coach when it was ſtopped; the cardinal had ſpread the report of his intended aſſaſſination; and in concert with the queen and the prince he had prevailed to have the coach ſent away empty, to prove the reality of the attempt. Mazarin counterfeited a zeal for the prince's life; he furiouſly declaimed againſt the malecontents, who, he pretended, had made an attempt on a life ſo precious to the ſtate; and he inflmed Conde's reſentment againſt the duke of Beaufort

Conde.

Beaufort and the coadjutor, whom he ſuppoſed to be the authors of this heinous outrage. The prince was ſo ſtrongly prejudiced, that he refuſed to hear them when they appeared before him to juſtify themſelves. He demanded juſtice againſt them of the king: he formally accuſed them before the parliament, and remained inflexible in ſpite of the pains which the leaders of the party took to demonſtrate to him that he had been impoſed upon. However, the affair was brought before the parliament; the accuſed defended themſelves, and the coadjutor, who had diſcovered the cardinal's ſecret, unmaſked him ſo well, that the prince agreed to a private negociation with the malecontents; he required nothing more than the coadjutor's leaving Paris, but with the rank of ambaſſador to Rome or Vienna. That prelate would have conſented to it, to ſatisfy Conde, if Mazarin, ſome days after, had not given him the choice of any recompenſe, in order to engage his concurrence in the prince's deſtruction. Affairs were now in ſuch a dangerous ſituation, that the cardinal ſaw clearly it was neceſſary to haſten to the winding up of the plot. Maſter of the queen's mind, which he guided as he pleaſed; and ſure of having inflamed againſt Conde all the reſentment of the malecontents; he ſought and obtained, by means of the ducheſs Chevreuſe, the ſupport of that powerful faction, which connected itſelf the more readily with him, in hopes that the prince's fall would ſoon enable it to cruſh without difficulty the cardinal himſelf. The coadjutor had private conferences with the queen and the miniſter. Conde had notice of it; and in order to diſcover if it were true, he endeavoured to ſurpriſe it from Mazarin's own mouth. "Cardinal (ſaid he, one day), it is publicly reported that you have nightly meetings with the coadjutor, diſguiſed like a trooper." He accompanied this ſpeech with a quick and penetrating look: but the cardinal, who was a perfect maſter of diſſimulation, anſwered him in ſuch a free, artleſs-like manner, that he entirely removed Conde's apprehenſion; and he ſlighted the information he had received, of the plot forming againſt him.

Mazarin wanted nothing but the ſupport of the duke of Orleans; and at laſt found means, by the ducheſs of Chevreuſe, to inflame the jealouſy of that fickle and inconſtant prince, and to engage him to conſent to the impriſonment of Conde. Having thus united all parties, and fearing no other obſtacle, this ungrateful and perfidious miniſter made preparations for privately arreſting the prince; the order for it was ſigned January 18. 1650. Conde having that day repaired as uſual to the palais-royal, to aſſiſt at council with the prince of Conti and the duke of Longueville, the queen gave orders to arreſt them all three, and to convey them without any noiſe to the caſtle of Vincennes. She was inſtantly obeyed, and the princes were ſtrictly guarded in that priſon.

In this unexpected reverſe of fortune, the fortitude and greatneſs of Conde's mind appeared only the more remarkable. Confined with the other two princes in the tower of Vincennes, where neither ſupper, furniture, nor beds, were provided, he contented himſelf with two new laid eggs, and threw himſelf in his clothes, on a truſs of ſtraw, where he ſlept 12 hours without waking. He ſtill retained his cheerfulneſs, and dedicated the greateſt part of his time to reading; the reſt to converſation, playing at battle-door and ſhuttle-cock, to bodily exerciſes, and the cultivation of flowers.

Mazarin triumphed at the diſgrace of the princes, proſcribed all thoſe who were attached to Conde, and behaved in the moſt inſolent and arbitrary manner. The prince's friends, however, notwithſtanding their being ſtrictly watched, found means to keep up a punctual correſpondence with him. They made various attempts to releaſe him: they raiſed troops, in particular, the dukes of Bouillon and Rochefoucault, and the viſcount de Turenne. The princeſs of Conde engaged the province of Guienne to declare in his favour; ſhe made war, in order to force the court to releaſe him; at length the partizans of the prince ſigned a treaty with the Spaniards, to labour in concert for his enlargement. But all thoſe efforts would, perhaps, have been ineffectual, if other more powerful reſources had not been employed.

In that gallant and warlike age, every thing was managed by the paſſions and intrigues of five or ſix women, who poſſeſſed the confidence of the leaders of the ſtate, and of the various parties. The princeſs of Mantua, wife to one of the ſons of the elector Palatine, king of Bohemia, principally directed the counſels in the party of the princes. She found means to reconcile the duke of Orleans, the coadjutor, and the malecontents, with the friends of the prince, and united their efforts againſt the cardinal. The parliament, on the other ſide, loudly demanded the releaſe of the priſoners. All the orders of the ſtate united in ſoliciting it, inſomuch that the queen was at laſt prevailed on to give her conſent. At this news, Mazarin was ſo confounded, that he fled in the diſguiſe of a trooper, and arrived at the gates of Richlieu, where a body of horſe waited for him. The parliament, informed by the queen of his flight, thundered forth an arret, by which he was obliged to leave the kingdom, with his family and foreign ſervants, in the ſpace of 15 days, under the penalty of being expoſed to a criminal proſecution. The queen deſired to follow him with the king; but the nobles and burghers inveſted the palais-royal, and prevented the execution of this project, which would have kindled a civil war. Mazarin, therefore, perceiving that it was impoſſible for the queen to join him, determined to go himſelf to reſtore the princes to their liberty, and to get the ſtart of the deputies who were coming to acquaint them with it. On his arrival at Havre, he informed the princes that they were free; he entreated Conde's friendſhip; and was ſo abject as to proſtrate himſelf at the feet of him whom he had ſo baſely oppreſſed. Conde gave him a polite reception, and ſpoke to him in a free and cheerful tone; but tired with the mean ſubmiſſions which the cardinal laviſhed upon him, he left him without making any promiſe, and ſet out on his return to Paris, which he entered as it were in triumph, amidſt the acclamations of all orders of men, and the demonſtrations of a moſt ſincere and general joy.

After this a civil war enſued, in which the prince of Conde ſided with the malecontents. Being preſſed by the king's army, he retired into the ſuburbs of St Anthony, where he behaved with the utmoſt bravery; when the citizens opened their gates and received

ceived him in; and a peace enſued ſoon after. His hatred of the cardinal, however, made him quit Paris, and take refuge among the Spaniards, who made him generaliſſimo of their forces; and he took Rocroi. The peace of the Pyrenees reſtored him to his country; and he again ſignalized himſelf at the head of the king's armies. Being afflicted with the gout, he refuſed the command of the army in 1676, and retired to Chantilly, where he was as much eſteemed for the virtues of peace, as he had been before for his military talents. He died in 1686, at Fontainbleau.

CONDE, a town of the French Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, with the title of a principality, and a caſtle. It is one of the ſtrongeſt towns in this country, and ſeated near the confluence of the rivers Haiſne and Scheldt. It was taken by the allies in 1793, and retaken by the French in 1794. Its name by the convention was changed to Nord Libre. E. Long. 3. 39. N. Lat. 50. 27.

CONDE, a town of France, in the department of Calvados, which carries on a conſiderable trade; ſeated on the river Nereau, 15 miles weſt of Paris. W. Long. 0. 37. N. Lat. 48. 50.

CONDEMNATION, the act of giving judgment, paſſing or pronouncing ſentence againſt a perſon, who is thus ſubjected to ſome penalty or puniſhment, either in reſpect of life, reputation, or fortune.

CONDENSATION, the act whereby a body is rendered more denſe, compact, and heavy. The word is commonly applied to the converſion of vapour into water, by diſtillation, or naturally in the clouds. The way in which vapour commonly condenſes, is by the application of ſome cold ſubſtance. On touching it, the vapour parts with its heat which it had before abſorbed; and on doing ſo, it immediately loſes the proper characteriſtics of vapour, and becomes water. But though this is the moſt common and uſual way in which we obſerve vapour to be condenſed, nature certainly proceeds after another method; ſince we often obſerve the vapours moſt plentifully condenſed when the weather is really warmer than at other times. See the articles CLOUD, EVAPORATION, &c.

CONDENSER, a pneumatic engine, or ſyringe, with which a greater quantity of air may be crowded into a given ſpace; ſo that ſometimes ten atmoſpheres, or ten times as much air as there is at the ſame time in the ſame ſpace, under the uſual preſſure, may be thrown in by means of it, and its egreſs prevented by valves properly diſpoſed.

It conſiſts of a braſs cylinder, wherein is a moveable piſton; which being drawn out, the air ruſhes into the cylinder through a hole provided on purpoſe; and when the piſton is again forced into the cylinder, the air is driven into the receiver through an orifice, furniſhed with a valve to hinder its getting out.

The receiver or veſſel containing the condenſed air, ſhould be made very ſtrong, to bear the force of the air's ſpring thus increaſed; for which reaſon they are generally made of braſs; its orifice is fitted with a female ſcrew to receive the male ſcrew at the end of the condenſer.

CONDENSER of Electricity, an apparatus for collecting ſmall quantities of the electric fluid. This inſtrument was invented by Volta, and is deſcribed in the 72d vol. of the Phil. Tranſ. See ELECTRICITY.

CONDITION, in the civil law, a cauſe of obligation ſtipulated as an article of a treaty or a contract; or in a donation of a teſtament, legacy, &c. in which laſt caſe a donee does not loſe his donative if it be charged with any diſhoneſt or impoſſible conditions.

CONDITIONAL, ſomething not abſolute, but ſubject to conditions.

CONDITIONAL Conjunctions, in *Grammar*, are thoſe which ſerve to make propoſitions conditional; as *if*, *unleſs*, *provided*, &c.

CONDITIONAL Propoſitions, in *Logic*, ſuch as conſiſt of two parts connected together by a conditional particle.

CONDITIONAL Syllogiſm, a ſyllogiſm where the major is a conditional propoſition. Thus,

If there is a God, he ought to be worſhipped.
But there is a God;
Therefore he ought to be worſhipped.

CONDIVICNUM, in *Ancient Geography*, the capital of the Namnetes, in Armorica. Now Nantes in Brittany, on the Loire, from its name *Civitas Namnetum*. W. Long. 1. 30. Lat. 47. 15.

CONDOM, a town of Gaſcony in France, capital of the Condomois, with a biſhop's ſee. It is but a poor place, and the trade is very ſmall. It is ſeated on the river Geliſſe, in E. Long. 0. 22. N. Lat. 44.

CONDOR, or CONTOR. See VULTURE, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CONDORCET, JOHN-ANTONY NICHOLAS CARITAT, marquis of, a French writer, and political character of conſiderable eminence, deſcended from an ancient family from the principality of Orange, and born at Ribemont in Picardy, in 1743. He received his education at the college of Navarre, where he was diſtinguiſhed at an early period of life for his ſtrong attachment to the ſtudy of phyſics and mathematics. On his entrance into public life, he eſtabliſhed a friendly intercourſe with Voltaire, D'Alembert, and other literary characters, who profeſſed opinions analogous to his own, and formed a very powerful party among the French literati, whoſe united efforts to propagate their ideas of religion and politics, have been applauded or condemned, according to the principles of their different judges. Condorcet firſt attracted the attention of the public as a mathematician, obtaining their approbation for his treatiſe on integral calculations, which he compoſed at the age of 22. In the year 1767, his ſolution of the problem of the Three Bodies made its appearance, and in the following year the firſt part of his "Eſſays on Analyſis." In the year 1769 he was received a member of the Academy of Sciences, the memoirs of which were greatly enriched by him with different papers on the moſt abſtruſe branches of mathematical ſcience. His juſtly merited reputation pointed him out as a fit perſon to co-operate with D'Alembert and Boſſut, in aſſiſting M. Turgot, that celebrated miniſter and able financier, with arithmetical calculations. In the mean time he laboured indefatigably in the ſtudy of politics and metaphyſics, and defended, in an anonymous publication, the ſect of philoſophers to which he had attached himſelf, from an

Condorcet. an attack made upon them in the Trois Siecles; and replied to M. Necker's effay on Corn Laws. He was appointed fecretary to the Academy of Sciences in the year 1773, when he employed much of his time in writing eulogies on fuch of its deceafed members as Fontenelle had paffed over in filence. Like D'Alembert and fome others, Condorcet having united in himfelf the characters of an elegant writer and a man of profound refearch, was admitted into the French academy in 1783, when he pronounced an oration on the influence of philofophy, which was ordered to be printed. From the time of D'Alembert's death, which happened this year, he filled the ftation of fecretary to that academy, rendering his name confpicuous by the publication of eulogies on different eminent characters. His panegyric on D'Alembert, to whom he was moft fincerely attached, is a very elaborate performance, notwithftanding of which it is efteemed by judges as a candid account of the genuine merits of that great philofopher. His encomium beftowed on that very able mathematician Euler, furnifhed him with a favourable opportunity of giving a circumftantial account of the fpecific improvements and inventions conferred on a peculiar branch of fcience by the labours of an individual; a talent in a biographical writer which Condorcet appears to have poffeffed in an eminent degree. His eulogy on the minifter Turgot was read with avidity, and admired by all thofe who approved of Turgot's plans of government and fyftem of finance. In the year 1787 he gave the public his "Life of Voltaire," which was highly elaborate, and replete with lofty panegyric, on the merits of which mankind were confequently much divided, according to their fentiments of that author's philofophy. The laft of his biographical works was an eulogy on the celebrated Dr Franklin, publifhed in 1790, all of which will be read with fome degree of prejudice by thofe who are inimical to the fchool of philofophy to which he belonged.

The memorable event of the French revolution, which the writings of Condorcet and his affociates unqueftionably accelerated, naturally intereffed his feelings, and called forth his exertions. But the conduct of the political parties and their leaders, during this tumultuous period, is painted in colours fo diametrically oppofite to each other, that a proper eftimate of it is fcarcely poffible. In this part of Condorcet's life, therefore, we muft confine ourfelves to fuch facts as are univerfally acknowledged, leaving it to our readers to draw inferences for themfelves.

At an early period he employed his talents to promote thofe reforms, (for fuch they appeared in his judgment) which were to pave the way to a new order of things. A work entitled *La Bibliotheque de l'Homme Public*, to contain an analyfis of the writings of the moft eminent politicians, was chiefly conducted by him, as was alfo a newfpaper called *La Chronique de Paris*, filled with declamation againft royalty. He had likewife a fhare in the *Journal de Paris*, a paper conducted on fimilar principles. About the time when the unfortunate king fled to Varennes he propofed a paper called *Le Republicain*, the obvious intention of which is clearly deducible from its title. He was an indefatigable member of the Jacobin club, and fpoke frequently, though not forcibly, in it. He was chofen a reprefentative for Paris when the conftituent affembly was diffolved, and followed the general political courfe of the Briffotine party. A plan for public inftruction was now to exercife his abilities, which he finifhed in two elaborate memoirs, allowed to contain fome exalted and enlarged ideas, but perhaps rather extenfive to be reduced to practice. He was likewife author of the manifefto addreffed to the European powers by the people of France, on the approach of a war. He wrote a letter of expoftulation to the king while he was prefident of the affembly, which fome have confidered as by far too fevere, and deftitute of that ceremony to which the fovereign was entitled. When the king was infulted by the populace at the Thuilleries, in being offered the red cap, it is faid that he vindicated their proceedings. We are alfo informed, that while he was degrading royalty in this manner, he was fecretly foliciting the office of tutor to the dauphin; a propofition which the king utterly rejected, on account of his avowed infidelity. Attempts have been made to fix upon his character the moft abominable ingratitude, by making him acceffory to the murder of the duke de la Rochefoucault, to whom he was under the ftrongeft obligations, and from whofe family he had received a moft accomplifhed wife with a fortune; but we fincerely hope that this calumny entirely originated from the malevolence of party fpirit. When the trial of the king came to be agitated, Condorcet gave it as his opinion that he could not be brought to judgment in a legal manner; yet it muft be confeffed that his conduct in regard to the fentence, was rather of an ambiguous nature, and betrayed that timidity and want of refolution which formed the moft prominent features of his political career. The judgement of Madame Roland concerning the moral conftitution of this wonderful man has all the air of impartiality. "The genius of Condorcet," fays that lady, "is equal to the comprehenfion of the greateft truths; but he has no other characteriftic befides fear. It may be faid of his underftanding, combined with his perfon, that it is a fine effence abforbed in cotton. The timidity which forms the bafis of his character, and which he difplays even in company, does not refult from his frame alone, but feems to be inherent in his foul, and his talents furnifh him with no means of fubduing it. Thus, after having deduced a principle or demonftrated a fact in the affembly, he would give a vote decidedly oppofite, overawed by the thunder of the tribunes, armed with infults, and lavifh of menaces. The propereft place for him was the fecretaryfhip of the academy. Such men fhould be employed to write, but never permitted to act." The Gironde party, after the execution of the king, employed him to frame a new conftitution, the plan of which was prefented to the convention, and obtained their approbation. It was not thus efteemed by the people at large; and it has, perhaps not without reafon, been confidered as "a mafs of metaphyfical abfurdities." During the violent ftruggle between the Gironde and Mountain parties, Condorcet took no decided part with either, which feems to have been owing to the native timidity of his mind, and his abhorrence of the ftate of public affairs. He was not comprehended among the number of thofe who were facrificed with their leader Briffot; but having employed his pen againft the victorious party,

ty, he fell under the invincible displeasure of that inhuman, blood-thirsty tyrant Robespierre, who issued a decree of accusation against him in July, 1793. He found means to effect his escape from the arrest, and during nine months concealed himself in Paris. Dreading at length that the tyrant would order a domiciliary visit for the purpose of discovering the place of his retreat, he passed through the barriers without being taken notice of, and went to the house of a person in whom he could confide, on the plain of Mont-Rouge, who unfortunately for Condorcet was at that time in the metropolis. He was of consequence under the necessity of passing two dreary nights in the open fields, a melancholy prey to hunger and cold. On the third day he obtained an interview with his friend, who unhappily durst not venture to afford him shelter under his roof, so that he was once more compelled to wander in the fields. Worn out at length by hunger and fatigue, and life being no longer supportable without sustenance, he applied at a public house for an omelette, which he devoured with greediness. His cadaverous appearance and uncommonly keen appetite, roused the suspicion of a municipal officer who happened to be present, and by whom he was interrogated. The ambiguity and hesitation which characterized his answers, made the officer conclude that it would be proper to apprehend him. He was accordingly consigned to a dungeon, to be next day conducted to Paris, but his melancholy fate rendered such a measure unnecessary. He was found dead in the morning; and as it was generally understood that he constantly carried with him a dose of poison, to this cause his melancholy exit was very properly ascribed. Thus terminated the career of Condorcet on the 28th of March, 1794, who for many years sustained a brilliant and honourable reputation in the republic of letters. His manners were replete with urbanity, and as well qualified to please in company as could be expected in a man who was conceived as destitute of a heart. He was certainly blessed with domestic felicity, and had one daughter by his wife. Soon after his death appeared his "Sketch of a Historical Draught of the Progress of the Human Mind," a methodical performance, and evincing the profoundest research, in which he strongly recommends his favourite idea of gradually bringing human nature to a state of perfection, by considering what man has been, now is, and may be. This treatise will no doubt be viewed by some as rather fanciful; but it is clearly the effort of a very superior genius, and must be peculiarly interesting to the feeling man, when it is known that it was composed while its author was in circumstances of danger and distress. The idea of man's progressive advancement towards perfection and happiness, inspired him with consolation under his complicated misfortunes. Besides the works which we have enumerated in this sketch of his life, he published "Letters to the King of Prussia," with whom he kept up a correspondence, as well as with Catherine empress of Russia. A treatise on calculation, and an elementary treatise on arithmetic, were left behind him in manuscript. Although he was an enemy to revealed religion, he was certainly a man of virtue and integrity; yet all his philosophy could never inspire him with that heroic fortitude and contempt of death in a just cause, for which the sincere votaries of Christianity have ever been conspicuous.

CONDORMIENTES, in church history, religious sectaries, who take their name from lying all together, men and women, young and old. They arose in the 13th century, near Cologne, where they are said to have worshipped an image of Lucifer, and to have received answers and oracles from him.

CONDRIEU, a town of Lyonnois in France, remarkable for its excellent wines. It is seated at the foot of a hill near the river Rhone. E. Long. 4. 33. N. Lat. 45. 28.

CONDRUSII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Belgica, originally Germans, dwelling about the Maese. Their country is now called *Condrotz*, in the bishopric of Liege, between Luxemburgh and the Maese.

CONDUCTOR, in *Surgery*, an instrument which serves to conduct the knife in the operation of cutting for the stone, and in laying up sinuses and fistulas.

CONDUCTORS, in electrical experiments, are those bodies that receive and communicate electricity; and those that repel it are called *non-conductors*. See ELECTRICITY.

CONDUIT, a canal or pipe for the conveyance of water, or other fluid.

There are several subterraneous conduits through which the waters pass that form springs. Artificial conduits for water are made of lead, stone, cast-iron, potter's earth, timber, &c.

CONDYLOID and CORONOID processes. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CONDYLONA, in *Medicine*, a tubercle, or callous eminence, which arises in the folds of the anus; or rather a swelling or hardening of the wrinkles of that part.

CONDYLUS, a name given by anatomists to a knot in any of the joints, formed by the epiphysis of a bone.

CONE, in *Geometry*, a solid figure, having a circle for its base, and its top terminated in a point or vertex. See CONIC SECTIONS.

Melting CONE, in *Chemistry*, is a hollow cone formed of copper or brass, with a handle, and with a flat bottom adjoining to the apex of the cone, upon which it is intended to rest. Its use is to receive a mass of one or more metals melted together, and cast into it. This mass, when cold, may be easily shaken out of the vessel, from its figure. Also, if a melted mass consisting of two or more metals, or other substances not combined together, be poured into this vessel, the conical figure facilitates the separation of these substances according to their respective densities. The cone ought to be well heated before the melted mass is thrown into it; that it may not contain any moisture, which would occasion a dangerous explosion. It ought also to be greased internally with tallow, to prevent the adhesion of the fluid matter.

CONE of Rays, in *Optics*, includes all the several rays which fall from any radiant point upon the surface of a glass.

CONE. See CONUS, BOTANY *Index*.

CONE-Shell. See CONUS, CONCHOLOGY *Index*.

CONESSI,

Conessi || Confession.

CONESSI, a sort of bark of a tree, which grows on the Coromandel coast in the East Indies. It is recommended in a letter to Dr Monro, in the Medical Essays, as a specific in diarrhœas. It is to be finely pulverized, and made into an electuary with syrup of oranges. The bark should be fresh, and the electuary new made every day, or second day, otherwise it loses its austere and grateful bitterness on the palate, and its proper effects on the intestines.

CONFARREATION, a ceremony among the ancient Romans, used in the marriage of persons whose children were destined for the honour of the priesthood.

Confarreation was the most sacred of the three modes of contracting marriage among that people; and consisted, according to Servius, in this, that the *pontifex maximus* and *flamen dialis* joined and contracted the man and woman, by making them eat of the same cake of salted bread; whence the term *far*, signifying *meal* or *flour*.

Ulpian says, it consisted in the offering up of some pure wheaten bread; rehearsing withal a certain formula, in presence of ten witnesses. Dionysius Halicarnasseus adds, that the husband and wife did eat of the same wheaten bread, and threw part on the victims.

CONFECTION, in *Pharmacy*, signifies, in general, any thing prepared with sugar; in particular it imports something preserved, especially dry substances. It also signifies a liquid or soft electuary, of which there are various sorts directed in dispensatories. See PHARMACY.

CONFECTOR, among the ancient Romans, a sort of gladiator, hired to fight in the amphitheatre against beasts; thence also denominated *bestiarius*.

The *confectores* were thus called *à conficiendis bestiis*, from their despatching and killing beasts.

The Greeks called them παραβολοι, q. d. *daring*, *rash*, *desperate*; whence the Latins borrowed the appellations *parabolani* and *parabolarii*. The Christians were sometimes condemned to this sort of combat.

CONFECTS, a denomination given to fruits, flowers, herbs, roots, &c. when boiled or prepared with sugar or honey, to dispose them to keep, and render them more agreeable to the taste.

CONFEDERACY, in *Law*, is when two or more persons combine to do any damage to another, or to commit any unlawful act. Confederacy is punishable, though nothing be put in execution: but then it must have these four incidents; 1. That it be declared by some matter of prosecution, as by making of bonds or promises to one another; 2. That it be malicious, as for unjust revenge; 3. That it be false, i. e. against the innocent; and, lastly, That it be out of court voluntary.

CONFERVA. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONFESSION, in a civil sense, a declaration or acknowledgment of some truth, though against the interest of the party who makes it; whether it be in a court of justice or out of it. It is a maxim, that in civil matters, the confession is never to be divided, but always taken entire. A criminal is never condemned on his simple confession, without other collateral proofs; nor is a voluntary extrajudicial confession admitted as any proof. A person is not admitted to accuse himself, according to that rule in law, *Non auditur perire volens*. See ARRAIGNMENT.

Confession || Confirmation.

CONFESSION, among divines, the verbal acknowledgment which a Christian makes of his sins.

Among the Jews it was the custom, on the annual feast of expiation, for the high priest to make confession of sins to God in the name of the whole people: besides this general confession, the Jews were enjoined, if their sins were a breach of the first table of the law, to make confession of them to God; but violations of the second table were to be acknowledged to their brethren. The confessions of the primitive Christians were all voluntary, and not imposed on them by any laws of the church; yet private confession was not only allowed, but encouraged.

The Romish church requires confession not only as a duty, but has advanced it to the dignity of a sacrament: this confession is made to the priest, and is private and auricular; and the priest is not to reveal them under pain of the highest punishment.

CONFESSION of Faith, a list of the several articles of belief in any church.

CONFESSIONAL, or CONFESSIONARY, a place in churches under the great altar, where the bodies of deceased saints, martyrs, and confessors, were deposited.

This word is also used by the Romanists for a desk in the church where the confessor takes the confessions of the penitents.

CONFESSOR, a Christian who has made a solemn and resolute profession of the faith, and has endured torments in its defence. A mere saint is called a confessor, to distinguish him from the roll of dignified saints; such as apostles, martyrs, &c. In ecclesiastical history, we frequently find the word confessors used for martyrs: in after-times it was confined to those who, after having been tormented by the tyrants, were permitted to live and die in peace. And at last it was also used for those who, after having lived a good life, died under an opinion of sanctity. According to St Cyprian, he who presented himself to torture, or even to martyrdom, without being called to it, was not called a *confessor* but a *professor*: and if any out of a want of courage abandoned his country, and became a voluntary exile for the sake of the faith, he was called *exterris*.

CONFESSOR is also a priest in the Romish church, who has a power to hear sinners in the sacrament of penance, and to give them absolution. The church calls him in Latin *confessarius*, to distinguish him from confessor, which is a name consecrated to saints. The confessors of the kings of France, from the time of Henry IV. have been constantly Jesuits: before him the Dominicans and Cordeliers shared the office between them. The confessors of the house of Austria have also, ordinarily, been Dominicans and Cordeliers; but the later emperors have all taken Jesuits.

CONFIGURATION, the outward figure which bounds bodies, and gives them their external appearance; being that which, in a great measure, constitutes the specific difference between bodies.

CONFIRMATION, in a general sense, the act of ratifying or rendering a title, claim, report, or the like, more sure and indisputable.

CONFIRMATION, in *Law*, a conveyance of an estate,

or

or right in *esse*, from one man to another, whereby a voidable estate is made sure and unavoidable, or a particular estate is increased, or a possession made perfect.

CONFIRMATION, in *Theology*, the ceremony of laying on of hands, for the conveyance of the Holy Ghost.

The antiquity of this ceremony is, by all ancient writers, carried as high as the apostles, and founded upon their example and practice. In the primitive church, it used to be given the Christians immediately after baptism, if the bishop happened to be present at the solemnity. Among the Greeks, and throughout the East, it still accompanies baptism; but the Romanists make it a distinct independent sacrament. Seven years is the stated time for confirmation; however, they are sometimes confirmed before, and sometimes after, that age. The person to be confirmed has a godfather and godmother appointed him, as in baptism. The order of confirmation in the church of England does not determine the precise age of the persons to be confirmed.

CONFISCATION, in *Law*, the adjudication of goods or effects to the public treasury; as the bodies and effects of criminals, traitors, &c.

CONFLAGRATION, the general burning of a city or other considerable place.

This word is commonly applied to that grand period or catastrophe of our world, when the face of nature is to be changed by fire, as formerly it was by water. The ancient Pythagoreans, Platonists, Epicureans, and Stoics, appear to have had a notion of the conflagration; though whence they should derive it, unless from the sacred books, is difficult to conceive; except, perhaps, from the Phœnicians, who themselves had it from the Jews. Seneca says expressly, *Tempus advenerit quo sidera sideribus incurrent, et omni flagrante materia uno igne, quicquid nunc ex deposito lucet, ardebit.* This general dissolution the Stoics call εκπυρωσις, *ecpyrosis*. Mention of the conflagration is also made in the books of the Sibyls, Sophocles, Hystaspes, Ovid, Lucan, &c. Dr Burnet, after F. Tachard and others, relates that the Siamese believe that the earth will at last be parched up with heat; the mountains melted down; the earth's whole surface reduced to a level, and then consumed with fire. And the Bramins of Siam do not only hold that the world shall be destroyed by fire, but also that a new earth shall be made out of the cinders of the old.

Various are the sentiments of authors on the subject of the conflagration; the cause whence it is to arise, and the effects it is to produce. Divines ordinarily account for it metaphysically; and will have it take its rise from a miracle, as a fire from heaven. Philosophers contend for its being produced from natural causes; and will have it effected according to the laws of mechanics. Some think an eruption of the central fire sufficient for the purpose, and add, that this may be occasioned several ways, viz. either by having its intensity increased; which again may be effected either by being driven into less space by the encroachments of the superficial cold, or by an increase of the inflammability of the fuel whereon it is fed; or by having the resistance of the imprisoning earth weakened, which may happen either from the diminution of its matter, by the consumption of its central parts, or by weakening the cohesion of the constituent part of the mass by the excess or the defect of moisture. Others look for the cause of the conflagration in the atmosphere, and suppose, that some of the meteors there engendered in unusual quantities, and exploded with unusual vehemence, from the concurrence of various circumstances, may effect it, without seeking any further. The astrologers account for it from a conjunction of all the planets in the sign Cancer; as the deluge, say they, was occasioned by their conjunction in Capricorn. Lastly, others have recourse to a still more effectual and flaming machine, and conclude the world is to undergo its conflagration from the near approach of a comet in its return from the sun.

CONFLUENT, among physicians, &c. an appellation given to that kind of SMALL-POX wherein the pustules run into each other.

CONFLUENTES, in *Ancient Geography*, a place at the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, supposed to be one of the 50 forts erected by Drusus on the Rhine, in Gallia Belgica: Now *Coblentz*, a town of Triers. E. Long. 7. 15. N. Lat. 50. 30.

CONFORMATION, the particular consistence and texture of the parts of any body, and their disposition to compose a whole.

CONFORMATION, in *Medicine*, that make and construction of the human body which is peculiar to every individual. Hence a *mala conformatio* signifies some fault in the first rudiments; whereby a person comes into the world crooked, or with some of the viscera or cavities unduly framed or proportioned. Many are subject to incurable asthmas, from a too small capacity of the thorax, and the like vicious conformations.

CONFORMITY, in the schools, is the congruency or relation of agreement between one thing and another; as between the measure and the thing measured, the object and the understanding, the thing and the division thereof, &c.

CONFRONTATION, the act of bringing two persons in presence of each other, to discover the truth of some fact which they relate differently.

The word is chiefly used in criminal matters, where the witnesses are confronted with the accused, the accused with one another, or the witnesses with one another.

CONFUCIUS, or CONG-FU-TSE, the most eminent, and most justly venerated of all the philosophers of China, a descendant of the imperial family of the dynasty of Chang, was born in the kingdom of Lu, now called the province of Chang-tong, about 550 years before the commencement of the Christian era. This makes him to have been cotemporary with Pythagoras and Solon, and prior to the days of Socrates. He gave striking proofs of very uncommon talents at an early period of life, which were cultivated and improved with great assiduity under the tuition of the ablest masters. Scarcely had he attained to the years of maturity, when he evinced himself acquainted with all the literature of that period, possessing, in particular, a comprehensive knowledge of the canonical and classical books, ascribed to the legislators Yao and Chun, which the Chinese emphatically denominate *the five volumes*, as

Confucius.

as containing the effence of all their fcience and morality. Nature had beftowed upon him a moft amiable temper, and his moral deportment was altogether unexceptionable. He acquired a diftinguifhed reputation for humility, fincerity, the government of his appetites, a difinterefted heart, and a fovereign contempt of wealth. Thefe rare qualities pointed him out as a proper perfon to fill offices of importance and truft in the government of his country, which he did with honour to himfelf and advantage to the empire. Thefe public ftations afforded him excellent opportunities of eftimating with accuracy the true ftate of morals among his countrymen, which at this time were diffolute and vicious in the extreme. He conceived the godlike idea of attempting a general reformation both in morals and in politics, and his efforts for fome time were attended with fuch remarkable effects, that he infpired his countrymen with a juft veneration for his excellent character, and gratitude for his exertions, being raifed to a ftation of the laft importance in the kingdom of Lu. Here his counfels and advice were productive of the moft beneficial confequences, in eftablifhing good order, the due exercife of juftice, concord, and decorum through the whole kingdom. As it thus very naturally became an object of admiration, fo, likewife, neighbouring princes beheld with envy its growing happinefs and profperity; to deftroy which they contrived a fatal and effectual expedient. The king of Tfi being apprehenfive, that if the king of Lu continued to be directed by the wifdom and found policy of Confucius, he would foon become by far too powerful, fent him and his nobility a prefent of the moft beautiful young women, trained up from their infancy in all the arts of feduction, who were but too fucceefful in plunging the whole court into voluptuoufnefs and diffipation. This demolifhed in a fhort time, the whole of that beautiful fabric which had been erected by Confucius. Finding it a hopelefs attempt to ftem the univerfal torrent of corruption and depravity, he refolved to exert his talents in fome diftant kingdom, in the philanthropic caufe of moral reformation, in hopes of better fuccefs. But he had the mortification to difcover, that vice was everywhere triumphant, while virtue, that darling of his foul, was compelled to hide her head. This induced him to adopt the more humble, although not the lefs intereftting employment of a teacher of youth, in which he made great and rapid progrefs. About 600 of his fcholars were fent into different parts of the empire, to carry on his favourite work of moral reformation. Among his difciples, 72 were remarkably diftinguifhed above the reft for their mental acquifitions, and 10 others were deemed fuperior, even to thefe, as having a thorough comprehenfion of their mafter's whole fyftem. Thefe were divided by him into four claffes: the firft being deftined to the ftudy of the moral virtues; the fecond to the arts of logic and public fpeaking; the third clafs ftudied jurifprudence and the duties of the civil magiftrate; and public fpeaking, or the delivery of popular difcourfes on moral topics. Indefatigable, however, as his labours were, the tafk was too mighty to be accomplifhed by human exertions. During his laft illnefs, he declared to his pupils, that the grief of his mind occafioned by the profligacy of human nature was become infupportable; and with a melancholy voice, he exclaimed "Immenfe mountain, how art thou fallen! The grand machine is demolifhed, and the wife and the virtuous are no more. The kings will not follow my maxims: I am no longer ufeful on earth; it is, therefore, time that I fhould quit it." On uttering thefe words he was feized with a lethargy, which brought him to the grave. He finifhed his honourable career in the 72d year of his age, in his native kingdom, to which he had returned in company with his difciples. It is frequently the fate of illuftrious characters, never to be properly valued till they are cut off by death; which was the cafe with Confucius. The whole empire of China bewailed the lofs of him, and erected innumerable edifices to perpetuate his memory, adorned with fuch honourable infcriptions as the following: "To the great mafter;" "To the chief doctor;" "To the faint;" "To the wife king of literature;" "To the inftructor of emperors and kings." All his defcendants, even to the prefent day, enjoy the honourable title and office of mandarins, and are exempted from the payment of taxes to the emperor, as well as the princes of the blood. The man who applies for the title of doctor, muft previoufly have made a prefent to a mandarin defcended in a direct line from Confucius. The writings of this great man are efteemed by the Chinefe as of the higheft authority, next to the five volumes, to which he modeftly acknowledges himfelf to have been much indebted. His works are, 1. The *Tay-hio;* "The Grand Science, or School of Adults," chiefly intended for the information of princes and magiftrates, recommending the duties of felf government, and uniform obedience to the laws of right reafon. 2. The *Chong-yong*, or "Immutable Medium," in which he fhews its importance in the government of the paffions by a variety of examples, and points out the method of arriving at perfection in virtue. 3. *Lung-yu*, or moral and fententious difcourfes, which exhibit a lively picture of the opinions, conduct, and maxims of Confucius and his followers. 4. *Meng-tfe*, the book of Mencius, which derived its name from one of that great philofopher's difciples. Thefe are all defervedly efteemed by the Chinefe, being held next in importance to the five volumes. 5. The *Hyau-king*, or differtation on the duty and refpect which children owe their parents; and, 6. The *Syan-hyo*, or fcience for children, being a judicious collection of moral fentences from ancient and modern writers.

If a fair and impartial eftimate of the religion of Confucius be made, it cannot be viewed in any other light than as uncorrupted deifm, although he has fometimes been accufed of befriending and fecretly propagating atheiftical fentiments; but fuch an accufation is as cruel as it is unjuft, fince the purity of his moral precepts, and the acknowledged rectitude of his whole deportment, are utterly incompatible with fuch a fuppofition. He confidered the Tyen or Deity as the pureft and moft perfect effence, principle and fource of all things in the boundlefs univerfe; who is abfolutely independent, omnipotent, the governor and guardian of every thing; poffeffed of infinite wifdom which nothing can deceive; holy, without partiality, of unlimited goodnefs and juftice. We are at a lofs to form any adequate opinion of his fentiments relative to the foul of man and the doctrine of futurity, having no well authenticated data, on which to proceed. His morality is in many inftances fuperior to that of Greece and Rome, and

Confucius, Confusion.

and yields to none upon earth, except to that of divine revelation. The religion of Confucius, notwithstanding the estimation in which he is held, is adopted as a model by none of his countrymen, the literati excepted. Their prevailing system is a medley of pagan idolatry and the fabulous superstition of the Indians, introduced into China by Fo, in the first century of the Christian era.

CONFUSION, in a general sense, is opposed to *order*, in a perturbation whereof confusion consists: *e. gr.* when things prior in nature do not precede, or posterior do not follow, &c.

In a logical sense, confusion is opposed to distinctness or perspicuity: and may happen either in words, as when miscontrived or misapplied; or in ideas, as when the idea of any thing presents something along with it, which does not properly belong to that thing. See IDEA and NOTION.

In a physical sense, confusion is a sort of union or mixture by mere contiguity. Such is that between fluids of contrary nature, as oil and vinegar, &c.

CONFUSION, in *Scots Law*, is a method of suspending and extinguishing obligations. For the illustration of this, see LAW *Index*.

CONFUSION of Tongues, in the history of mankind, is a memorable event, which happened in the one hundred and first year according to the Hebrew chronology, and the four hundred and first year by the Samaritan, after the flood, at the overthrow of Babel; and which was providentially brought about in order to facilitate the dispersion of mankind and the population of the earth. Until this period there had been one common language, which formed a bond of union that prevented the separation of mankind into distinct nations; and some have supposed, that the tower of Babel was erected as a kind of fortress, by which the people intended to defend themselves against that separation which Noah had projected.

There has been a considerable difference of opinion as to the nature of this confusion, and the manner in which it was effected. Some learned men, prepossessed with the notion that all the different idioms now in the world did at first arise from one original language to which they may be reduced, and that the variety among them is no more than must naturally have happened in a long course of time by the mere separation of the builders of Babel, have maintained, that there were no new languages formed at the confusion; but, that this event was accomplished by creating a misunderstanding and variance among the builders, without any immediate influence on their languages. But this opinion, advanced by Le Clerc, &c. seems to be directly contrary to the obvious meaning of the word שפה, *shapha*, "lip," used by the sacred historian.—Others have imagined, that this was brought about by a temporary confusion of their speech, or rather of their apprehensions, causing them, whilst they continued together and spoke the same language, to understand the words differently. Scaliger is of this opinion. Others, again, account for this event by the privation of all language, and by supposing that mankind were under a necessity of associating together, and of imposing new names on things by common consent. Another opinion ascribes the confusion to such an indistinct remembrance of the original language which they spoke before, as made them speak it very differently; so that by the various inflexions, terminations, and pronunciations of divers dialects, they could no more understand one another, than they who understand Latin can understand those who speak French, Italian, or Spanish, though all these languages arise out of it. This opinion is adopted by Casaubon, and by Bishop Patrick in his Commentary *in loc.* and is certainly much more probable than either of the former. And Mr Shuckford maintains, that the confusion arose from small beginnings, by the invention of new words in either of the three families of Shem, Ham, and Japhet, which might contribute to separate them from one another: and that in each family new differences of speech might gradually arise, so that each of these families went on to divide and subdivide among themselves. Others, again, as Mr Jos. Mede and Dr Wotton, &c. not satisfied with either of the foregoing methods of accounting for the diversity of languages among mankind, have recourse to an extraordinary interposition of divine power, by which new languages were framed and communicated to different families by a supernatural infusion or inspiration; which languages have been the roots and originals from which the several dialects that are, or have been, or will be spoken, as long as this earth shall last, have arisen, and to which they may with ease be reduced. As to the number of languages thus introduced, many opinions have been adopted. If there were no more than there were nations or heads of nations, then the number would be seven for Japhet, four for Ham, and five for Shem; but if there were as many as there were families, which is the more probable opinion, their number cannot be certainly assigned. However, the Hebrews fancy they were 70, because the descendants from the sons of Noah, enumerated Genesis x. were just so many. Allowing, then, the languages of the chief families to have been fundamentally different from each other, the sub-languages and dialects within each branch would probably have had a mutual affinity, greater or less as they settled nearer or farther from each other. But whichsoever of these hypotheses is adopted, the primary object of the confusion at Babel was the separation and dispersion of mankind.

Dr Bryant, in the third volume of his Analysis of Ancient Mythology, has advanced a singular hypothesis, both with respect to the confusion of tongues and the dispersion. He supposes that the confusion of language was local and partial, and limited to Babel only. By בלתאדע, Gen. xi. 1. and 8. which our translators render *the whole earth*, he understands *every region;* and by the same words in ver. 9. *the whole region* or province. This confusion was occasioned, as he supposes, by a labial failure; so that the people could not articulate. Thus their speech was confounded, but not altered; for as soon as they separated, they recovered their true tenor of pronunciation, and the language of the earth continued for some ages nearly the same. The interviews between the Hebrews and other nations recorded in Scripture, were conducted without an interpreter; and he farther observes, that the various languages which subsist at this day retain sufficient relation to show, that they were once dialects from the same matrix, and that their variety was the effect of time. See DISPERSION.

Confutation || Congelation.

CONFUTATION, in *Rhetoric*, &c. a part of an oration, wherein the orator seconds his own arguments and strengthens his cause, by refelling and destroying the opposite arguments of the antagonist. This is done by denying what is apparently false, by detecting some flaw in the reasoning of the adverse party, by granting their argument, and showing its invalidity, or retorting it upon the adversary.

CONGE, in the French law, a licence or permission, granted by a superior to an inferior, which gives him a dispensation from some duty to which he was before obliged. A woman cannot obligate herself without the *congé* or license of her husband; a monk cannot go out of his convent, without the *congé* of his superiors.

CONGE' d'elire, in ecclesiastical policy, the king's permission royal to a dean and chapter in the time of a vacancy, to choose a bishop; or to an abbey, or priory, of his own foundation, to choose their abbot or prior.

The king of England, as sovereign patron of all archbishoprics, bishoprics, and other ecclesiastical benefices, had of ancient time free appointment of all ecclesiastical dignities, whensoever they chanced to be void; investing them first *per baculum et annulum*, and afterwards by his letters patent; and in course of time he made the election over to others, under certain forms and limitations, as that they should at every vacation, before they choose, demand the king's congé d'elire, and after the election crave his royal assent, &c.

CONGE', in *Architecture*, a mould in form of a quarter round, or a cavetto, which serves to separate two members from one another; such as that which joins the shaft of the column to the cincture, called also *apophyge*.

CONGES are also rings or ferrels formerly used in the extremities of wooden pillars, to keep them from splitting, afterwards imitated in stone-work.

CONGELATION, signifies the passing of any body from a fluid to a solid state: so that the term is thus applicable to metals when they resume their solid form after being heated, to water when it freezes, to wax, spermaceti, &c. when they become solid after having been rendered fluid by heat; and in general to all processes, where the whole substance of the fluid is converted into a solid: but it differs from crystallization; because in the latter process, though the salt passes from a fluid to a solid state, a considerable quantity of liquid is always left, so that the term *congelation* is never applied in this case.

The process of congelation in all cases depends upon, or at least is accompanied with, the emission of heat, as has been evinced by experiments made not only on water, but on spermaceti, wax, &c.: for in all of these, though the thermometer immersed in them while fluid continued to descend gradually till a certain period, yet it was as constantly observed to remain stationary, or even to ascend while the congelation went on. See CHEMISTRY.

1 Is always attended with an emission of heat.

It is not known whether all kinds of fluids are naturally capable of congelation or not; though we are certain that there are very great differences among them in this respect. The most difficult of all those of which the congelation has been actually ascertained is quicksilver. This was long thought capable of resisting any degree of cold whatever; and it is only within a few years that its congelation by artificial means was known, and still more lately that some climates were found to be so severe as to congeal this fluid by the cold of the atmosphere.

2 Congelation of quicksilver.

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The congelation of quicksilver was first ascertained by M. Joseph Adam Braun, professor of philosophy at Petersburg. He had been employed in making thermometrical experiments, not with a view to make the discovery he actually did, but to see how many degrees of cold he could produce. An excellent opportunity for this occurred on the 14th of December 1759, when the mercury stood naturally at —34, which is now known to be only five or six degrees above its point of congelation. M. Braun, having determined to avail himself of this great degree of natural cold, prepared a freezing mixture of nitric acid and pounded ice, by means of which his thermometer was reduced to — 69. Part of the quicksilver had now really congealed; yet so far was M. Braun from entertaining any suspicion of the truth, that he had almost desisted from farther attempts, being satisfied with having so far exceeded all the philosophers who went before him. Animated, however, by the hopes of producing a still greater degree of cold, he renewed the experiment; but having expended all his pounded ice, he was obliged to substitute snow in its place. With this fresh mixture the mercury sunk to —100, 240, and 352°. He then supposed that the thermometer was broken; but on taking it out to observe whether it was so or not, he found the quicksilver fixed, and continuing so for 12 minutes. On repeating the same experiment with another thermometer which had been graduated no lower than —120, all the mercury sunk into the ball, and became solid as before, not beginning to reascend till after a still longer interval of time. Hence the professor concluded that the quicksilver was really frozen, and prepared for making a decisive experiment. This was accomplished on the 25th of the same month, and the bulb of the thermometer broken as soon as the metal was congealed. The mercury was now converted into a solid and shining metallic mass, which extended under the strokes of a pestle, in hardness rather inferior to lead, and yielding a dull sound like that metal. Professor Æpinus made similar experiments at the same time, employing both thermometers and tubes of a larger bore: in which last he remarked, that the quicksilver fell sensibly on being frozen, assuming a concave surface, and likewise that the congealed pieces sunk in fluid mercury.

3 Experiments of M. Braun.

The fact being thus established, and fluidity no longer to be considered as an essential property of quicksilver, M. Braun communicated an account of his experiments to the Petersburgh Academy, on the 6th of September 1760; of which a large extract was inserted in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. lii. p. 156. Five years afterwards he published another treatise on the same subject, under the title of Supplement to his former dissertation. In this he declared, that, since his former publication, he had never suffered any winter to elapse without repeating the experiment of congealing quicksilver, and never failed of success when the natural cold was of a sufficient strength for the purpose. This degree of natural cold he supposes to be —10 of Fahrenheit, though some

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commencement of the congelation might be perceived when the temperature of the air was as high as + 2. The results of all his experiments were, that with the above-mentioned frigorific mixtures, and once with rectified spirits and snow, when the natural cold was at 28°, he congealed the quicksilver, and discovered that it is a real metal which melts with a very small degree of heat. Not perceiving, however, the necessary consequence of its great contraction in freezing, he, in this work, as well as in the former, confounded its point of congelation with that of its greatest contraction in freezing, and thus marked the former a great deal too low; though the point of congelation was very uncertain according to him, various difficulties having occurred to his attempts of finding the greatest point of contraction while freezing.

4 Of Mr Blumenbach.

The experiments of M. Braun were not repeated by any person till the year 1774, when Mr John Frederic Blumenbach, then a student of physic at Gottingen, performed them to more advantage than it appears M. Braun had ever done. He was encouraged to make the attempt by the excessive cold of the winter that year. "I put (says he), at five in the evening of January 11th, three drachms of quicksilver into a small sugar-glass, and covered it with a mixture of snow and Egyptian sal-ammoniac. This mixture was put loose into the glass, so that the quicksilver lay perfectly free, being only covered with it as by pieces of ice; the whole, together with the glass, weighed somewhat above an ounce. It was hung out at a window in such a position as to expose it freely to the north-west; and two drachms more of sal-ammoniac mixed with the snow on which it stood. The snow and sal-ammoniac, in the open air, soon froze into a mass like ice; no sensible change, however, appeared in the quicksilver that evening; but at one in the morning it was found frozen solid. It had divided into two large and four smaller pieces; one of the former was hemispherical, the other cylindrical, each seemingly rather above a drachm in weight; the four small bits might amount to half a scruple. They were all with their flat side frozen hard to the glass, and nowhere immediately touched by the mixture; their colour was a dull pale white with a bluish cast, like zinc, very different from the natural appearance of quicksilver. Next morning, about eleven o'clock, I found that the larger hemisphere began to melt, perhaps because it was most exposed to the air, and not so near as the others to the sal-ammoniac mixture which lay beneath. In this state it resembled an amalgam, sinking on that side to which the glass was inclined: but without quitting the surface of the glass, to which it was yet firmly congealed; the five other pieces had not yet undergone any alteration, but remained frozen hard. Toward eight o'clock the cylindrical piece began to soften in the same manner, and the other four soon followed. About eight they fell from the surface of the glass, and divided into many fluid shining globules, which were soon lost in the interstices of the frozen mixture, and reunited in part at the bottom, being now exactly like common quicksilver." At the time this experiment was made, the thermometer stood at —10° in the open air.

The circumstances attending this experiment are still unaccountable; for, in the first place, the natural cold was scarcely sufficient, along with that of the artificial mixture, which produces 32° more, to have congealed the quicksilver; which yet appears to have been very effectually done, by the length of time it continued solid. 2. It is not easy to account for the length of time required for congealing the quicksilver in this experiment, since other frigorific mixtures begin to act almost immediately; and, 3. There was not at last even the appearance of action, which consists in a solution of the snow, and not in its freezing into a mass. "The whole experiment (says Dr Blagden*) remains involved in such obscurity, that some persons have supposed the quicksilver itself was not frozen, but only covered over with ice; to which opinion, however, there are great objections. It is worthy of remark, that Gottingen, though situated in the same latitude as London, and enjoying a temperate climate in general, becomes subject at times to a great severity of cold. This of 11th of January 1774 is one instance: I find others there where the thermometer sunk to —12°, —16°, or —19°; and at Cattlenburg, a small town about two German miles distant, to —30°. By watching such extraordinary occasions, experiments on the freezing of quicksilver might easily be performed in many places, where the possibility of them is at present little suspected. The cold observed at Glasgow in 1780 would have been fully sufficient for that purpose."

* Phil. Trans. vol. iii.

In consequence of the publication of M. Braun's Experiments, the Royal Society desired their late secretary Dr Maty to make the necessary application to the Hudson's Bay Company, in order to repeat the experiment in that country. Mr Hutchins, who was then at London, and going out with a commission as governor of Albany fort, offered to undertake the experiments, and executed them very completely, freezing quicksilver twice in the months of January and February 1775. The account of his success was read before the Royal Society at the commencement of the severest winter that had been known for many years in Europe; and at this time the experiment was repeated by two gentlemen of different countries. One was Dr Lambert Bicker, secretary to the Batavian society at Rotterdam; who, on the 28th of January 1776, at eight in the morning, made an experiment to try how low he could bring the thermometer by artificial cold, the temperature of the atmosphere being then + 2°. He could not, however, bring it lower than —94°, at which point it stood immoveable; and on breaking the thermometer, part of the quicksilver was found to have lost its fluidity, and was thickened to the consistence of an amalgam. It fell out of the tube in little bits, which bore to be flattened by pressure, without running into globules like the inner fluid part. The experiment was repeated next day, when the thermometer stood at +8°, but the mercury would not then descend below —80°; and as the thermometer was not broken, it could not be known whether the mercury had congealed or not. All that could be inferred from these experiments therefore was, that the congealing point of mercury was not below —94° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The other who attempted the congelation of this fluid was the late Dr Anthony Fothergill; but it could not be determined whether

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whether he ſucceeded or not. An account of his experiments is inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. lxvi.

No other attempts were made to congeal quickſilver until the year 1781, when Mr Hutchins reſumed the ſubject with great ſucceſs, inſomuch that from his experiments the freezing point of mercury is now almoſt as well ſettled as that of water. Preceding philoſophers, indeed, had not been altogether inattentive to this ſubject. Profeſſor Braun himſelf had taken great pains to inveſtigate it; but for want of paying the requiſite attention to the difference betwixt the contraction of the fluid mercury by cold, and that of the congealing metal by freezing, he could determine nothing certain concerning it. Others declared it as their opinion, that nothing certain could be determined by merely freezing mercury in a thermometer filled with that fluid. Mr Cavendiſh and Dr Black firſt ſuggeſted the proper method of obviating the difficulties on this ſubject. Dr Black, in a letter to Mr Hutchins, dated October 5, 1779, gave the following directions for making the experiment with accuracy: "Provide a few wide and ſhort tubes of thin glaſs, ſealed at one end and open at the other: the wideneſs of theſe tubes may be from half to three quarters of an inch, and the length of them about three inches. Put an inch or an inch and a half depth of mercury into one of theſe tubes, and plunging the bulb of the thermometer into the mercury, ſet the tube with the mercury and the thermometer in it into a freezing mixture, which ſhould be made for this purpoſe in a common tumbler or water glaſs: and, N. B. in making a freezing mixture with ſnow and nitric acid, the quantity of the acid ſhould never be ſo great as to diſſolve the whole of the ſnow, and only enough to reduce it to the conſiſtence of panada. When the mercury in the wide tube is thus ſet in the freezing mixture, it muſt be ſtirred gently and frequently with the bulb of the thermometer; and if the cold be ſufficiently ſtrong, it will congeal by becoming thick like an amalgam. As ſoon as this is obſerved, the thermometer ſhould be examined without lifting it out of the congealing mercury; and I have no doubt that in every experiment thus made, with the ſame mercury, the inſtrument will always point to the ſame degree, provided it has been made and graduated with accuracy.

5 Dr Black's directions for making the experiment.

6 Apparatus recommended by Mr Cavendiſh.

The apparatus recommended by Mr Cavendiſh, and which Mr Hutchins made uſe of, conſiſted of a ſmall mercurial thermometer, the bulb of which reaches about 2½ inches below the ſcale, and was incloſed in a glaſs cylinder ſwelled at the bottom into a ball, which when uſed was filled with quickſilver, ſo that the bulk of the thermometer was entirely covered with it. If this cylinder be immerſed in a freezing mixture till great part of the quickſilver in it is frozen, it is evident that the degree ſhown at that time by the incloſed thermometer is the preciſe point at which mercury freezes; for as in this caſe the ball of the thermometer muſt be ſurrounded for ſome time with quickſilver, part of which is actually frozen, it ſeems impoſſible that the thermometer ſhould be ſenſibly above that point; and while any of the quickſilver in the cylinder remains fluid, it is impoſſible that it ſhould ſink ſenſibly below it. The diameter of the bulb of the thermometer was rather leſs than a quarter of an inch, that of the ſwelled part of the cylinder two-thirds; and as it was eaſy to keep the thermometer conſtantly in the middle of the cylinder, the thickneſs of quickſilver betwixt it and the glaſs could never be much leſs than the ſixth part of an inch. The bulb of the thermometer was purpoſely made as ſmall as it conveniently could, in order to leave a ſufficient ſpace between it and the cylinder, without making the ſwelled part larger than neceſſary, which would have cauſed more difficulty in freezing the mercury in it.

The firſt experiment with this apparatus was made on the 15th of December 1781; the thermometer had ſtood the evening before at —18°. A bottle of ſpiritus nitri fortis was put on the houſe-top, in order to cool it to the ſame temperature. The thermometers made uſe of had been hung up in the open air for three weeks to compare their ſcales. On the morning of the experiment they were about 23° below 0.——In making it, the thermometer of the apparatus was ſuſpended in the bulb of the cylinder by means of ſome red worſted wound about the upper part of its ſtem, to a ſufficient thickneſs to fill the upper part of its orifice; and a ſpace of near half an inch was left empty between the quickſilver and worſted.

The apparatus was placed in the open air, on the top of the fort, with only a few deer ſkins ſewed together for a ſhelter; the ſnow lay 18 inches deep on the works, and the apparatus was ſtuck into the ſnow, in order to bring it the ſooner to the temperature of the air. The inſtruments were afterwards placed in three freſh freezing mixtures, in hopes of being able by their means to produce a greater degree of cold, but without effect; nor was any greater cold produced by adding more nitric acid. The mercury, however, was very completely frozen, that in the thermometer deſcending to 448°. On plunging the mercury into the freezing mixture, it deſcended in leſs than one minute to 40° below 0.

The ſecond experiment was made the day following; and the ſame quantity of quickſilver employed that had been uſed in the former. As too ſmall a quantity of the freezing mixture, however, had been originally made, it was neceſſary to add more during the operation of congelation; by which means the ſpirit of nitre, in pouring it upon the ſnow, ſometimes touched the bulb of the thermometer, and inſtantly raiſed it much higher; nor did the mercury ever deſcend below 206°, which was not half as far as it had done the day before, though the temperature of the atmoſphere had been this day at —34° before the commencement of the operation. That in the apparatus, however, ſunk to —95°. The apparatus was taken out of the mixture for half a minute, in order to examine whether the mercury was perfectly congealed or not, and during that time, it ſhowed no ſign of liquefaction.

The third experiment was made the ſame day, and with the freezing mixture uſed in the laſt. By it the point of congelation was determined to be not below 40°.

The fourth experiment was made January 7th 1782; and

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and in it he obſerved, that the mercury in the apparatus thermometer, after ſtanding at 42 and $41\frac{1}{2}$ for a conſiderable time, fell to 77, not gradually, but at once as a weight falls.

In the fifth experiment the weather was exceſſively ſevere, ſo that it ought to have frozen the metal in the open air; but this did not then happen.

At the time of making the ſixth experiment, the quickſilver in the open air ſtood at 44 below 0; and Mr Hutchins reſolved to make uſe of this opportunity to obſerve how far it was poſſible to make it deſcend by means of cold, obſerving the degrees at the ſame time with a ſpirit thermometer made by Nairne and Blount, with which he had been furniſhed by the Royal Society in 1774. In this, however, he did not ſucceed; for the mercury never fell below 438, nor the ſtandard 48. It ſtood at $27\frac{1}{2}$ at the beginning of the experiment. The reaſon of this was ſuppoſed to be, that the atmoſphere was too cold for making this kind of experiment, by reaſon of its freezing the thread of quickſilver in the ſtem of the thermometer, ſo that it became incapable of contraction along with that in the bulb. In other experiments, though the metal in the bulb became ſolid, yet that in the ſtem always remained fluid; and thus was enabled to ſubſide to a great degree by the diminution of bulk in the ſolid mercury. That this was really the caſe, appeared from the quickſilver falling at once from —86 to —434, when the cold of the freezing mixture diminiſhed, and the temperature of the air becoming about the ſame time ſomewhat milder, melted the congealed part in the ſtem, which thus had liberty to deſcend to that point.

In this experiment, alſo, the mixtures were made in double quantity to thoſe of the former; theſe being only in common tumblers, but the mixtures for this experiment in pint baſons. It was obſerved that they liquefied faſter than in other experiments. He had uſually made them of the conſiſtence of pap; but though he added ſnow at different times, it had very little effect in augmenting the cold, but rather decreaſed it. The congealed piece of the metal fell to the bottom, as might naturally have been expected from its great contraction in becoming ſolid.

From this experiment Mr Hutchins concluded, that the nearer the temperature of the atmoſphere approached to the congealing point of mercury (ſo that a great degree of cold might be communicated to the bulb of a thermometer, and yet the quickſilver in the tube remain fluid), he might make the experiment of aſcertaining the greateſt contraction of mercury to more advantage. With this view he made another experiment, when the temperature of ſome of his thermometers ſtood as low as —37°: and after an hour's attendance, he perceived the mercury had fallen to 1367; but the thermometer unluckily was broken, and its bulb thrown away with the mixture. Profeſſor Braun had likewiſe obſerved, that his thermometers were always broken when the mercury deſcended below 600.

The eighth experiment was made with a view to try whether quickſilver would congeal when in contact with the freezing mixture. For this purpoſe, he did not uſe the apparatus provided for other experiments, but filled a gallipot made of flint ſtone (as being thinner than the common ſort), containing about an ounce, half full of quickſilver, into which he inſerted a mercurial thermometer, employing another as an index. Thus he hoped to determine exactly when the quickſilver was congealed, as he had free acceſs to it at all times, which was not the caſe when it was incloſed in the cylindrical glaſs, the worſted wound round the tube of the thermometer to exclude the air being equally effectual in excluding any inſtrument from being introduced to touch the quickſilver. He then made a kind of ſkewer, with a flat blunt point, of dried cedar-wood, on account of its lightneſs, which he found would remain in the gelatinous freezing mixture at any depth he choſe; but, when inſerted into the quickſilver, the great difference betwixt the ſpecific gravity of it and that ponderous fluid, made it always rebound upward; and by the degree of reſiſtance, he could always know whether it proceeded from fluid or ſolid metal. At this time, however, the experiment did not ſucceed; but, at another trial, having employed about $\frac{1}{4}$ lb of a pound of metal, and let it remain a conſiderable time immerſed in the ſame mixture which had juſt now been ſuppoſed to fail, he found that part of it was congealed; and, on pouring off the fluid part, no leſs than two-thirds remained fixed at the bottom.

Mr Cavendiſh's experiments.

The laſt experiment which has been publiſhed concerning the congelation of quickſilver by means of ſnow, is that of Mr Cavendiſh, and of which he gives an account in the Phil. Tranſact. vol. lxxiii. p. 325. Here, ſpeaking of the cold of freezing mixtures, he ſays, "There is the utmoſt reaſon to think that Mr Hutchins would have obtained a greater degree of cold by uſing a weaker nitrous acid than he did. I found (ſays he) by adding ſnow gradually to ſome of this acid, that the addition of a ſmall quantity produced heat inſtead of cold; and it was not until ſo much was added as to increaſe the heat from 28 to 51°, that the addition of more ſnow began to produce cold; the quantity of ſnow required for this purpoſe being pretty exactly one quarter of the weight of the ſpirit of nitre; and the heat of the ſnow, and air of the room, as well as of the acid, being 28°. The reaſon of this is, that a great deal of heat is produced by mixing water with ſpirit of nitre; and the ſtronger the ſpirit is, the greater is the heat produced. Now it appears, from this experiment, that before the acid was diluted, the heat produced by its union with the water formed from the melting ſnow, was greater than the cold produced by the ſame; and it was not until it was diluted by the addition of one quarter of its weight of that ſubſtance, that the cold, generated by the latter cauſe, began to exceed the heat generated by the former. From what has been ſaid, it is evident, that a freezing mixture made with undiluted acid will not begin to generate cold until ſo much ſnow is diſſolved as to increaſe its heat from 28 to 51°; ſo that no greater cold will be produced than would be obtained by mixing the diluted acid heated to 51° with ſnow of the heat of 28°. This method of adding ſnow gradually is much the beſt way I know of finding what ſtrength it ought to be of, in order to produce the greateſt effect poſſible. By means of this acid

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acid diluted in the above-mentioned proportion, I froze quickſilver in the thermometer called G (A) by Mr Hutchins, on the 26th of February 1782. I did not indeed break the thermometer to examine the ſtate of the quickſilver therein; for, as it ſunk to —110°, it certainly muſt have been in part frozen; but immediately took it out, and put the ſpirit thermometer in its room, in order to find the cold of the mixture. It ſunk only to —30°; but by making allowance of the ſpirit in the tube being not ſo cold as that in the ball, it appears, that if it had not been for this cauſe, it would have ſunk to —35° (B); which is 6° below the point of freezing, and is within one degree of as great a cold as that produced by Mr Hutchins.

"In this experiment the thermometer G ſunk very rapidly; and as far as I could perceive, without ſtopping at any intermediate point till it came to the above-mentioned degree of —110°, where it ſtuck. The materials uſed in making the mixture were previouſly cooled, by means of ſalt and ſnow, to near 0; and the temperature of the air was between 20° and 25°; the quantity of acid uſed was 4½ oz.; and the glaſs in which the mixture was made, was ſurrounded with wool, and placed in a wooden box, to prevent its loſing its cold ſo faſt as it would otherwiſe have done. Some weeks before this I made a freezing mixture with ſome ſpirit of nitre much ſtronger than that uſed in the foregoing experiment, though not quite ſo ſtrong as the undiluted acid, in which the cold was leſs intenſe by 4½°. It is true the temper of the air was much leſs cold, namely 35°, but the ſpirit of nitre was at leaſt as cold, and the ſnow not much leſs ſo.

"The cold produced by mixing ſulphuric acid, properly diluted with ſnow, is not ſo great as that produced by ſpirit of nitre, though it does not differ from it by ſo much as 8°; for a freezing mixture, prepared with diluted ſulphuric acid, whoſe ſpecific gravity, at 60° of heat, was 1,5642, ſunk in the thermometer G to —37°, the experiment being tried at the ſame time, and with the ſame precautions as the foregoing. It was previouſly found, by adding ſnow gradually to ſome of this acid, as was done by the nitrous acid, that it was a little, but not much ſtronger, than it ought to be, in order to produce the greateſt effect."

The experiment made by Mr Walker, in which he congealed quickſilver by means of nitric acid and Glauber's ſalt, without any ſnow, concludes the hiſtory of the artificial congelation of mercury. It now remains that we ſay ſomething of the congelation of it by the natural cold of the atmoſphere.

8 Congelation of quickſilver by natural cold.

Dr Blagden, from whoſe paper in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. lxxiii. this account is taken, obſerves, that it was not till near the year 1730 that thermometers were made with any degree of accuracy; and in four or five years after this, the firſt obſervations were made which prove the freezing of quickſilver. On the acceſſion of the empreſs Anne Ivanouna to the throne of Ruſſia, three profeſſors of the Imperial academy were choſen to explore and deſcribe the different parts of her Aſiatic dominions, and to inquire into the communication betwixt Aſia and America. Theſe were Dr John George Gmelin, in the department of natural hiſtory and chemiſtry; M. Gerard Frederic Muller, as general hiſtoriographer; and M. Louis de l'Iſle de la Croyere, for the department of aſtronomy; draughtſmen and other proper aſſiſtants being appointed to attend them. They departed from Peterſburgh in 1733; and ſuch as ſurvived did not return till ten years after. The thermometrical obſervations were communicated by Profeſſor Gmelin, who firſt publiſhed them in his Flora Sibirica, and afterwards more fully in the Journal of his Travels. An abſtract of them was likewiſe inſerted in the Peterſburgh Commentaries for the years 1756 and 1765, taken, after the profeſſor's death, from his original diſpatches in poſſeſſion of the Imperial academy.

In the winter of 1734 and 1735, Mr Gmelin being at Yeneſeiſk in 58½° N. Lat. and 92° E. Long. from Greenwich, firſt obſerved ſuch a deſcent of the mercury, as we know muſt have been attended with congelation. "Here (ſays he) we firſt experienced the truth of what various travellers have related with reſpect to the extreme cold of Siberia; for, about the middle of December, ſuch ſevere weather ſet in, as we were ſure had never been known in our time at Peterſburgh. The air ſeemed as if it were frozen, with the appearance of a fog, which did not ſuffer the ſmoke to aſcend as it iſſued from the chimneys. Birds fell down out of the air as dead, and froze immediately, unleſs they were brought into a warm room. Whenever the door was opened, a fog ſuddenly formed round it. During the day, ſhort as it was, parhelia and haloes round the ſun were frequently ſeen; and in the night mock-moons, and haloes about the moon. Finally, our thermometer, not ſubject to the ſame deception as the ſenſes, left us no doubt of the exceſſive cold; for the quickſilver in it was reduced on the 15th of January O. S. to —120° of Fahrenheit's ſcale, lower than it had ever hitherto been obſerved in nature."

9 Exceſſive cold of Siberia.

The next inſtance of congelation happened at Yakutſk, in N. Lat. 62. and E. Long. 130. The weather here was unuſually mild for the climate, yet the thermometer fell to —72°; and one perſon informed the profeſſor by a note, that the mercury in his barometer was frozen. He haſtened immediately to his houſe to behold ſuch a ſurpriſing phenomenon; but though he was witneſs to the fact, the prejudice he entertained againſt the poſſibility of the congelation, would not allow him to believe it. "Not feeling (ſays he), by the way, the ſame effects of cold as I had experienced at other times in leſs diſtances, I began, before my arrival, to entertain ſuſpicions about the congelation of his quickſilver. In fact, I ſaw that it did not continue in one column, but was divided in different places as into little cylinders, which appeared frozen; and, in ſome of theſe diviſions between the quickſilver, I perceived like the appearance of frozen moiſture.

(A) This was a ſmall mercurial thermometer, made by Nairne and Blount, on an ivory ſcale, divided at every five degrees, and reaching from 215° above to 250° below the cipher.

(B) This is to be underſtood of a ſpirit thermometer, whoſe —29°=40° of Fahrenheit's mercurial.

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moiſture. It immediately occurred to me, that the mercury might have been cleaned with vinegar and ſalt, and not ſufficiently dried. The perſon acknowledged it had been purified in that manner. This ſame quickſilver, taken out of the barometer, and well dried, would not freeze again, though expoſed to a much greater degree of cold, as ſhown by the thermometer."

Another ſet of obſervations, in the courſe of which the mercury frequently congealed, were made by Profeſſor Gmelin at Kirenga fort in 57½ N. Lat. 108. E. Long.; his thermometer, at different times, ſtanding at —108°, —86°, —100°, —113°, and many other intermediate degrees. This happened in the winter of 1737 and 1738. On the 27th of November, after the thermometer had been ſtanding for two days at —46°, he found it ſunk at noon to 108°. Suſpecting ſome miſtake, after he had noted down the obſervation, he inſtantly rank back, and found it at 102°; but aſcending with ſuch rapidity, that in the ſpace of half an hour it had riſen to —19°. This phenomenon, which appeared ſo ſurpriſing, undoubtedly depended on the expanſion of the mercury frozen in the bulb of the thermometer, and which now melting, forced upwards the ſmall thread in the ſtem.

A ſimilar appearance was obſerved at the ſame fort a few days after; and on the 29th of December, O. S. he found the mercury, which had been ſtanding at —40° in the morning, ſunk to —100° at four in the afternoon. At this time, he ſays, he "ſaw ſome air in the thermometer ſeparating the quickſilver for the ſpace of about ſix degrees." He had taken notice of a ſimilar appearance the preceding evening, excepting that the *air*, as he ſuppoſed it to be, was not then collected into one place, but lay ſcattered in ſeveral.

Theſe appearances undoubtedly proceeded from a congelation of the mercury, though the prejudice entertained againſt the poſſibility of this phenomenon would not allow the profeſſor even to inquire into it at all. Several other obſervations were made; ſome of which were loſt, and the reſt contain no farther information.

The ſecond inſtance where a natural congelation of mercury has certainly been obſerved, is recorded in the Tranſactions of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm. The weather, in January 1760, was remarkably cold in Lapland; ſo that on the 5th of that month, the thermometers fell to —76°, —128°, or lower; on the 23d and following days they fell to —58°, —79°, —92°, and below —238° entirely into the ball. This was obſerved at Tornea, Sombio, Jakaſierf, and Utſioki, four places in Lapland, ſituated between the 65th and 78th degrees of N. Lat. and the 21ſt and 28th of E. Long. The perſon who obſerved them was M. Andrew Hellant, who makes the following remarks, of themſelves ſufficient to ſhow that the quickſilver was frozen. "During the cold weather at Sombio (ſays he), as it was clear ſunſhine, though ſcarcely the whole body of the ſun appeared above the low woods that covered our horizon, I took a thermometer which was hanging before in the ſhade, and expoſed it to the riſing ſun about eleven in the forenoon, to ſee whether when that luminary was ſo low, it would have any effect upon the inſtrument. But to my great ſurpriſe, upon looking at it about noon, I found that the mercury had entirely ſubſided into the ball, though it was ſtanding as high as —61° at 11 o'clock, and the ſcale reached down to 238° below 0." On bringing the inſtrument near a fire, it preſently roſe to its uſual height; and the reaſon of its ſubſiding before was its being ſomewhat warmed by the rays of the ſun; which, feeble as they were, had yet ſufficient power to melt the ſmall thread of congealed mercury in the ſtem of the thermometer, and allow it to ſubſide along with the reſt. Mr Hellant, however, ſo little underſtood the nature of this phenomenon, that he frequently attempted to repeat it by bringing the thermometer near a fire, when the cold was only a few degrees below the freezing point of water, but could never ſucceed until it fell to —58°, or lower, that is, until the cold was ſufficiently intenſe to congeal the metal. The only ſeeming difficulty in his whole account is, that when the mercury had ſubſided entirely into the ball of the thermometer, a vacuum or empty ſpot appeared, which run round the cavity like an air bubble, on turning the inſtrument; but this proceeded from a partial liquefaction of the mercury, which muſt neceſſarily melt firſt on the outſide, and thus exhibit the appearance juſt mentioned.

10 Remarkable experiments of Dr Pallas.

The moſt remarkable congelation of mercury, which has ever yet been obſerved, was that related by Dr Peter Simon Pallas, who had been ſent by the empreſs of Ruſſia, with ſome other gentlemen, on an expedition ſimilar to that of Dr Gmelin. He did not, however, ſpend the winters in which he was in Siberia in the coldeſt parts of that country; that is, about the middle of the northern part. Twice indeed he reſided at Kraſnoyarſk, in N. Lat. 56½°, E. Long. 93°; where, in the year 1772, he had an opportunity of obſerving the phenomenon we ſpeak of. "The winter (ſays he) ſet in early this year, and was felt with uncommon ſeverity in December. On the 6th and 7th of that month happened the greateſt cold I have ever experienced in Siberia; the air was calm at the time, and ſeemingly thickened; ſo that, though the ſky was in other reſpects clear, the ſun appeared as through a fog. I had only one ſmall thermometer left, in which the ſcale went no lower than —7°; and on the 6th in the morning, I remarked that the quickſilver in it ſunk into the ball, except ſome ſmall columns which ſtuck faſt in the tube. When the ball of the thermometer, as it hung in the open air, was warmed by being touched with the finger, the quickſilver roſe; and it could plainly be ſeen that the ſolid columns ſtuck and reſiſted a good while, and were at length puſhed upward with a ſort of violence. In the mean time I placed upon the gallery, on the north ſide of my houſe, about a quarter of a pound of clean and dry quickſilver in an open bowl. Within an hour I found the edges and ſurface of it frozen ſolid, and ſome minutes afterwards the whole was condenſed by the natural cold into a ſoft maſs very much like tin. While the inner part was ſtill fluid, the frozen ſurface exhibited a great variety of branched wrinkles; but in general it remained pretty ſmooth in freezing, as did alſo a larger quantity which I afterwards expoſed to the cold. The congealed mercury was more flexible than lead; and on being bent ſhort, it was found more brittle than tin; and when hammered out thin, it ſeemed ſomewhat granulated. If the hammer had not

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been perfectly cooled, the quickfilver melted away under it in drops; and the fame thing happened when the metal was touched with the finger, by which alfo the finger was immediately benumbed. In our warm room it thawed on its furface gradually, by drops, like wax on the fire, and did not melt all at once. When the frozen mafs was broken to pieces in the cold, the fragments adhered to each other and to the bowl on which they lay. Although the froft feemed to abate a little towards night, yet the congealed quickfilver remained unaltered, and the experiment with the thermometer could ftill be repeated. On the 7th of December, I had an opportunity of making the fame obfervations all day; but fome hours after funfet, a northweft wind fprung up, which raifed the thermometer to —46°, when the mafs of quickfilver began to melt."

19 Von Elterlein's experiment.

In the beginning of the year 1780 M. Von Elterlein, of Vytegra, a town of Ruffia, in N. Lat. 61. E. Long. 36. froze quickfilver by natural cold; of which he gives the following account. "On the 4th of January 1780, the cold having increafed to —34° that evening at Vytegra, I expofed to the open air three ounces of very pure quickfilver in a china tea-cup, covered with paper pierced full of holes. Next day, at eight in the morning, I found it folid, and looking like a piece of caft lead, with a confiderable depreffion in the middle. On attempting to loofen it in the cup, my knife raifed fhavings from it as if it had been lead, which remained ticking up; and at length the metal feparated from the bottom of the cup in one mafs. I then took it in my hand to try if it would bend: it was ftiff like glue, and broke into two pieces; but my fingers immediately loft all feeling, and could fcarcely be reftored in an hour and a half by rubbing with fnow. At eight o'clock a thermometer, made by Mr Lexmann of the academy, ftood at —57°; by half after nine it was rifen to —40°; and then the two pieces of mercury which lay in the cup had loft fo much of their hardnefs, that they could no longer be broken, or cut into fhavings, but refembled a thick amalgam, which, though it became fluid when preffed by the fingers, immediately afterwards refumed the confiftence of pap. With the thermometer at —39°, the quickfilver became fluid. The cold was never lefs on the 5th than —28°, and by nine in the evening it had increafed again to —33°."

An inftance of the natural congelation of quickfilver alfo occurred in Jemtland, one of the provinces of Sweden, on the 1ft of January 1782; and laftly, on the 26th of the fame month, Mr Hutchins obferved the fame effect of the cold at Hudfon's bay. "The

20 Experiment of Mr Hutchins.

fubject of this curious phenomenon (fays he), was quickfilver put into a common two-ounce phial, and corked. The phial was about a third part full, and had conftantly been ftanding by the thermometer for a month paft. At eight o'clock this morning I obferved it was frozen rather more than a quarter of an inch thick round the fides and bottom of the phial, the middle part continuing fluid. As this was a certain method of finding the point of congelation, I introduced a mercurial and a fpirit thermometer into the fluid part, after breaking off the top of the phial, and they rofe directly and became ftationary; the former at 40° or $40\frac{1}{4}$°, the latter at $29\frac{1}{2}$°, both below the cipher. Having taken thefe out, I put in two others, G a mercurial one formerly defcribed, and a fpirit thermometer; the former of which became ftationary at 40° and the latter at 30°. I then decanted the fluid quickfilver, to examine the internal furface of the frozen metal, which proved very uneven, with many radii going acrofs, fome of which refembled pin-heads. Urgent bufinefs called me away an hour. On my return I found a fmall portion only had liquefied in my abfence. I then broke the phial entirely, and with a hammer repeatedly ftruck the quickfilver. It beat out flat, yielded a deadifh found, and became fluid in lefs than a minute afterwards. It may be worth remarking, that the quickfilver in one of the thermometers, which had funk to very near 500, and was then at 444, very readily ran up and down the tube by elevating either end of the inftrument."

Thefe are all the well authenticated accounts of the congelation of mercury by the natural cold of the atmofphere. Some others have been publifhed; but being either lefs important, or not fo well authenticated, we forbear to mention them. A very confiderable confirmation is obtained from the above hiftory, of the theory of congelation delivered by Dr Black, and which is fully explained under the article CHEMISTRY. On Mr Hutchins's experiments, and on congelation in general, Mr Cavendifh makes many valuable remarks; the fubftance of which is as follows:

21 Mr Cavendifh's remarks on congelation.

"If a veffel of water, with a thermometer in it, be expofed to the cold, the thermometer will fink feveral degrees below the freezing point, efpecially if the water be covered up fo as to be defended from the wind, and care taken not to agitate it; and then on dropping in a bit of ice, or on mere agitation, fpiculæ of ice fhoot fuddenly through the water, and the inclofed thermometer rifes quickly to the freezing point, where it remains ftationary." In a note he fays, that though in conformity to the common opinion he has allowed that "mere agitation may fet the water a freezing, yet fome experiments lately made by Dr Blagden feem to fhow, that it has not much, if any, effect of that kind, otherwife than by bringing the water in contact with fome fubftance colder than itfelf. Though in general alfo the ice fhoots rapidly, and the inclofed thermometer rifes very quick; yet he once obferved it to rife very flowly, taking up not lefs than half a minute, before it afcended to the freezing point; but in this experiment the water was cooled not more than one or two degrees below freezing, and it fhould feem, that the more the water is cooled below the freezing point, the more rapidly the ice fhoots and the inclofed thermometer rifes."

Mr Cavendifh then obferves, that from the foregoing experiments we learn that water is capable of being cooled confiderably below the freezing point, without any congelation taking place; and that, as foon as by any means a fmall part of it is made to freeze, the ice fpreads rapidly through the whole of the water. The caufe of this rife of the thermometer is, that all, or almoft all bodies, by changing from a fluid to a folid ftate, or from the ftate of an elaftic to that of an unelaftic fluid, generate heat; and that cold is produced by the contrary procefs. Thus all the circumftances of the phenomenon may be perfectly well explained; for, as foon as any part of the water freezes, heat will be generated thereby in confequence of the

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the above-mentioned law, so that the new formed ice and remaining water will be warmed, and must continue to receive heat by the freezing of fresh portions of water, till it is heated exactly to the freezing point, unless the water could become quite solid before a sufficient quantity of heat was generated to raise it to that point, which is not the case: and it is evident, that it cannot be heated above the freezing point: for as soon as it comes thereto, no more water will freeze, and consequently no more heat will be generated.—The reason why the ice spreads all over the water, instead of forming a solid lump in one part, is, that, as soon as any small portion of ice is formed, the water in contact with it will be so much warmed as to be prevented from freezing, but the water at a little distance from it will still be below the freezing point, and will consequently begin to freeze.

"Were it not for this generation of heat, the whole of any quantity of water would freeze as soon as the process of congelation began; and in like manner the cold is generated by the melting of ice; which is the cause of the long time required to thaw ice and snow. It was formerly found that, by adding snow to warm water, and stirring it about until all was melted, the water was as much cooled as it would have been by the addition of the same quantity of water rather more than 150° degrees colder than the snow; or, in other words, somewhat more than 150° of cold are generated by the thawing of the snow; and there is great reason to believe that just as much heat is produced by the freezing of water. The cold generated in the experiment just mentioned was the same whether ice or snow was used.

22 On metals when beginning to turn solid.

"A thermometer kept in melted tin or lead till they become solid, remains perfectly stationary from the time the metal begins to harden round the sides of the pot till it is entirely solid; but it cannot be perceived at all to sink below that point, and rise up to it when the metal begins to harden. It is not unlikely, however, that the great difference of heat between the air and melted metal might prevent this effect from taking place; so that though it was not perceived in these experiments, it is not unlikely that those metals, as well as water and quicksilver, may bear being cooled a little below the freezing or hardening point (for the hardening of melted metals, and freezing of water, seems exactly the same process), without beginning to lose their fluidity.

"The experiments of Mr Hutchins prove, that quicksilver contracts or diminishes in bulk by freezing, and that the very low degrees to which the thermometers have been made to sink, is owing to this contraction, and not to the cold having been in any degree equal to that shown by the thermometer. In the fourth experiment, one of the thermometers sunk to 450°, though it appeared by the spirit thermometers, that the cold of the mixture was not more than five or six degrees below the point of freezing quicksilver. In the first experiment also, it sunk to 448° at a time when the cold of the mixture was only $2\frac{1}{2}$° below that point; so that it appears that the contraction of quicksilver by freezing must be at least equal to its expansion by 404 degrees of heat (c). This, however, is not the whole contraction that it suffers; for it appears, by an extract from a meteorological journal kept by Mr Hutchins at Albany fort, that his thermometer once sunk to 490° below 0; though it was known by a spirit thermometer that the cold scarcely exceeded the point of freezing quicksilver There are two experiments also of Professor Braun, in which the thermometer sunk to 544 and 556° below 0; which is the greatest descent he ever observed without the ball being cracked. It is not indeed known how cold his mixtures were; but from Mr Hutchins's experiments, there is great reason to think they could not be many degrees below 40°. If so, the contraction which quicksilver suffers in freezing, is not much less than its expansion by 500° or 510° of heat, that is, almost $\frac{1}{23}$ of its whole bulk; and in all probability is never much more than that, though it is probable that this contraction is not always determinate; for a considerable variation may frequently be observed in the specific gravity of the same piece of metal cast different times over; and almost all cast metals become heavier by hammering. Mr Cavendish observed, that on casting the same piece of tin three times over, its density varied from 7.252 to 7.294, though there was great reason to think that no hollows were left in it, and that only a small part of this difference could proceed from the error of the experiment. This variation of density is as much as is produced in quicksilver by an alteration of 66° of heat: and it is not unlikely, that the descent of a thermometer, on account of the contraction of the quicksilver in its ball by freezing, may vary as much in different trials, though the whole mass of quicksilver is frozen without any vacuities.

23 Variation of the density of metals by frequent casting.

24 Of freezing mixtures.

"The cold produced by mixing spirit of nitre with snow is entirely owing to the melting of the snow. Now, in all probability, there is a certain degree of cold, in which the spirit of nitre, so far from dissolving snow, will yield part of its own water, and suffer that to freeze, as is the case with solutions of common salt; so that if the cold of the materials before mixing is equal to this, no additional cold can be produced. If the cold of the materials is less, some increase of cold will be produced; but the total cold will be less than in the former case, since the additional cold cannot be generated without some of the snow being dissolved, and thereby weakening the acid, and making it less able to dissolve more snow; but yet the less the cold of the materials is, the greater will be the additional cold produced. This is conformable to Mr Hutchins's experiments; for in the fifth experiment, in

(c) The numbers here given are those shown by the thermometer without any correction; but if a proper allowance is made for the error of that instrument, it will appear, that the true contraction was 25° less than here set down; and from the manner in which thermometers have been usually adjusted, it is likely that in the 5th experiment of Mr Hutchins, as well as in those of Professor Braun, the contraction might equally fall short of that by observation.

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in which the cold of the materials was —40°, the additional cold produced was only 5°. In the first experiment, in which the cold of the materials was only —23°, an addition of at least 19° of cold was obtained; and by mixing some of the same spirit of nitre with snow in this climate, when the heat of the materials was +26°, Mr Cavendish was able to sink the thermometer to —29°, so that an addition of 55 degrees of cold was produced.

"It is remarkable that in none of Mr Hutchins's experiments the cold of the mixture was more than 6° of the spirit thermometer below the freezing point of quicksilver; which is so little, that it might incline one to think that the spirit of nitre used by him was weak. This, however, was not the case: as its specific gravity at 58° of heat was 1,4923. It was able to dissolve $\frac{1}{1.42}$ its weight of marble, and contained very little mixture of sulphuric or muriatic acid; as well as could be judged from an examination of it, it was as little phlogisticated as acid of that strength usually is."

25 Congelation of sulphuric acid.

Acids, especially those of the mineral kind, powerfully resist congelation. There is, however, a peculiarity with regard to that of vitriol. M. Chaptal, a foreign chemist, observed, that it condensed by the cold of the atmosphere, and the crystals began to melt only at +70° of his thermometer; which, if Reaumur's, corresponds to about 47° of Fahrenheit. The crystals were unctuous from the melting acid, and they felt warmer than the neighbouring bodies: the form was that of a prism of six sides, flatted and terminated by a pyramid of six sides; but the pyramid appeared on one end only; on the other, the crystal was lost in the general mass. The pyramid resulted from an assemblage of six isosceles triangles; the oil, when the crystal was melted, was of a yellowish black; on redistilling it in a proper apparatus, no peculiar gas came over. M. Chaptal repeated his experiments with the highly concentrated acid, but found that it did not freeze; that the density of the acid which he thought froze most easily was to the oil, of the usual strength for sale, as from 63 and 65 to 66; and the necessary degree of cold about 19° of Fahrenheit. Sulphuric acid once melted will not crystallize again with the same degree of cold.

In the experiments which had been made on the freezing of sulphuric acid, Mr Cavendish found some uncertainty in determining the point at which it freezes most readily; neither could he determine whether the cold necessary for congelation does not increase without any limitation in proportion to the strength of the acid. A new set of experiments were therefore made by Mr Keir to determine this point. He had observed, after a severe frost at the end of the year 1784 and beginning of 1785, that some sulphuric acid, contained in a corked phial, had congealed, while other bottles containing the same, some stronger and some weaker, retained their fluidity. As the congelation was naturally imputed to the extremity of the cold, he was afterwards surprised to find, when the frost ceased, that the acid remained congealed for many days, when the temperature of the atmosphere was sometimes above 40° of Fahrenheit; and when the congealed acid was brought into a warm room on purpose to thaw it, a thermometer placed in contact with it during its thawing, continued stationary at 45°. Hence he concluded, that the freezing and thawing point of this acid was nearly at 45°; and accordingly, on exposing the liquor which had been thawed to the air at the temperature of 30°, the congelation again took place in a few hours. From the circumstance of other parcels of the same acid, but of different strengths, remaining fluid, though they had been exposed to a much greater degree of cold, he was led to believe that there must be some certain strength at which the acid is more disposed to congeal than at any other. The specific gravity of the acid which had frozen was to that of water nearly as 1800 to 1000, and that of the stronger acid which had not frozen was as 1846 to 1000, which is the common density of that usually sold in England; and there was not the least difference, excepting in point of strength, between the acid which had frozen and that which had not; Mr Keir having taken the acid some weeks before with his own hands from the bottle which contained the latter, and diluted it with water, till it became of the specific gravity of 1800.

26 Mr Keir's experiments.

To render the experiment complete, Mr Keir immersed several acids of different strengths in melting snow, instead of exposing them to the air; the temperature of which was variable, whereas that of melting snow was certain and invariable. Those which would not freeze in melting snow were afterwards immersed in a mixture of common salt, snow, and water; the temperature of which, though not so constant and determinate as that of melting snow, generally remained for several hours at 18°, and was sometimes several degrees lower. The intention of adding water to the snow and salt was to lessen the intensity of the cold of this mixture, and to render it more permanent than if the snow and salt alone were mixed. The acids which had frozen in melting snow were five in number; which being thawed and brought to the temperature of 60°, were found on examination to have the following specific gravities, viz. 1786, 1784, 1780, 1778, 1775. Those which had not congealed with the melting snow, but which did so with the mixture of snow, salt, and water, were found, when brought to the temperature of 60°, to be of the following specific gravities, viz. 1814, 1810, 1804, 1794, 1790, 1770, 1759, 1750. Those which remained, and would freeze neither in melting snow nor in the mixture of snow, salt, and water, were of the gravities 1864, 1839, 1815, 1745, 1720, 1700, 1610, 1551. From the first of these it appears, that the medium density of the acids which froze with the natural cold was 1780; and from the second, that at the densities of 1790 and 1770 the acid had been incapable of freezing with that degree of cold. Hence it follows, that 1780 is nearly the degree of strength of easiest freezing, and that an increase or diminution of that density equal to $\frac{1}{175}$th of the whole, renders the acid incapable of freezing with the cold of melting snow, though this cold is something above the freezing point of the most congealable acid. From the second it appears, that by applying a more intense cold, viz. that produced by a mixture of snow, salt, and water, the limits of the densities of acids capable of congelation were extended to about $\frac{1}{175}$th above or below the

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point of eaſieſt freezing: and there ſeems little reaſon to doubt, that, by greater augmentations of cold, theſe limits may be further extended; but in what ratio theſe augmentations and extenſions proceed, cannot be determined, without many obſervations made in different temperatures.

"But (ſays Mr Keir) though it is probable that the moſt concentrated acids may be frozen, provided the cold be ſufficiently intenſe, yet there ſeems reaſon to believe, that ſome of the congelations which have been obſerved in highly concentrated acids, have been effected in conſequence of the denſity of theſe acids being reduced nearly to the point of eaſy freezing by their having abſorbed moiſture from the air: for the Duke d'Ayen and M. de Morveau expoſed their acids to the air in cups or open veſſels; and the latter even acquaints us, that on examining the ſpecific gravity of the acid which had frozen, he found it to that of water as 129 to 74; which denſity being leſs than that of eaſieſt freezing, proves that the acid he employed, and which he had previouſly concentrated, had been actually weakened during the experiment. I have ſeveral times expoſed concentrated ſulphuric acid in open veſſels in froſty weather; and I have ſometimes, but not always, obſerved a congelation to take place. Upon ſeparating the congealed part, and on examining the ſpecific gravity of the latter after it had thawed, I found that it had been reduced to the point of eaſieſt freezing. When the congealed acid was kept longer expoſed it gradually thawed, even when the cold of the air increaſed; the reaſon of which is not to be imputed to the heat produced by the moiſture of the air mixing with the acid, but principally to the diminution below the point of eaſieſt freezing, which was occaſioned by the continued abſorption of moiſture from the air, and which rendered the acid incapable of continuing frozen without a great increaſe of cold.

"It appears, then, that the concentration of M. de Morveau's acid, at the time of its congelation, from which circumſtance Mr Cavendiſh infers generally that ſulphuric acid freezes more eaſily as it is more denſe, is not a true premiſe: and that therefore the inference, though juſtly deduced, is invalid. On the contrary, there ſeems every reaſon to believe, that as the denſity of the acids increaſes beyond the point of eaſieſt freezing, the facility of the congelation diminiſhes; at leaſt to as great denſity as we have ever been able to obtain ſulphuric acid: for if it were poſſible to diveſt it entirely of water, it would probably aſſume a ſolid form in any temperature of the air.

"The cryſtallization of ſulphuric acid is more or leſs diſtinct, according to the ſlowneſs of the formation of the cryſtals and other favourable circumſtances. Sometimes they are very large, diſtinctly ſhaped, and hard. Their ſhape is like thoſe of the common mineral alkali and ſelenite ſpar, but with angles different in dimenſions from either of theſe. They are ſolid, conſiſting of ten faces; of which the two largeſt are equal, parallel, and oppoſite to each other; and are oblique-angled parallelograms or rhomboids, whoſe angles are, as near as could be meaſured, of 105 and 75 degrees. Between theſe rhomboidal faces are placed eight of the form of trapeziums; and thus each cryſtal may be ſuppoſed to be compounded of two equal and ſimilar fruſtums of pyramids joined together by their rhomboidal baſes. They always ſunk in the fluid acid to the bottom of the veſſel, which ſhowed that their denſity was increaſed by congelation. It was attempted to determine their ſpecific gravity by adding to this fluid ſome concentrated acid, which ſhould make them float in the liquor, the examination of whoſe ſpecific gravity ſhould aſcertain that of the floating cryſtals; but they were found to ſink even in the moſt concentrated acid, and were conſequently denſer. Some of the congealable acid previouſly brought to the freezing temperature was then poured into a graduated narrow cylindrical glaſs, up to a certain mark, which indicated a ſpace equal to that occupied by 200 grains of water. The glaſs was placed in a mixture of ſnow, ſalt, and water; and when the acid was frozen, a mark was made on the part of the glaſs to which it had ſunk. Having thawed the acid and emptied the glaſs, it was filled with water to the mark to which it had ſunk by freezing: and it was then found that 15 grains more of water were required to raiſe it to the mark expreſſing 200 grains; which ſhows, that the diminution of bulk ſuſtained by the acid in freezing had been equal to $\frac{1}{13.3}$ of the whole. Computing from this datum, we ſhould eſtimate the ſpecific gravity of the congealed acid to have been 1924; but as it evidently contained a great number of bubbles, its real ſpecific gravity muſt have been conſiderably greater than the above calculation, and cannot eaſily be determined on account of theſe bubbles. By way of compariſon, Mr Keir obſerved the alteration of bulk which water contained in the ſame cylindrical veſſel would ſuffer by freezing: and found that its expanſion was equal to about $\frac{1}{10}$th of its bulk. The water had been previouſly boiled, but nevertheleſs contained a great number of air bubbles; ſo that in this reſpect there is a conſiderable difference between the congelations of water and ſulphuric acid; though perhaps it may ariſe principally from the bubbles of elaſtic fluid being in greater proportion in the one than the other.

"Greater cold is produced by mixing ſnow or pounded ice with the congealed than with the fluid ſulphuric acid, though the quantity is not yet determined. The greateſt cold produced by Mr M'Nab at Hudſon's Bay, was effected by mixing ſnow with a ſulphuric acid which had been previouſly congealed; and to this circumſtance Mr Cavendiſh imputes the intenſity of the cold, as the liquefaction both of the acid and the ſnow had concurred in producing the ſame effect; while in mixing fluid acids with ſnow, the thawing of the ſnow is probably the only productive cauſe.

"To compare the times requiſite for the liquefactions of ice and of congealed ſulphuric acid, two equal and ſimilar glaſſes were filled, one with the congealable ſulphuric acid, the other with water; and after having immerſed them in a freezing mixture, till both were congealed and reduced to the temperature of 28°, the glaſſes were withdrawn, wiped dry, and placed in a room where the thermometer ſtood at 62°. The ice thawed in 40 minutes, and the acid in 95; at the end

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end of which time the thermometer, which ſtood near the glaſſes, had riſen to 64°. Hence it appears that the congealed acid requires more than twice the time for its liquefaction that ice does, though it cannot thence be fairly inferred, that the cold generated by the liquefaction of the ice and of congealed acid are in the above proportions of the times, from the following conſiderations, viz. that as, during the liquefaction of the ice, its temperature remains ſtationary at 32°, and during the liquefaction of the acid, its temperature remains about 44 or 45°, it appears, that the ice being conſiderably colder than the acid, will take the heat from the contiguous air much faſter. By this experiment, however, we know that a conſiderable quantity of cold is generated by the liquefaction of the acid; and hence it appears probable, that in producing cold artificially, by mixing ſnow with acids in very cold temperatures, it would probably be uſeful to employ a ſulphuric acid of the proper denſity for congelation, and to freeze it previouſly to its mixture with ſnow. It muſt not, however, be imagined, that the cold generated by the mixture of theſe two frozen ſubſtances is nearly equal to the ſums of the colds generated by the ſeparate liquefactions of the congealed acid and ice, when ſingly expoſed to a thawing temperature; for the mixture reſulting from the liquefaction, conſiſting of ſulphuric acid and the water of the ſnow, appears from the generation of heat which occurs from the mixture of theſe ingredients in a fluid ſtate, to be ſubject to different laws than thoſe which rule either of the ingredients ſeparately.

"The ſulphuric acid, like water and other fluids, is capable of retaining its fluidity when cooled conſiderably below its freezing point. A phial containing ſome congealable ſulphuric acid being placed in a mixture of ſalt, ſnow, and water, a thermometer was ſoon afterwards immerſed in it while the acid was yet fluid, on which it quickly ſunk from 50 to 29°. On moving the thermometer in the fluid, to make it acquire the exact temperature, the mercury was obſerved ſuddenly to riſe; and on looking at the acid, numberleſs ſmall cryſtals were obſerved floating in it, which had been ſuddenly formed. The degree to which the mercury then roſe was $46\frac{1}{2}$°; and at another time, while the acid was freezing, it ſtood at 45°."

From theſe experiments our author infers, "1. That ſulphuric acid has a point of eaſieſt freezing, and that this is when the ſpecific gravity is to that of water as 1780 to 1000. 2. That the greater or leſs diſpoſition to congelation does not depend on any other circumſtance than the ſtrength of the acid. 3. That the freezing and thawing degree of the moſt congealable acid is about 45° of Fahrenheit's ſcale. It is, however, to be obſerved, that this degree is inferred from the temperature indicated by the thermometers immerſed in the freezing and thawing acids; but the congelation of the fluid acid could never be accompliſhed without expoſing it to a greater degree of cold, either by expoſing it to the air in froſty weather or to the cold of melting ſnow. 4. Like water, this acid poſſeſſes the property of retaining its fluidity when cooled ſeveral degrees below the freezing point; and of riſing ſuddenly to it when its congelation is promoted by agitation, or by contact even with a warmer thermometer. 5. That, like water and other congealable fluids, ſulphuric acid generates cold by its liquefaction, and heat during its congelation, though the quantity of this heat and cold remains to be determined by future experiments. 6. That the acid, by congelation, when the circumſtances for diſtinct cryſtallization are favourable, aſſumes a regular cryſtalline form, a conſiderable ſolidity and hardneſs, and a denſity much greater than it poſſeſſed in its fluid ſtate."

Congelation || Congeſtion.

Beſides this ſpecies of congelation, ſulphuric acid is ſubject to another, probably the ſame deſcribed by Baſil Valentine and ſome of the other chemiſts. This is effected in the ordinary temperature of the air, even in ſummer; and according to Mr Keir *, is peculiar to that ſpecies of ſulphuric acid which is diſtilled from green vitriol, and which is poſſeſſed of a ſmoking quality in a high degree; "for not only the authors (ſays Mr Keir) by whom this congelation has been obſerved, have given this deſcription of the acid employed, but alſo the late experiments of Mr Dolfuſs, ſeem to ſhow that this ſmoking quality is eſſential to the phenomenon: for neither the acid obtained from vitriol, when deprived by rectification of its ſmoking quality, nor the Engliſh ſulphuric acid, which is known to be obtained by burning ſulphur, and which does not ſmoke, were found by his trials to be ſuſceptible of this ſpecies of congelation. It may, however, be worth the attention of thoſe chemiſts who have an opportunity of ſeeing this *icy ſulphuric acid*, as it is called, to obſerve more accurately than has yet been done, the freezing temperature and the denſity of the congealable acids; and to examine whether the denſity of this ſmoking acid alſo is connected with the glacial property. It ſeems alſo further deſerving of inveſtigation, whether there be not ſome analogy between the congelation of the ſmoking ſulphuric acid and the very curious cryſtallization which Dr Prieſtley obſerved in a concentrated ſulphuric acid ſaturated with nitrous acid vapours; and whether this ſmoking quality does not proceed from ſome marine or other volatile acid, which may be contained in the martial vitriol whence the ſulphuric acid is obtained."

* *Phil. Tranſ.* vol. lxxvii. p. 267.

Mr Keir alſo obſerves, that M. Cornatter has effected the cryſtallization of ſulphuric acid, by diſtilling it with nitrous acid and charcoal; and we can add from our own experience, that a cryſtallization inſtantly takes place on allowing the fumes of the nitrous and ſulphuric acids to mix together; and this, whether the former be procured from martial vitriol or ſulphur, and whether it be in a phlogiſticated ſtate or not, concentration in both acids is here the only requiſite.

CONGER, in *Zoology*. See MURÆNA, ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

CONGERIES, a Latin word, ſometimes uſed in our language for a collection or heap of ſeveral particles of bodies united into one maſs or aggregate.

CONGESTION, in *Medicine*, a maſs or collection of humours, crowded together and hardened in any part of the body, and there forming a preternatural tumour.

Congeſtion is effected by little and little; in which it differs from *defluction*, which is more ſudden.

CONGIARIUM,

Congiarium || Congo.

CONGIARIUM, CONGIARY, among medalists, a gift or donative represented on a medal. The word comes from the Latin *congius;* because the first presents made to the people of Rome consisted in wine and oil, which were measured out to them in *congii.* The congiary was properly a present made by the emperors to the people of Rome. Those made to the soldiers were not called *congiaries*, but *donatives.* The legend on medals representing *congiaries*, is, *Congiarium* or *Liberalitas.* Tiberius gave a congiary of three hundred pieces of money to each citizen: Caligula twice gave three hundred sesterces a-head: Nero, whose congiaries are the first that we find represented on medals, gave four hundred.

CONGIUS, a liquid measure of the ancient Romans, containing the eighth part of the amphora, or the fourth of the urna, or six sextarii. The congius in English measure contains 2,070,676 solid inches; that is, seven pints, 4,942 solid inches.

CONGLOBATE GLAND. See ANATOMY *Index.*

CONGLOMERATE GLAND. See ANATOMY *Index.*

CONGLOMERATE Flowers, are those growing on a branching foot-stalk, to which they are irregularly but closely connected. This mode of inflorescence, as Linnæus terms it, is opposed to that in which the flowers are irregularly and loosely supported on their foot-stalks, hence termed a *diffuse panicle* *. The term is exemplified in several of the grasses, particularly in some species of the *poa*, fescue grass, and agrostis.

*See *Panicle.*

CONGLUTINATION, the glueing or fastening any two bodies together by the intromission of a third, whose parts are unctuous and tenacious, in the nature of glue. See GLUE.

CONGO, a kingdom of Africa, bounded on the north by the river Zair, or Zarah, which divides it from Loango; on the south by the river Danda, which separates it from Angola; on the east by the kingdoms of Fungono and Metamba, and the burnt mountains of the sun, those of crystal or salt-petre, and silver, or (according to Anthony Cavazzi, a traveller into those parts) by the mountains of Coanza, Berbela, and the great mountains of Chilandria or Aquilonda; and on the west by that part of the Atlantic ocean called the *Ethiopic sea*, or the *sea of Congo.* According to these limits, Congo Proper extends about three degrees from north to south; lying between the line and 18° S. Lat.; but widens in its breadth inland, by the course of the river Zair, which runs winding above two degrees more to the north. Its length from east to west is very uncertain, as no observations have been taken of the exact situation of those mountains which bound it.

1 Extent.

2 History uncertain and fabulous.

The history of this kingdom affords but few interesting particulars. Before its discovery by the Portuguese, the history is altogether uncertain and fabulous, as the inhabitants were totally unacquainted with letters and learning. So little were they acquainted with chronology, that it is said they did not even distinguish between day and night; much less could they compute their time by moons or years; and therefore could remember past transactions only by saying they happened in such a king's reign.

The country was discovered by the Portuguese in 1484. The discoverer was named *Diego Cam*, an expert and bold soldier. He was very well received by the natives, and sent some of his men with presents to the king; but they being detained by unexpected accidents beyond the promised time of their return, Cam was obliged to sail away without them, and took with him four young Congoese, as hostages for the safety of his countrymen. These he taught the Portuguese language, in which they made such progress that King John was highly pleased, and sent them back next year to Congo with rich presents; charging them to exhort their monarch, in his name, to become a convert to the Christian religion, and to permit it to be propagated through his dominions. A firm alliance was concluded between the two monarchs, which continues to this day, though not without some interruptions, to which the Portuguese themselves have given occasion more than the natives.

Congo.

3 The country discovered by the Portuguese.

4 Cavazzi's account of Congo.

Any particular account we have of this kingdom, rests almost entirely on the credit of Anthony Cavazzi, the traveller above mentioned. He was a capuchin friar, a native of the duchy of Modena, and was sent missionary into those parts *de propaganda fide*, in the year 1654, and arrived at Congo the same year. During his stay there, his zeal to make converts made him travel through all these different kingdoms; and the credit he gained, as well as the great employments he was entrusted with, gave him an opportunity of informing himself of every thing relating to them with great exactness. The extent and situation, however, he could not possibly ascertain, for want of instruments; nor hath this defect been since supplied. According to him the dominions of Congo extended a great deal further eastward and southwards before the introduction of Christianity than afterwards; a great number of the states that were under the Congoese monarchs, either as subjects, or tributary, having withdrawn their allegiance out of dislike to them on that account. Not content with opposing the officers and troops that came annually to raise the tribute imposed by the king, they made such frequent and powerful incursions into his dominions, that they obliged him to draw his forces nearer the centre of Congo to prevent an invasion; by which means the kingdom, from an extent of 600 leagues, was reduced to less than one half.

5 Extent lessened since the introduction of Christianity.

6 Account of the climate and seasons.

Congo Proper being situated within the torrid zone, is liable to excessive heats: as it lies on the southern side of the equinoctial, the seasons are of course opposite to ours. They reckon only two principal seasons, the summer and winter; the former begins in October, and continues till February or March; during which time the sun's rays dart with such force, that the atmosphere appears to an European to be in a flame. The excessive heat, however, is mitigated by the equal length of the days and nights, as well as by the winds, breezes, rains, and dews. The winter takes up the other part of the year; and is said by the natives to be proportionably cold, though to an European it would appear hot. These two seasons they divide into six lesser ones, viz. Massanza, Neasu, Ecundi, Quitombo, Quibiso, and Quibangala.

Massanza begins with the month of October, which is the beginning of their spring. The rains begin to fall at that time, and continue during the next two, and

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and ſometimes three, months. When this happens, the low lands are commonly overflowed with extraordinary floods, and all their corn carried off. A diſaſter of this kind is commonly followed by a famine; for the lazy inhabitants take no care to lay up any proviſions, although ſuch misfortunes happen very frequently. This firſt ſeaſon they reckon commences at the time the plants begin to ſpring.

The ſecond ſeaſon, Neaſu, begins about the end of January, when the produce of their lands has arrived at its full height, and wants but a few days of being ripened for harveſt. This firſt crop is no ſooner gathered in, than they ſow their fields afreſh, their land commonly yielding them two harveſts.

The third and fourth ſeaſons, called *Ecundi* and *Quitombo*, are frequently blended together towards the middle of March, when the more gentle rains begin to fall, and continue till the month of May. Theſe two ſeaſons are diſtinguiſhed by the greater or leſſer quantity of rain that falls during that interval. During the reſt of the time, the air is either very clear, hot, and dry; or the clouds being overcharged with electric matter, burſt out into the moſt terrible thunders and lightnings, without yielding the leaſt drop of rain, though they ſeem loaded with it.

The two laſt, viz. the Quibiſo and Quibangala, make up their ſhort winter, which conſiſts not in froſt or ſnow, but in dry, blaſting winds, which ſtrip the earth of all its verdure, till the next Maſſanza begins to reſtore them to their former bloom.

They now divide their year into twelve lunar months, and begin it in September. They have alſo weeks conſiſting of four days only, the laſt of which is their ſabbath; and on it they religiouſly abſtain from every kind of work. This practice, the compilers of the Univerſal Hiſtory conjecture to have ariſen from the extreme lazineſs for which this people, and indeed all the African nations, are ſo remarkable. To this ſhameful indolence alſo is to be aſcribed the little produce they reap from their lands, while the Portugueſe ſettled among them, who are at more pains in the cultivation of theirs, enjoy all manner of plenty. The natives, however, had rather run the riſk of the moſt terrible famines, than be at the tenth part of the labour they ſee the Portugueſe take. They ſeem to think it below them to uſe any other exerciſes than thoſe of dancing, leaping, hunting, ſhooting, &c.; the reſt of their time they ſpend in ſmoking, and downright idleneſs, committing the laborious part of their houſehold affairs to their ſlaves, or, in want of them, to their wives. Nothing is more common than to ſee theſe poor creatures toiling in the fields and woods with a child tied to their backs, and fainting under their exceſſive labour and heavy burdens, or (which is ſtill worſe) hunger and thirſt. What is yet more ſurpriſingly ſhameful is, that though they have plenty of domeſtic animals, which they might eaſily make uſe of for cultivating their grounds, and for other laborious ſervices, and though they ſee the Portugueſe do it every day to great advantage; yet they will rather ſee their tender females ſink under their toil and labour, than be at the trouble of breeding up any of theſe uſeful creatures to their aſſiſtance.

7 Natives exceſſively indolent.

The ground produces variety of grain, but no corn or rice except what is cultivated by the Portugueſe. Their maize, or Indian wheat, grows very ſtrong, and is well laden. This being well ground, they make into bread, or boil with water into a kind of pap. Of this they have four kinds; one of which, reſembling what we call French wheat, is produced in plenty, and makes ſome amends for the want of induſtry in the people. They cultivate alſo a variety of the peaſe and bean kind; but what they chiefly live upon, as moſt ſuitable to their lazy diſpoſition, is a kind of nut like our filberts, which fall to the ground of themſelves, and are to be found everywhere; every nut that falls to the ground producing a new ſhrub next year. They have ſcarcely any fruit trees but what have been brought hither by the Portugueſe. They have various ſorts of palm-trees, uſeful both by their fruit, leaves, and their juice, which is eaſily converted into wine; alſo by affording a kind of oil with which they dreſs their victuals, though the Europeans uſe it only to burn in their lamps. They have alſo a vaſt number of plants and ſhrubs, which it would be impoſſible to deſcribe or enumerate. Wheat is the only thing that the ground will not produce. It puſhes forth, indeed, the ſtraw and the ear; the former of which grows high enough, we are told, to hide a man on horſeback, but the latter is empty, without one grain fit for uſe. Father Labat, however, who had lived a conſiderable time in ſome of the American iſlands, where he had obſerved the ſame thing, tells us, that he had the curioſity to examine thoſe ears more carefully, and had found ſome few grains; and that, having ſowed them afreſh, they produced very long ears full of large heavy grain. Whence he conjectures, that if the Portugueſe had tried the ſame experiment in their African ſettlements, it might perhaps have been attended with the ſame ſucceſs.

8 Vegetables produced in Congo.

In the low lands the graſs grows ſo high, rank, and thick, that it becomes one of the moſt dangerous receptacles for wild beaſts, ſerpents, and other venomous inſects: on this account travelling is exceedingly hazardous, as there are few beaten roads in the whole country, and travellers are obliged to march over it, through vaſt plains, in continual danger of being devoured or ſtung to death; to ſay nothing of the manifold diſeaſes produced by the unwholeſome dews with which the graſs is covered during ſome part of the day. The only method of guarding againſt all theſe evils effectually, is by ſetting fire to the graſs in the hot weather, when it is quite parched by the heat of the ſun: but even this cannot be done without the greateſt danger; becauſe both the wild beaſts and venomous reptiles, being rouſed out of their places of retirement, will fly furiouſly at thoſe who happen to be in the way. In this caſe there is no poſſibility of eſcaping, but by climbing up the higheſt trees, or defending one's ſelf with fire arms or other weapons. In ſuch emergencies, the natives have a much better chance than the Europeans; the former being able to climb trees with ſurpriſing ſwiftneſs; while the latter muſt be aſſiſted with rope-ladders, which they commonly cauſe their blacks to carry about with them, and to go up and faſten to one of the branches.

9 Hazardous travelling.

The flowers are here exceedingly beautiful and numerous. Almoſt every field and grove yields a much nobler

10 Great variety of flowers.

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nobler prospect than the European gardens can boast of, notwithstanding the pains bestowed on their cultivation. The flowers are remarkable, not only for the prodigious variety of their colours, but the vast quantity of heads which grow upon one stalk. In the day-time, indeed, they seem to have lost their natural fragrancy; that being in some measure exhaled by the heat of the sun: but this is amply compensated after its setting, and more especially a little before its rising, when their sweetness is again condensed, and revived by the coldness and dews of the night, after which they exhale their various refreshing scents in a much higher degree than ours. The lilies, which there grow naturally in the fields, valleys, and woods, excel those of our gardens, not only in their extreme whiteness, but much more in a delightful fragrancy, without offending the head, as the European lilies do by their faintish sweetness. The tulips which there grow wild, though generally called *Persic*, have something so surprisingly charming in the variety and combination of their colours, that they dazzle the eyes of an intense beholder: neither do their flowers grow singly as with us, but ten or twelve upon one stalk; and with this double advantage, that they diffuse a very reviving and agreeable sweetness, and continue much longer in their full bloom. Of the same nature are their tuberoses, hyacinths, and other native flowers; which spring up in vast groups of 100 and 200 from one root, though somewhat smaller than ours; some of them finely variegated, and all of them yielding an agreeable smell. The roses, jessamines, and other exotics brought hither from Europe or America, come up likewise in great perfection, but require a constant supply of water, and diligent attendance, to prevent them from degenerating. The American jessamine, in particular, instead of single flowers, will grow up by dozens in a bunch; some of them of an exquisite white, and others of the colour of the most vivid fire.

11 Animals of different kinds.

A vast variety of animals of different kinds are found in the kingdom of Congo; the chief of which is the elephant. This creature is mostly found in the province of Bamba, which abounds with woods, pasture, and plenty of water; the elephants delighting much to bathe themselves during the heat of the day. They commonly go in troops of an hundred or more; and some of them are of such a monstrous size, that we are told the print of their hoof hath measured four, nay seven, spans in diameter. From the hair of their tails, and that of some other animals, the natives, especially the women, weave themselves collars, bracelets, girdles, &c. with variety of devices and figures, which denote their quality; and are in such esteem, that the hair of two elephants tails is sufficient to buy a slave. The reason of this is, that the natives have not the art of taming them, but are obliged to send some of the bravest and stoutest men to hunt them in the woods; which is not done without great labour and danger, they being here exceedingly fierce. The most common way of hunting them is by digging deep holes in the ground, the top of which they cover with branches and leaves, as is practised in most parts of Asia.

Lions, leopards, tigers, wolves, and other beasts of prey, abound here in great plenty, and do much damage. Here are also a vast variety of monkeys of all sizes and shapes. The zebra, well known for its extreme beauty and swiftness, is also met with in this country. They have also a variety of buffaloes and wild asses; but the *dante* seems to be an animal peculiar to this kingdom. It is shaped and coloured much like an ox, though not so large. Its skin is commonly bought by the Portuguese, and sent into Germany to be tanned and made into targets, which are then called *dantes*. The natives make use of their raw hides dried to make their shields; which are so tough that no arrow or dart can pierce them; and they are also large enough to cover the whole body. The creature is vastly swift; and when wounded, will follow the scent or smoke of the gunpowder with such fury, that the hunter is obliged to climb up a tree with all possible speed; and this retreat he always takes care to secure before he ventures to fire. The wounded beast finding its enemy out of its reach, stays for him at the foot of the tree, and will not stir from it: of which the hunter taking the advantage, dispatches it with repeated shots. The forests of Congo also swarm with wild dogs, who, like the wolves, prey upon the tame cattle, and are so fierce that they will attack armed men. Their teeth are exceeding keen and sharp; they never bark, but make a dreadful howling when famished or in pursuit of their prey.

12 Birds.

This country also abounds with all the different kinds of birds that are to be found in other warm climates. One sort, which they call *birds of music*, is greatly esteemed, insomuch that persons of the highest rank have from time immemorial taken the greatest delight in keeping them in cages and aviaries for the sake of their surprising melody. On the other hand, as the Congoese are superstitious to the last degree, there are several kinds of birds which they look upon as ominous, and are so terrified at the sight or hearing of them, that if they were going to enter upon ever so momentous an expedition, if they were met in council, or going to engage an enemy with ever so great an advantage, the flight or cry of such birds would throw them into a general panic, and disperse them in the utmost haste and confusion. The most dreadful of the ominous kind are the crows, ravens, bats, and owls. The great owl is the most terrible of all, and to him they give the name of *kariam pemba*, by which words they likewise denote the devil.

Fish of different kinds abound on the coasts of Congo in great numbers; but the inland parts are infested with such numbers of serpents, scorpions, and other venomous insects, as are perhaps sufficient to overbalance every natural advantage we have yet mentioned.

13 Ants very dangerous.

The most pernicious and dangerous kind are the ants; of which they reckon no less than six several species of different colours and sizes; all of them formidable on account of their prodigious numbers, and the mischief they do not only to the fruits of the earth, but to men and beasts; whom they will surround in the night-time, and devour even to the very bone. It is a common practice, we are told, to condemn persons guilty of some atrocious crimes to be stripped naked, tied hand and foot, and thrown into a hole where these insects swarm; where they are sure to be devoured by them in less than 24 hours to the very bones. But criminals are not the only persons who are in danger from the

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the jaws of these little devouring insects. People may be attacked by them, as we have already hinted, in the night-time, and while they are sleeping in their beds. This obliges the natives to be careful where they lie down, and to kindle a small fire, or at least to have a circle of burning hot embers round their beds. This caution is still more necessary in the country villages and hamlets, where persons are otherwise in danger of being attacked by millions of them in the dead of the night. In such a case the only expedient to save one's self is to jump up as soon as one feels the bite, to brush them off with all possible speed, and then at once to set the house on fire. The danger is still greater in travelling through the country, where a person is often obliged to take up his lodging on the bare ground; and may be overtaken during the heat of the day with such profound sleep, as not to be awakened by these diminutive animals till they have made their way through the skin; and in such a case nothing will prevent their devouring a man alive, though there were ever so many hands to assist him: in such incredible quantities do these creatures abound, notwithstanding the great numbers of monkeys who are continually ferreting the ants out of their retreats, and feed upon them with the utmost avidity. This can only be ascribed to the natural laziness and indolence of the inhabitants; which is such, that they not only neglect to rid their land of them by proper cultivation, but will suffer their houses, nay, even their very churches, to be undermined by them. Another kind of these destructive vermin lie so thick upon the paths and highways, that a person cannot walk without treading upon, and having his legs and thighs almost devoured by them. A third sort of a white and red colour, but very small, will gnaw their way through the hardest wood, penetrate into a strong chest, and in a little while devour all the clothes, linen, and every thing that is in it. A fourth sort, small and black, leave a most intolerable stench upon every thing they touch or crawl over, whether clothes or household-stuff, which are not easily sweetened again; or if they pass over victuals, they are entirely spoiled. A fifth sort harbour chiefly on the leaves and branches of trees; and if a man chance to climb up thither to save himself from a wild beast, he is so tormented by them, that nothing but the fear of the jaws of the one could make him endure the stings of the other. A sixth sort is of the flying kind; and is probably one of the former kinds, that live wholly under ground, till nature furnishes them with wings. After this, they rise in such swarms as darken the air, and would make terrible havock among all kinds of vegetables, did not the natives come out against them in whole companies, and by dint of flaps, and other flat weapons, knock them down by myriads, and then laying them in heaps, set fire to their wings, which half broils them for food. Amidst all this variety of pernicious insects, however, they have one species of a more friendly and profitable kind, viz. the industrious bee, which furnishes the inhabitants with honey and wax in such plenty, that there is scarce a hollow tree, cleft of a rock, or chop of the earth, in which their combs are not found in great quantities.

14 Congo very populous.

With respect to the populousness of the kingdom of Congo, some authors, writing either from mere conjecture, or at best precarious inferences, have represented it as thinly peopled. The accounts of the missionaries and Portuguese, however, are directly opposite to these. They found the country for the most part covered with towns and villages, and these swarming with inhabitants; the cities well filled with people, particularly the metropolis, which is said to contain above 50,000 souls. The provinces, though not equally populous, yet in the whole make up such an amount as plainly proves, that what is wanting in the one is amply made up by the other. We are told that the duchy of Bamba is still able to raise 200,000 fighting men, and was formerly in a condition to raise double that number; and that the army of the king of Congo, in the year 1665, consisted of 900,000 fighting men, who were attended by an infinite number of women, children, and slaves. The numbers of the Congoese will appear the more credible, when we consider the extreme fecundity of their women, the hardiness with which they bring up their children, and the stoutness and healthiness of their men. In some villages, if the missionaries are to be credited, the number of children is so great, that a father will part with one or two, for any commodity he wants, or even for some trifling bauble he fancies; so that the number of slaves they sell abroad seldom amounts, *communibus annis*, to less than 15,000 or 16,000.

15 Congoese have a high opinion of themselves.

There is scarcely a nation on earth that have a higher opinion of themselves or their country than the Congoese, or that is more hardened against all conviction to the contrary, from reason, experience, or the most impartial comparison with other countries in Europe or Asia. Indeed it is impossible they should think otherwise, when it is one of the fundamentals of their belief, that the rest of the world was the work of angels, but that the kingdom of Congo, in its full and ancient extent, was the handywork of the Supreme Architect; and must of course have vast prerogatives and advantages over all others. When told of the magnificence of the European and Asiatic courts, their immense revenues, the grandeur of their palaces and edifices, the richness and happiness of their subjects, the great progress they have made in the arts and sciences to which their country is wholly a stranger, they coolly answer, that all this comes vastly short of the dignity and splendour of the kings and kingdom of Congo; and that there can be but one Congo in the world, to the happiness of whose monarch and people all the rest were created to contribute, and to whose treasury the sea and rivers pay their constant tribute of zimbis (or shells, which are their current coin); whilst other princes must condescend to enrich themselves by digging through rocks and mountains, to come at the excrements of the earth, so they style gold and silver which are in such request among other nations. Accordingly, they imagine, that the nations which come to traffic with them, are forced to that servile employment by their poverty and the badness of their country, rather than induced to it by luxury or avarice; whilst they themselves can indulge their natural indolence or sloth, though attended with the most pinching poverty, rather than disgrace the dignity of their blood by the least effort of industry, which, how laudable and beneficial soever, is looked upon by them as only a lesser degree of slavery. But though they generally esteem it so much below their dignity to apply to any useful

16 Their sloth, pride, &c.

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useful work, they think it no disgrace to beg or steal. With respect to the first, they are said to be the most shameless and importunate beggars in the world. They will take no denial, spare no crouching, lying, prayers, to obtain what they want, nor curses and ill language when sent away without it. With regard to the last, they deem no theft unlawful or scandalous, except it be committed in a private manner, without the knowledge of the person wronged. It is esteemed a piece of bravery and gallantry to wrench any thing from another by violence; and this kind of theft is so common, not only among the vulgar, but also among the great ones, that they make no scruple, in their travels from place to place, to seize not only upon all the provisions they meet with in towns and villages, but upon every thing else that falls in their way. These violences oblige the poor people to conceal the few valuables they have, in some secret place out of the knowledge and reach of those harpies; and they think themselves well off if they can escape a severe bastinading, or other cruel usage, frequently inflicted upon them, in order to make them discover the place of their concealment.

17 Complexion, character, customs, &c.

The complexion of the natives, both men and women, is black, though not in the same degree; some being of a much deeper black than others. Their hair is black and finely curled; some have it also of a dark sandy colour: their eyes are mostly of a fine lively black; but some are of a dark sea-colour. They have neither flat noses nor thick lips like the Nubians and other negroes. Their stature is mostly of the middle size; and, excepting their black complexion, they much resemble the Portuguese. In their temper, they are mistrustful, envious, jealous, and treacherous; and where they once take a distaste or affront, will spare no pains, and stick at no means, however base, to be avenged of, and crush their enemy under their feet. There is no such thing among them as natural affection. A husband, if a Heathen, may take as many wives as he pleases; and if a Christian, may have any number of concubines, whom he may divorce at pleasure, and even sell them though with child. So little regard have they for their children, that there is scarce one among them who will not sell a son or a daughter, or perhaps both, for a piece of cloth, a collar or girdle of coral or beads, and often for a bottle of wine or brandy.

18 Religion.

The religion of the Congoese in many parts is downright idolatry, accompanied with the most ridiculous superstitions, and the most absurd and detestable rites invented by their gangas or priests; and even in those parts where Christianity is professed, it is so darkened by superstitions of one kind or other, that we may justly question whether the people are any gainers by the exchange.

19 Government.

The government of this kingdom is monarchical, and as despotic as any in Asia or Africa. The kings are the sole proprietors of all the lands within their dominions; and these they can dispose of to whom they please, upon condition they pay a certain tribute out of them: upon failure of the payment of which, or any other neglect, they turn them out. Even the princes of the blood are subjected to the same law; so that there is no person of any rank or quality whatever that can bequeath a foot of land to his heirs or successors; and when these owners under the crown die, the lands immediately return to it again, whether they were in their possession, or had been left to ever so many tenants under them; so that it entirely depends on the prince whether these lands shall be continued in the same, or be disposed into other hands. The Portuguese, however, since their settling in these parts, have prevailed upon the monarchs to permit the heirs and successors to continue in the quiet possession of such lands, in order to avoid the confusions, or even rebellions, which the alienation and deprival of them frequently occasioned, and to oblige the tenants of them to pay their tribute more exactly and readily than they did before.

Congo, Congregation,

20 Commerce.

St Salvador is the chief place of trade in this country belonging to the Portuguese and other Europeans. There are thought to be about 4000 of them settled here, who trade with most parts of the kingdom. The chief commodities they bring hither are either the product of Brazil or European manufactures. The former consist chiefly of grains, fruits, plants, &c.; the latter of Turkey carpets, English cloth, and other stuffs; copper, brass vessels, some kinds of blue earthen ware, rings, and ornaments of gold, silver, and other baser metals; coral, glass-beads, bugles, and other trinkets; light stuffs made of cotton, woollen, and linen, for clothing; and a great variety of tools and other utensils. In return for these they carry off a great number of slaves, amounting to 15,000 or 16,000 annually, as we have already observed. Formerly they used also to carry away elephants teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country; but those branches of commerce are now greatly decayed, and the slave-trade is what the Portuguese merchants principally depend on.

CONGO, a term applied to tea of the second quality.

CONGREGATION, an assembly of several ecclesiastics, united so as to constitute a body.

The term is principally used for assemblies of cardinals appointed by the pope, and distributed into several chambers, for the discharge of certain functions and jurisdictions, after the manner of our offices and courts. The first is the congregation of the holy office, or the inquisition: the second, that of jurisdiction over bishops and regulars; the third, that of councils; this has power to interpret the council of Trent: the fourth, that of customs, ceremonies, precedencies, canonizations, called *the congregation of rites*: the fifth, that of St Peter's fabric, which takes cognizance of all causes relating to piety and charity, part whereof is due to the church of St Peter: the sixth, that of waters, rivers, roads: the seventh, of fountains and streets: the eighth, that of the index, which examines the books to be printed or corrected: the ninth, that of the council of state, for the management of the territories belonging to the pope and church (see CAMERLINGO): the tenth, *de bono regimine*; of which two last the cardinal nephew is chief: the eleventh, that of money: the twelfth, that of bishops, wherein those who are to be promoted to bishoprics in Italy are examined; this is held before the pope: the thirteenth, that of consistorial matters; the chief whereof is the cardinal dean: the fourteenth, a congregation for propagating the faith (see COLLEGE): and the fifteenth, that of ecclesiastical immunity, for settling suits against churchmen. There is also a congregation.

tion of alms, which takes care of every thing that relates to the ſubſiſtence of Rome and the ſtate of the church.

CONGREGATION is alſo uſed for a company or ſociety of religious cantoned out of this or that order; and making, as it were, an inferior order, or a ſubdiviſion of the order itſelf. Such are the congregations of the oratory, and thoſe of Cluny, &c. among the Benedictines.

The word is alſo uſed for aſſemblies of pious perſons in manner of fraternities, frequent among the Jeſuits, in honour of the Virgin, &c. It is likewiſe applied to the audience in a church, particularly as conſiſting of the inhabitants of the ſame pariſh.

CONGREGATIONALISTS, in church-hiſtory, a ſect of Proteſtants who reject all church-government, except that of a ſingle congregation under the direction of one paſtor.

CONGRESS, in political affairs, an aſſembly of commiſſioners, envoys, deputies, &c. from ſeveral courts meeting to concert matters for their common good.

CONGRESS, in America, is the aſſembly of delegates from the United States. See AMERICA.

CONGRESS, in a judicial ſenſe, the trial made by appointment of a judge before ſurgeons and matrons, in order to prove whether or not a man be impotent, before ſentence is paſſed for the diſſolution of a marriage ſolicited upon ſuch a complaint.

Neither the civil nor canon law makes any mention of the trial of virility by congreſs. It had its origin in France from the boldneſs of a young fellow, who, in open court, having been hard preſſed by his wife, demanded the congreſs. The judge, ſurpriſed with the novelty of the demand, found it could not be denied, as being the ſureſt evidence that the caſe could admit of. In time it became a branch in the French juriſprudence, and was authorized by decreets and arrets. It obtained for about 120 years; and was annulled by an arret of parliament in 1677, as being found precarious; ſome having failed under the experiment out of mere modeſty and ſhame, which is found to have the ſame effect with actual impotency.

CONGREVE, WILLIAM, a younger brother of an ancient family in Staffordſhire. His father was employed in the ſtewardſhip of the great eſtate of the earl of Burlington in Ireland, where he reſided many years; and our author was born there in 1672. Mr Congreve entered into the Middle-Temple when he came to England, and began to ſtudy the law; but his bias was toward polite literature and poetry. His firſt performance was a novel entitled, *Incognita*, or *Love and Duty reconciled*. He ſoon after began his comedy of the *Old Bachelor*; which was the amuſement of ſome leiſure hours during a ſlow recovery from a fit of illneſs ſoon after his return to England; yet was in itſelf ſo perfect, that Mr Dryden, on its being ſhown to him, declared he had never in his life ſeen ſuch a firſt play. When brought on the ſtage in 1693, it met with ſuch univerſal approbation, that Mr Congreve, though he was but 19 years old at the time of his writing it, became now conſidered as a prop to the declining ſtage, and a riſing genius in dramatic poetry. The next year he produced the *Double-Dealer*; which, for what reaſon is not obvious, did not meet with ſo much ſucceſs as the former. The merit of his firſt play, however, had obtained him the favour and patronage of Lord Halifax, and ſome peculiar mark of diſtinction from Queen Mary; on whoſe death, which happened in the cloſe of this year, he wrote a very elegant elegiac paſtoral. In 1695, when Betterton opened the new houſe in Lincoln's Inn Fields, Mr Congreve joining with him, gave him his comedy of *Love for Love*; with which the company opened their campaign, and which met with ſuch ſucceſs, that they immediately offered the author a ſhare in the management of the houſe, on condition of his furniſhing them with one play yearly. This offer he accepted; but whether through indolence, or that correctneſs which he looked upon as neceſſary to his works, his *Mourning Bride* did not come out till 1697, nor his *Way of the World* till two years after that. The indifferent ſucceſs this laſt mentioned play, though an exceeding good one, met with from the public, completed that diſguſt to the theatre, which a long conteſt with Jeremy Collier, who had attacked the immoralities of the Engliſh ſtage, and more eſpecially ſome of his pieces, had begun, and he determined never more to write for the ſtage. However, though he quitted dramatic writing, he did not lay down the pen entirely; but occaſionally wrote many little pieces both in proſe and verſe, all of which ſtand on the records of literary fame. It is very poſſible, however, that he might not ſo ſoon have given way to this diſguſt, had not the eaſineſs of his circumſtances rendered any ſubſervience to the opinions and caprice of the town abſolutely unneceſſary to him. For his abilities having very early in life raiſed him to the acquaintance of the earl of Halifax, who was then the Mecænas of the age; that nobleman, deſirous of raiſing ſo promiſing a genius above the neceſſity of too haſty productions, made him one of the commiſſioners for licenſing hackney-coaches; or, according to Coxeter, a commiſſioner of the wine-licenſe. He ſoon after beſtowed on him a place in the pipe-office; and not long after gave him a poſt in the cuſtoms worth 600l. per annum. In the year 1718, he was appointed ſecretary of Jamaica; ſo that the whole of his income towards the latter part of his life was upwards of 1200l. a-year.

The greateſt part of the laſt 20 years of his life was ſpent in eaſe and retirement; and he either did not, or affected not to give himſelf any trouble about reputation. Yet ſome part of that conduct might proceed from a degree of pride; to which purpoſe, T. Cibber, in his Lives of the Poets, vol. iv. p. 93. relates the following anecdote of him: "When the celebrated Voltaire was in England, he waited upon Mr Congreve, and paſſed ſome compliments upon the merit and reputation of his works. Congreve thanked him; but at the ſame time told that ingenious foreigner, that he did not chooſe to be conſidered as an author, but only as a private gentleman, and in that light expected to be viſited. Voltaire anſwered, that if he had never been any thing but a private gentleman, in all probability he had never been troubled with that viſit." He obſerves, in his own account of the tranſaction, that he was not a little diſguſted with ſo unſeaſonable a piece of vanity.

Towards the cloſe of his life he was much afflicted with the gout; and making a tour to Bath for the benefit

nefit of the waters, was unfortunately overturned in his chariot: by which, it is ſuppoſed, he got ſome inward bruiſe, as he ever after complained of a pain in his ſide; and, on his return to London, continued gradually declining in his health, till the 19th of January 1729, when he died, aged 57; and, on the 26th following, was buried in Weſtminſter Abbey, the pall being ſupported by perſons of the firſt diſtinction.

CONGRUITY, a ſuitableneſs or relation of agreement between things.

The terms *congruity* and *propriety* are not applicable to any ſingle object: they imply a plurality, and obviouſly ſignify a particular relation between different objects. Thus we currently ſay, that a decent garb is ſuitable or proper for a judge; modeſt behavour for a young woman; and a lofty ſtyle for an epic poem: and on the other hand, that it is unſuitable or incongruous to ſee a little woman ſunk in an overgrown farthingale, a coat richly embroidered covering coarſe and dirty linen, a mean ſubject in an elevated ſtyle, an elevated ſubject in a mean ſtyle, a firſt miniſter darning his wife's ſtocking, or a reverend prelate in lawn ſleeves dancing a hornpipe.

The perception we have of this relation, which ſeems peculiar to man, cannot proceed from any other cauſe, but from a *ſenſe* of congruity or propriety; for, ſuppoſing us deſtitute of that ſenſe, the terms would be to us unintelligible.

It is a matter of experience, that congruity or propriety, wherever perceived, is agreeable; and that incongruity, or impropriety, wherever perceived, is diſagreeable. The only difficulty is, to aſcertain what are the particular objects that in conjunction ſuggeſt theſe relations; for there are many objects that do not: the ſea, for example, viewed in conjunction with a picture, or a man viewed in conjunction with a mountain, ſuggeſt not either congruity or incongruity. It ſeems natural to infer, what will be found true by induction, that we never perceive congruity or incongruity but among things that are connected together by ſome relation; ſuch as a man and his actions, a principal and his acceſſories, a ſubject and its ornaments. We are indeed ſo framed by nature, as, among things ſo connected, to require a certain ſuitableneſs or correſpondence, termed *congruity* or *propriety;* and to be diſpleaſed when we find the oppoſite relation of *incongruity* or *impropriety.*

If things connected be the ſubject of congruity, it is reaſonable before hand to expect, that a degree of congruity ſhould be required proportioned to the degree of the connexion. And upon examination we find this to hold in fact: where the relation is intimate, as between a cauſe and its effect, a whole and its parts, we require the ſtricteſt congruity; but where the relation is ſlight, or accidental, as among things jumbled together in the ſame place, we require little or no congruity: the ſtricteſt propriety is required in behaviour and manner of living; becauſe a man is connected with theſe by the relation of cauſe and effect: the relation between an edifice and the ground it ſtands upon, is of the moſt intimate kind: and therefore the ſituation of a great houſe ought to be lofty; its relation to neighbouring hills, rivers, plains, being that of propinquity only, demands but a ſmall ſhare of congruity; among members of the ſame club, the congruity ought to be conſiderable, as well as among things placed for ſhow in the ſame niche: among paſſengers in a ſtage coach, we require very little congruity; and leſs ſtill at a public ſpectacle.

Congruity is ſo nearly allied to beauty, as commonly to be held a ſpecies of it; and yet they differ ſo eſſentially as never to coincide: beauty, like colour, is placed upon a ſingle ſubject; congruity upon a plurality: further, a thing beautiful in itſelf, may, with relation to other things, produce the ſtrongeſt ſenſe of incongruity.

Congruity and propriety are commonly reckoned ſynonymous terms; but they are diſtinguiſhable, and the preciſe meaning of each muſt be aſcertained. Congruity is the genus of which propriety is a ſpecies; for we call nothing *propriety*, but that congruity or ſuitableneſs which ought to ſubſiſt between ſenſible beings and their thoughts, words, and actions.

In order to give a full view of theſe ſecondary relations, we ſhall trace them through ſome of the moſt conſiderable primary relations. The relation of a part to the whole, being extremely intimate, demands the utmoſt degree of congruity; even the ſlighteſt deviation is diſguſtful.

Examples of congruity and incongruity are furniſhed in plenty by the relation between a ſubject and its ornaments. A literary performance intended merely for amuſement, is ſuſceptible of much ornament, as well as a muſic-room or a play-houſe; for in gaiety, the mind hath a peculiar reliſh for ſhow and decoration. The moſt gorgeous apparel, however improper in tragedy, is not unſuitable to opera-actors; the truth is, an opera, in its preſent form, is a mighty fine thing; but as it deviates from nature in its capital circumſtances, we look not for nature or propriety in thoſe which are acceſſory. On the other hand, a ſerious and important ſubject admits not much ornament: nor a ſubject that of itſelf is extremely beautiful: and a ſubject that fills the mind with its loftineſs and grandeur, appears beſt in a dreſs altogether plain.

To a perſon of a mean appearance, gorgeous apparel is unſuitable; which, beſides the incongruity, has a bad effect; for by contraſt it ſhows the meanneſs of appearance in the ſtrongeſt light. Sweetneſs of look and manner requires ſimplicity of dreſs, joined with the greateſt elegance. A ſtately and majeſtic air requires ſumptuous apparel, which ought not to be gaudy, nor crowded with little ornaments. A woman of conſummate beauty can bear to be highly adorned, and yet ſhows beſt in a plain dreſs:

——————————For lovelineſs
Needs not the foreign aid of ornament,
But is, when unadorn'd, adorn'd the moſt.
Thomſon's Autumn, 208.

Congruity regulates not only the quantity of ornament, but alſo the kind. The ornaments that embelliſh a dancing room ought to be all of them gay. No picture is proper for a church but what has religion for its ſubject. All the ornaments upon a ſhield ought to relate to war; and Virgil, with great judgement, confines the carvings upon the ſhield of Æneas to the military hiſtory of the Romans: but this beauty is overlooked by Homer; for the bulk of the ſculp-

Congruity.

ture upon the ſhield of Achilles, is of the arts of peace in general, and of joy and feſtivity in particular: the author of Telemachus betrays the ſame inattention, in deſcribing that young hero.

In judging of propriety with regard to ornaments, we muſt attend, not only to the nature of the ſubject that is to be adorned, but alſo to the circumſtances in which it is placed; the ornaments that are proper for a ball, will appear not altogether ſo decent at public worſhip; and the ſame perſon ought to dreſs differently for a marriage feaſt and for a burial.

Nothing is more intimately related to a man, than his ſentiments, words, and actions; and therefore we require here the ſtricteſt conformity. When we find what we thus require, we have a lively ſenſe of propriety: when we find the contrary, our ſenſe of impropriety is not leſs lively. Hence the univerſal diſtaſte of affectation, which conſiſts in making a ſhow of greater delicacy and refinement than is ſuited either to the character or circumſtance of the perſon.

Congruity and propriety, wherever perceived, appear agreeable; and every agreeable object produces in the mind a pleaſant emotion: incongruity and impropriety, on the other hand, are diſagreeable; and of courſe produce painful emotions. Theſe emotions, whether pleaſant or painful, ſometimes vaniſh without any conſequence; but more frequently occaſion other emotions, which we proceed to exemplify.

When any ſlight incongruity is perceived in an accidental combination of perſons or things, as of paſſengers in a ſtage-coach, or of individuals dining at an ordinary; the painful emotion of incongruity, after a momentary exiſtence, vaniſheth without producing any effect. But this is not the caſe of propriety and impropriety: voluntary acts, whether words or deeds, are imputed to the author; when proper we reward him with our eſteem; when improper, we puniſh him with our contempt. Let us ſuppoſe, for example, a generous action ſuited to the character of the author, which raiſes in him and in every ſpectator the pleaſant emotion of propriety; this emotion generates in the author both ſelf-eſteem and joy, the former when he conſiders his relation to the action, and the latter when he conſiders the good opinion that others will entertain of him: the ſame emotion of propriety produceth in the ſpectators eſteem for the author of the action: and when they think of themſelves, it alſo produceth, by means of contraſt, an emotion of humility. To diſcover the effects of an unſuitable action, we muſt invert each of theſe circumſtances: the painful emotion of impropriety generates in the author of the action both humility and ſhame; the former when he conſiders his relation to the action, and the latter when he conſiders what others will think of him: the ſame emotion of impropriety produceth in the ſpectators contempt for the author of the action; and it alſo produceth, by means of contraſt, when they think of themſelves, an emotion of ſelf-eſteem. Here then are many different emotions, derived from the ſame action, conſidered in different views by different perſons; a machine provided with many ſprings, and not a little complicated. Propriety of action, it would ſeem, is a chief favourite of nature, when ſuch care and ſolicitude is beſtowed upon it. It is not left to our own choice; but, like juſtice, is required at our hands; and, like juſtice, is enforced by natural rewards and puniſhments: a man cannot, with impunity, do any thing unbecoming or improper; he ſuffers the chaſtiſement of contempt inflicted by others, and of ſhame inflicted by himſelf. An apparatus ſo complicated, and ſo ſingular, ought to rouſe our attention: for nature doth nothing in vain; and we may conclude with great certainty, that this curious branch of the human conſtitution is intended for ſome valuable purpoſe.

A groſs impropriety is puniſhed with contempt and indignation, which are vented againſt the offender by correſponding external expreſſions; nor is even the ſlighteſt impropriety ſuffered to paſs without ſome degree of contempt. But there are improprieties, of the ſlighter kind, that provoke laughter: of which we have examples without end, in the blunders and abſurdities of our own ſpecies: ſuch improprieties receive a different puniſhment, as will appear by what follows. The emotions of contempt and of laughter occaſioned by an impropriety of this kind, uniting intimately in the mind of the ſpectator, are expreſſed externally by a peculiar ſort of laugh, termed *a laugh of deriſion* or *ſcorn*. An impropriety that thus moves not only contempt, but laughter, is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *ridiculous*; and a laugh of deriſion or ſcorn is the puniſhment provided for it by nature. Nor ought it to eſcape obſervation, that we are ſo fond of inflicting this puniſhment, as ſometimes to exert it even againſt creatures of an inferior ſpecies; witneſs a turkey-cock ſwelling with pride, and ſtrutting with diſplayed feathers; a ridiculous object, which in a gay mood is apt to provoke a laugh of deriſion.

We muſt not expect that theſe different improprieties are ſeparated by diſtinct boundaries; for of improprieties from the ſlighteſt to the moſt groſs, from the moſt riſible to the moſt ſerious, there are degrees without end. Hence it is, that in viewing ſome unbecoming actions, too riſible for anger, and too ſerious for deriſion, the ſpectator feels a ſort of mixt emotion, partaking both of deriſion and of anger; which accounts for an expreſſion, common with reſpect to the impropriety of ſome actions, that we know not whether to laugh or be angry.

It cannot fail to be obſerved, that in the caſe of a riſible impropriety, which is always ſlight, the contempt we have for the offender is extremely faint, though deriſion, its gratification, is extremely pleaſant. This diſproportion between a paſſion and its gratification, ſeems not conformable to the analogy of nature. In looking about for a ſolution, we muſt reflect upon what is laid down above, that an improper action not only moves our contempt for the author, but alſo, by means of contraſt, ſwells the good opinion we have of ourſelves. This contributes, more than any other article, to the pleaſure we have in ridiculing follies and abſurdities; and accordingly, it is well known, that they who put the greateſt value upon themſelves are the moſt prone to laugh at others. Pride, which is a vivid paſſion, pleaſant in itſelf, and not leſs ſo in its gratification, would ſingly be ſufficient to account for the pleaſure of ridicule, without borrowing any aid from contempt. Hence appears the reaſon of a noted obſervation, That we are the moſt diſpoſed to ridicule the

Congruity. the blunders and abſurdities of others, when we are in high ſpirits; for in high ſpirits, ſelf-conceit diſplays itſelf with more than ordinary vigour.

With regard to the final cauſes of congruity and impropriety; one regarding congruity, is pretty obvious, that the ſenſe of congruity, as one principle of the fine arts, contributes in a remarkable degree to our entertainment. Congruity, indeed, with reſpect to quantity coincides with proportion: when the parts of a building are nicely adjuſted to each other, it may be ſaid indifferently, that it is agreeable by the congruity of its parts, or by the proportion of its parts. But propriety, which regards voluntary agents only, can never be the ſame with proportion, a very long noſe is diſproportioned, but cannot be termed *improper*. In ſome inſtances, it is true, impropriety coincides with diſproportion in the ſame ſubject, but never in the ſame reſpect; for example, a very little man buckled to a long toledo: conſidering the man and the ſword with reſpect to ſize, we perceive a diſproportion; conſidering the ſword as the choice of the man, we perceive an impropriety.

The ſenſe of impropriety with reſpect to miſtakes, blunders, and abſurdities, is happily contrived for the good of mankind. In the ſpectators, it is productive of mirth and laughter, excellent recreation in an interval from buſineſs. But this is a trifle in reſpect of what follows. It is painful to be the ſubject of ridicule; and to puniſh with ridicule the man who is guilty of an abſurdity, tends to put him more upon his guard in time coming. Thus even the moſt innocent blunder is not committed with impunity; becauſe, were errors licenſed where they do not hurt, inattention would grow into a habit, and be the occaſion of much hurt.

The final cauſe of propriety as to moral duties, is of all the moſt illuſtrious. To have a juſt notion of it, the moral duties that reſpect others muſt be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe that reſpect ourſelves. Fidelity, gratitude, and the forbearing injury, are examples of the firſt ſort; temperance, modeſty, firmneſs of mind, are examples of the other; the former are made duties by the ſenſe of juſtice; the latter by the ſenſe of propriety. Here is a final cauſe of the ſenſe of propriety, that muſt rouſe our attention. It is undoubtedly the intereſt of every man, to ſuit his behaviour to the dignity of his nature, and to the ſtation allotted him by Providence; for ſuch rational conduct contributes in every reſpect to happineſs, by preſerving health, by procuring plenty, by gaining the eſteem of others, and, which of all is the greateſt bleſſing, by gaining a juſtly-founded ſelf-eſteem. But in a matter ſo eſſential to our well-being, even ſelf-intereſt is not relied on; the powerful authority of duty is ſuperadded to the motive of intereſt. The God of nature, in all things eſſential to our happineſs, hath obſerved one uniform method; to keep us ſteady in our conduct, he hath fortified us with natural laws and principles, which prevent many aberrations, that would daily happen were we totally ſurrendered to ſo fallible a guide as human reaſon. Propriety cannot rightly be conſidered in another light, than as the natural law that regulates our conduct with reſpect to ourſelves; as juſtice is the natural law that regulates our conduct with reſpect to others. We call propriety a law, not leſs than juſtice; becauſe both are equally rules of conduct that ought to be obeyed: propriety includes this obligation; for to ſay an action is proper, is, in other words, to ſay, that it *ought* to be performed; and to ſay it is improper, is, in other words, to ſay that it ought to be forborne. It is this very character of *ought* and *ſhould* that makes juſtice a law to us; and the ſame character is applicable to propriety, though perhaps more faintly than to juſtice: but the difference is in degree only, not in kind; and we ought, without heſitation or reluctance, to ſubmit equally to the government of both. Congruity, Coni.

But it muſt, in the next place, be obſerved, that to the ſenſe of propriety, as well as of juſtice, are annexed the ſanctions of rewards and puniſhments; which evidently prove the one to be a law as well as the other. The ſatisfaction a man hath in doing his duty, joined with the eſteem and good will of others, is the reward that belongs to both equally. The puniſhments alſo, though not the ſame, are nearly allied; and differ in degree more than in quality. Diſobedience to the law of juſtice, is puniſhed with remorſe; diſobedience to the law of propriety, with ſhame, which is remorſe in a lower degree. Every tranſgreſſion of the law of juſtice raiſes indignation in the beholder; and ſo doth every flagrant tranſgreſſion of the law of propriety. Slighter improprieties receive a milder puniſhment: they are always rebuked with ſome degree of contempt and frequently with deriſion. In general, it is true that the rewards and puniſhments annexed to the ſenſe of propriety, are ſlighter in degree than thoſe annexed to the ſenſe of juſtice: which is wiſely ordered, becauſe duty to others is ſtill more eſſential to ſociety than duty to ourſelves; for ſociety could not ſubſiſt a moment were individuals not protected from the headlong and turbulent paſſion of their neighbours.

CONI, a ſtrong town of Italy in Piedmont, and capital of a territory of that name, with a good citadel. The town being divided into two factions, it ſurrendered to the French in 1641; but was reſtored to the duke of Savoy ſoon after. It is ſeated at the confluence of the rivers Greſſe and Sture. Its trade is conſiderable, being the repoſitory of all merchandiſe from Turin and Nice, deſigned for Lombardy, Switzerland, and Germany. It contains about 10,000 people beſides the garriſon. It was taken by the French in April 1796. E. Long. 7. 45. N. Lat. 44. 30.

CONIC SECTIONS.

INTRODUCTION.

IN treating of ſo conſiderable a branch of the mathematical ſciences as the Conic Sections, it would be improper to paſs over in total ſilence the hiſtory of thoſe remarkable curves. But this topic will not require any long detail. None of the works of the more early Greek geometers have reached our time; nor have we any work of antiquity profeſſedly written on the ſubject of our inquiry. Our curioſity muſt therefore reſt ſatisfied with the knowledge of a few incidental notices and facts, gleaned from different authors.

The diſcovery of the conic ſections ſeems to have originated in the ſchool of *Plato*, in which geometry was highly reſpected, and much cultivated. It is probable that the followers of that philoſopher were led to the diſcovery of theſe curves, and to the inveſtigation of many of their properties, in ſeeking to reſolve the two famous problems of the duplication of the cube, and the triſection of an angle, for which the artifices of the ordinary or plane geometry were inſufficient. Two ſolutions of the former problem, by the help of the conic ſections, are preſerved by *Eutocias**, and are attributed by him to *Menæchmus*, the ſcholar of *Eudoxus*, who lived not much poſterior to the time of Plato: and this circumſtance, added to a few words in an epigram of *Eratoſthenes*†, has been thought ſufficient authority, by ſome authors, to aſcribe the honour of the diſcovery of the conic ſections to *Menæchmus*. We may at leaſt infer that, at this epoch, geometers had made ſome progreſs in developing the properties of theſe curves.

* In *Arch.* lib. ii. de Sph. et Cyl.

† Ibid.

The writings of *Archimedes* that have reached us explicitly ſhew, that the geometers before his time had advanced a great length in inveſtigating the properties of the conic ſections. This author expreſsly mentions many principal propoſitions to have been demonſtrated by preceding writers; and he often refers to properties of the conic ſections, as truths commonly divulged, and known to mathematicians. His own diſcoveries in this branch of ſcience are worthy of the moſt profound and inventive genius of antiquity. In the quadrature of the parabola he gave the firſt, and the moſt remarkable inſtance that has yet been diſcovered, of the exact equality of a curvilineal to a rectilineal ſpace. He determined the proportion of the elliptic ſpaces to the circle; and he invented many propoſitions reſpecting the menſuration of the ſolids formed by the revolution of the conic ſections about their axes.

It is chiefly from the writings of *Apollonius* of Perga, a town in Pamphylia, on the ſubject of the conic ſections, that we know how far the ancient mathematicians carried their ſpeculations concerning theſe curves. *Apollonius* flouriſhed under *Ptolemy Philopator*, about forty years later than *Archimedes*. He formed his taſte for geometry, and acquired that ſuperior ſkill in the ſcience to which he is indebted for his fame, in the ſchool of Alexandria, under the ſucceſſors of *Euclid*. Beſides his great work on the conic ſections, he was the author of many ſmaller treatiſes, relating chiefly to the geometrical analyſis, the originals of which have all periſhed, and are only known to modern mathematicians by the account given of them by *Pappus* of Alexandria, in the ſeventh book of his *Mathematical Collections*.

The work of *Apollonius* on the conic ſections, written in eight books, was held in ſuch high eſtimation by the ancients, as to procure for him the name of the Great Geometer. The firſt four books of this treatiſe only have come down to us in the original Greek. It is the purpoſe of theſe four books, as we are informed in the prefatory epiſtle to *Eudemus*, to deliver the elements of the ſcience; and in this part of his labour, the author claims no farther merit than that of having collected, amplified, and reduced to order, the diſcoveries of preceding mathematicians. One improvement introduced by Apollonius is too remarkable to be paſſed over without notice. The geometers who preceded him derived each curve from a *right cone*, which they conceived to be cut by a plane perpendicular to its ſlant ſide. It will readily be perceived, from what is ſhewn in the firſt ſection of the fourth part of the following treatiſe, that the ſection would be a parabola when the vertical angle of the cone was a right angle; an ellipſe when it was acute; and a hyperbola when it was obtuſe. Thus each curve was derived from a different ſort of cone. *Apollonius* was the firſt to ſhew that all the curves are produced from any ſort of cone, whether right or oblique, according to the different inclinations of the cutting plane. This fact is one remarkable inſtance of the adherence of the mind to its firſt conceptions, and of the ſlowneſs and difficulty with which it generalizes.

The original of the firſt four books of the treatiſe of *Apollonius* is loſt; nor is it eaſy to aſcertain in what age it diſappeared. In the year 1658 *Borelli* diſcovered at Florence an Arabic manuſcript, entitled *Apollonii Pergæi Conicorum Libri Octo*. By the liberality of the *Duke of Tuſcany* he was permitted to carry the manuſcript to Rome, and, with the aid of an Arabic ſcholar, *Abraham Ecchellenſis*, he publiſhed in 1661 a Latin tranſlation of it. The manuſcript, although from its title it was expected to be a complete tranſlation of all the eight books, was yet found to contain only the firſt ſeven books: and it is remarkable, that another manuſcript, brought from the eaſt by *Golius*, the learned profeſſor of Leyden, ſo early as 1664, as well as a third, of which *Ravius* publiſhed a tranſlation in 1669, have the ſame defect: all the three manuſcripts agreeing in the want of the eighth book, we may now conſider that part of the work of *Apollonius* as irrecoverably loſt. Fortunately, in the *Collectiones Mathematicæ* of *Pappus*, in whoſe time the entire treatiſe of *Apollonius* was extant, there is preſerved

ſerved ſome account of the ſubjects treated in each book, and all the *Lemmata* required in the inveſtigations of the propoſitions they contain. *Dr Halley*, who in 1710 gave a correct edition of the Conics of *Apollonius*, guided in his reſearches by the lights derived from *Pappus*, has reſtored the eighth book with ſo much ability as to leave little room to regret the original.

The four laſt books of the Conics of *Apollonius*, containing the higher or more recondite parts of the ſcience, are generally ſuppoſed to be the fruit of the author's own reſearches; and they do much honour to the geometrical ſkill and invention of the Great Geometer. Even in our times the whole treatiſe muſt be regarded as a very extenſive, if not a complete work on the conic ſections. Modern mathematicians make important applications of theſe curves, with which the ancients were unacquainted; and they have been thus led to conſider the ſubject in particular points of view, ſuited to their purpoſes; but they have made few diſcoveries, of which there are not ſome traces to be found in the work of the illuſtrious ancient.

The geometers who followed *Apollonius* ſeem to have contented themſelves with the humble taſk of commenting on his treatiſe, and of rendering it of more eaſy acceſs to the bulk of mathematicians. Till about the middle of the 16th century, the hiſtory of this branch of mathematical ſcience preſents nothing remarkable. The ſtudy of it was then revived; and ſince that time this part of mathematics has been more cultivated, or has been illuſtrated by a greater variety of ingenious writings.

Among the ancients, the ſtudy of the conic ſections was a ſubject of pure intellectual ſpeculation. The applications of the properties of theſe curves in natural philoſophy have, in modern times, given to this part of the mathematics a degree of importance that it did not formerly poſſeſs. That which, in former times, might be conſidered as intereſting only to the learned theoriſt and profound mathematician, is now a neceſſary attainment to him who would not be ignorant of thoſe diſcoveries in nature, that do the greateſt honour to the preſent age.

It is curious to remark the progreſs of diſcovery, and the connexion that ſubſiſts between the different branches of human knowledge; and it excites ſome degree of admiration to reflect, that the aſtronomical diſcoveries of *Kepler*, and the ſublime theory of *Newton*, depend on the ſeemingly barren ſpeculations of Greek geometers concerning the ſections of the cone.

Apollonius, and all the writers on conic ſections before *Dr Wallis*, derived the elementary properties of the curves from the nature of the cone. In the ſecond part of his treatiſe *De Sectionibus Conicis*, publiſhed in 1665, Dr Wallis laid aſide the conſideration of the cone, deriving the properties of the curves from a deſcription *in plano*. Since his time authors have been much divided as to the beſt method of defining thoſe curves, and demonſtrating their elementary properties; many of them preferring that of the ancient geometers, while others, and ſome of great note, have followed the example of *Dr Wallis*.

In ſupport of the innovation made by *Dr Wallis*, it is urged, that in the ancient manner of treating the conic ſections, young ſtudents are perplexed, and diſcouraged by the previous matter to be learnt reſpecting the generation and properties of the cone; and that they find it no eaſy matter to conceive ſteadily, and to underſtand diagrams rendered confuſed by lines drawn in different planes: all which difficulties are avoided by defining the curves *in plano* from one of their eſſential properties. It is not our intention particularly to diſcuſs this point; and we have only to add, that, in the following treatiſe, we have choſen to deduce the properties of the conic ſections from their deſcription *in plano*, as better adapted to the nature of a work deſigned for general readers.

A geometrical treatiſe on the conic ſections muſt neceſſarily be founded upon the elements of geometry. As *Euclid's* Elements of Geometry are generally ſtudied, and in every one's hands, we have choſen to refer to it in the demonſtrations. The edition we have uſed is that publiſhed by Profeſſor Playfair of Edinburgh. Although the references are made to Euclid's Elements, yet they will alſo apply to the treatiſe on GEOMETRY given in this Work; for a table is there given, indicating the particular propoſition of our treatiſe that correſponds to each of the moſt material propoſitions in Euclid's Elements.

The references are to be thus underſtood: (20. 1. E.) means the 20th prop. of the 1ſt book of *Euclid's* Elements: (2 cor. 20. 6. E.) means the 2d corollary to the 20th prop. of the ſixth book of the ſame work; and ſo of others. Again, (7.) means the ſeventh propoſition of that PART of the following treatiſe in which ſuch reference happens to occur: (cor. 1.) means the corollary to the firſt propoſition: (2 cor. 3.) means the 2d corollary to the third propoſition, &c.—ſuch references being all made to the propoſitions in the diviſion of the treatiſe in which they are found.

PART I. OF THE PARABOLA.

DEFINITIONS.

Plate CLVI. fig. 1.

I. IF a ſtraight line BC, and a point without it F, be given by poſition in a plane, and a point D be ſuppoſed to move in ſuch a manner that DF, its diſtance from the given point, is equal to DB, its diſtance from the given line, the point D will deſcribe a line DAD, called a *Parabola*.

COROLLARY. The lines DF, DB, may become greater than any given line; therefore the parabola extends to a greater diſtance from the point F, and the line BC, than any that can be aſſigned.

II. The ſtraight line BC, which is given by poſition, is called the *Directrix of the Parabola*.

III. The given point F is called the *Focus*.

IV. A ſtraight line perpendicular to the directrix, terminated at one extremity by the parabola, and produced indefinitely within it, is called a *Diameter*.

V. The point in which a diameter meets the parabola is called its *Vertex*.

VI. The

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VI. The diameter which passes through the focus is called the *Axis of the parabola;* and the vertex of the axis is called the *Principal Vertex.*

Cor. A perpendicular drawn from the focus to the directrix is bisected at the vertex of the axis.

VII. A straight line terminated both ways by the parabola, and bisected by a diameter, is called an *Ordinate to that diameter.*

VIII. The segment of a diameter between its vertex, and an ordinate, is called an *Abscis.*

IX. A straight line quadruple the distance between the vertex of a diameter and the directrix, is called the *Parameter*, also the *Latus Rectum of that diameter.*

X. A straight line meeting the parabola only in one point, and which everywhere else falls without it, is said to *touch* the parabola at that point, and is called a *Tangent to the parabola.*

Proposition I.

The distance of any point without the parabola from the focus is greater than its distance from the directrix; and the distance of any point within the parabola from the focus is less than its distance from the directrix.

Fig. 2. Let DA*d* be a parabola, of which F is the focus, GC the directrix, and P a point without the curve, that is, on the same side of the curve with the directrix; PF, a line drawn to the focus, will be greater than PG, a perpendicular to the directrix. For, as PF must necessarily cut the curve, let D be the point of intersection; draw DB perpendicular to the directrix, and join PB. Because D is a point in the parabola, DB=DF (Definition 1.), therefore PF=PD+DB; but PD+DB is greater than PB (20. 1. E.), and therefore still greater than PG (19. 1. E.), therefore PF is greater than PG.

Again, let Q be a point within the parabola, QF, a line drawn to the focus, is less than QB, a perpendicular to the directrix. The perpendicular QB necessarily cuts the curve; let D be the point of intersection; join DF. Then DF=DB (Def. 1.), and QD+DF=QB; but QF is less than QD+DF, therefore QF is less than QB.

Corollary. A point is without or within the parabola, according as its distance from the focus is greater or less than its distance from the directrix.

Prop. II.

Every straight line perpendicular to the directrix meets the parabola, and every diameter falls wholly within it.

Fig. 2. Let the straight line BQ be perpendicular to the directrix at B, BQ shall meet the parabola. Draw BF to the focus, and make the angle BFP equal to FBQ; then, because QBC is a right angle, QBF and PFB are each less than a right angle, therefore QB and PF intersect each other; let D be the point of intersection, then DB=DF (5. 1. E.); therefore, D is a point in the parabola. Again, the diameter DQ falls wholly within the parabola; for take Q any point in the diameter, and draw FQ to the focus, then QB or QD+DF is greater than QF, therefore Q is within the parabola (Cor. 1.).

Cor. The parabola continually recedes from the axis, and a point may be found in the curve that shall be at a greater distance from the axis than any assigned line.

Prop. III.

The straight line which bisects the angle contained by two straight lines drawn from any point in the parabola, the one to the focus, and the other perpendicular to the directrix, is a tangent to the curve in that point.

Let D be any point in the curve; let DF be drawn to the focus, and DB perpendicular to the directrix; the straight line DE, which bisects the angle FDB, is a tangent to the curve. Join BF meeting DE in I, take H any other point in DE, join HF, HB, and draw HG perpendicular to the directrix. Because DF=DB, and DI is common to the triangles DFI, DBI, and the angles FDI, BDI, are equal, these triangles are equal, and FI=IB, and hence FH=HB (4. 1. E.): but HB is greater than HG (19. 1. E.); therefore the distance of the point H from the focus is greater than its distance from the directrix, hence that point is without the parabola (Cor. 1.), and therefore HDI is a tangent to the curve at D (Def. 10.). Fig. 3.

Cor. 1. There cannot be more than one tangent to the parabola at the same point. For let any other line DK, except a diameter, be drawn through D; draw FK perpendicular to DK; on D for a centre, with a radius equal to DB, or DF, describe a circle, cutting FK in N; draw NL parallel to the axis, meeting DK in L, and join FL. Then FK=KN (3. 3. E.) and therefore FL=LN. Now BD being perpendicular to the directrix, the circle FBN touches the directrix at B (16. 3. E.); and hence N, any other point in the circumference, is without the directrix, and on the same side of it as the parabola, therefore the point L is nearer to the focus than to the directrix, and consequently is within the parabola. Fig. 4.

Cor. 2. A perpendicular to the axis at its vertex is a tangent to the curve. Let AM be perpendicular to the axis at the vertex A, then RS, the distance of any point in AM from the directrix, is equal to CA, that is, to AF, and therefore is less than RF, the distance of the same point from the focus. Fig. 3.

Cor. 3. A straight line drawn from the focus of a parabola perpendicular to a tangent, and produced to meet the directrix, is bisected by the tangent. For it has been shewn that FB, which is perpendicular to the tangent DI, is bisected at I.

Cor. 4. A tangent to the parabola makes equal angles with the diameter which passes through the point of contact, and a straight line drawn from that point to the focus. For BD being produced to Q, DQ is a diameter, and the angle HDQ is equal to BDE, that is, to EDF. Fig. 3.

Cor. 5. The axis is the only diameter which is perpendicular to a tangent at its vertex. For the angle HDQ, or BDE, is the half of BDF, and therefore less than a right angle, except when BD and DF lie in

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in a ſtraight line, which happens when D falls at the vertex.

SCHOLIUM.

From the property of tangents to the parabola demonſtrated in Cor. 4. the point F takes the name of the *Focus*. For rays of light proceeding parallel to the axis of a parabola, and falling upon a poliſhed ſurface whoſe figure is that produced by the revolution of the parabola about its axis, are reflected to the focus.

PROP. IV.

A ſtraight line drawn from the focus of a parabola to the interſection of two tangents to the curve, will make equal angles with ſtraight lines drawn from the focus to the points of contact.

Fig. 5. LET HP, Hp be tangents to a parabola at the points P, p; let a ſtraight line be drawn from H, their interſection, to F the focus, and let FP, Fp be drawn to the points of contact, the lines PF and pF make equal angles with HF.

Draw PK, pk perpendicular to the directrix; join HK, Hk, join alſo FK, Fk, meeting the tangents in G and g. The triangles FPH, KPH have PF equal to PK, and PH common to both, alſo the angle FPH equal to KPH (3.), therefore FH is equal to KH, and the angle HFP is equal to the angle HKP. In like manner it may be ſhewn that FH is equal to kH, and that the angle HFp is equal to the angle Hkp; therefore HK is equal to Hk, and hence the angle HKk is equal to HkK: now the angles PKk, pkK are right angles, therefore the angle HKP is equal to Hkp; but theſe angles have been ſhewn to be equal to HFP and HFp reſpectively, therefore the lines PF and pF make equal angles with HF.

PROP. V.

Two tangents to a parabola, which are limited by their mutual interſection and the points in which they touch the curve, are to each other reciprocally as the ſines of the angles they contain with ſtraight lines drawn from the points of contact to the focus.

Fig. 6. LET HP, Hp, which interſect each other at H, be tangents to a parabola at the points P, p; and let PF, pF be drawn to the focus: then

HP : Hp :: ſine HpF : ſine HPF.

Join HF; and in FP take FQ equal to Fp, and join HQ; then, the angles at F being equal (4.), the triangles HFQ, HFp are equal, therefore HQ is equal to Hp, and the angle HQF is equal to HpF. Now, in the triangle HPQ,

HP : HQ :: ſine HQP or ſine HQF : ſine HPF (by Trigon.)

therefore HP : Hp :: ſine HpF : ſine HPF.

PROP. VI.

Any ſtraight line terminated both ways by a parabola, and parallel to a tangent, is biſected by the diameter that paſſes through the point of contact; or is an ordinate to that diameter.

THE ſtraight line Dd, terminated by the parabola, and parallel to the tangent HPh, is biſected at E by PE the diameter that paſſes through P the point of contact. Fig. 7.

Let KD, Kd, tangents at the points D, d, meet the tangent at the vertex in H and h; draw DL, dl, parallel to EP, meeting Hh in L and l, and draw DF, dF, PF to the focus.

Becauſe Hh is parallel to Dd,

HD : hd :: KD : Kd.

But KD, Kd being tangents to the parabola,

Sine hdF : ſine HDF :: KD : Kd (5.),

Therefore, ſine hdF : ſine HDF :: HD : hd;

Now ſine kPF : ſine hdF :: hd : hP (5.),

Therefore, (23.5.E.) ſine hPF : ſine HDF :: HD : hP; but ſine HPF, or ſine hPF : ſine HDF :: HD : HP, therefore the ratio of HD to hP is the ſame as that of HD to HP, wherefore HP=Ph.

Again, becauſe the angles HDF and hdF are reſpectively equal to HDL and hdl, (3.)

DH : dh :: ſine hdl : ſine HDL,

Now HL : DH :: ſine HDL : ſine HLD, or ſine hld (by Trigon.)

therefore (23.5.E.) HL : dh :: ſine hdl : ſine hld :: hl : dh, wherefore HL, and hl, have the ſame ratio to dh, hence HL=hl; and ſince it has been ſhewn that HP=Ph, it follows that LP—Pl, and therefore DE=Ed.

COR. 1. Straight lines which touch a parabola at the extremities of an ordinate to a diameter interſect each other in that diameter. For Dd and Hh being ſimilarly divided at E and P, the ſtraight line which joins the points E, P, will paſs through K the vertex of the triangle DKd.

COR. 2. Every ordinate to a diameter is parallel to a tangent at its vertex. For, if not, let a tangent be drawn parallel to the ordinate, then the diameter drawn through the point of contact would biſect the ordinate, and thus the ſame line would be biſected in two different points, which is abſurd.

COR. 3. All the ordinates to the ſame diameter are parallel to each other.

COR. 4. A ſtraight line that biſects two parallel chords, and terminates in the curve, is a diameter.

COR. 5. The ordinates to the axis are perpendicular to it, and no other diameter is perpendicular to its ordinates. This is evident from 2 cor. and 5 cor. to Prop. III.

COR. 6. Hence the axis divides the parabola into two parts which are ſimilar to each other.

PROP. VII.

If a tangent to any point in a parabola meet a diameter, and from the point of contact an ordinate be drawn to that diameter, the ſegment of the diameter between the vertex and the tangent is equal to the ſegment between the vertex and the ordinate.

LET DK, a tangent to the curve at D, meet the diameter EP in K, and let DEd be an ordinate to that diameter, PK is equal to PE. Fig. 7.

Through P, the vertex of the diameter draw the tangent PH, meeting KD in H; draw DL parallel to EP, meeting PH in L, and draw DF, PF to the focus: then

PH

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PH : HD :: ſine HDF : ſine HPF (5.)

But the angle HDF is equal to HDL, and HPF is equal to HPK (3.), that is (becauſe of the parallel lines DL, PK) to HLD, therefore

PH : HD :: ſine HDL : ſine HLD :: HL : HD, wherefore PH=HL, and conſequently PK=DL; but PL is parallel to DE, by laſt propoſition, and therefore DL=PE, therefore PK=PE.

Prop. VIII.

If an ordinate to any diameter paſs through the focus, the abſciſs is equal to one-fourth of the parameter of that diameter, and the ordinate is equal to the whole parameter.

Fig. 8. Let DE d, a ſtraight line paſſing through the focus, be an ordinate to the diameter PE; the abſciſs PE is equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ the parameter, and the ordinate Dd is equal to the whole parameter of the diameter PE.

Let DK, PI be tangents at D and P; let DK meet the diameter in K; draw PF to the focus, and DL parallel to EP. The angles KPI, IPF being equal (3.), and PI parallel to EF (2 cor. 6.), the angles PEF, PFE are alſo equal (29. 1. E.), and PE=PF=$\frac{1}{4}$ the parameter (Def. 9. and Def. 1.). Again, the angle KDE is equal to LDK (3.), and therefore equal to DKE; conſequently ED is equal to EK, or to twice EP (7.): therefore D d is equal to 4 EP, or to 4 PF, that is, to the parameter of the diameter.

Prop. IX.

If any two diameters of a parabola be produced to meet a tangent to the curve, the ſegments of the diameters between their vertices and the tangent are to one another as the ſquares of the ſegments of the tangent intercepted between each diameter and the point of contact.

Fig. 9. Let QH, RK, any two diameters, be produced to meet PI, a tangent to the curve at P, in the points G, I; then

$$HG : KI :: PG^2 : PI^2.$$

Let PN, a ſemi-ordinate to the diameter HQ, meet KR in O, and let PR, a ſemi-ordinate to the diameter KO, meet HN in R; from H draw parallels to NO and QR, meeting KR in L and M, thus HL is a tangent to the curve, and HM a ſemi-ordinate to KR.

Now KI=KR, and KL=KM (7.)
Therefore, by ſubtraction, LI=MR=HQ,
But LO=HN=HG (7.)
Therefore by addition, IO=GQ.

The triangles PGN, PIO, are ſimilar, as alſo PGQ, PIR,

Therefore GN : IO, or 2 GH : IO :: PG : PI,
And GQ : IR, or IO : 2IK :: PG : PI,

Hence, taking the rectangles of the correſponding terms,

$$2GH \cdot IO : 2IO \cdot IK :: PG^2 : PI^2$$
$$\text{Therefore } GH : IK :: PG^2 : PI^2$$

Fig. 10. Cor. The ſquares of ſemi-ordinates, and of ordinates to any diameter, are to one another as their correſponding abſciſſes. Let HEh, KNk be ordinates to the diameter PN; draw PG a tangent to the curve at the vertex of the diameter, and complete the parallelograms PEHG, PNKI; then PG, PI are equal to EH, NK, and GH, IK to PE, PN, reſpectively; therefore $HE^2 : KN^2 :: PE : PN$.

Prop. X.

If an ordinate be drawn to any diameter of a parabola, the rectangle under the abſciſs and the parameter of the diameter is equal to the ſquare of the ſemi-ordinate.

Let HB h be an ordinate to the diameter PK, the rectangle contained by PB and the parameter of the diameter is equal to the ſquare of HB, the ſemi-ordinate. Fig. 8.

Let DEd be that ordinate to the diameter which paſſes through the focus. The ſemi-ordinates DE, Ed are each half of the parameter, and the abſciſs EP is one-fourth of the parameter (8.),

Therefore D d : DE :: DE : PE,
and D $d \cdot PE = DE^2$,
But $Dd \cdot PE : Dd \cdot PB$, or $PE : PB :: DE^2 : HB^2$ (cor. 9.),
Therefore $Dd \cdot PB = HB^2$.

Scholium.

It was on account of the equality of the ſquare of the ſemi-ordinate to a rectangle contained by the parameter of the diameter and the abſciſs, that Apollonius called the curve line to which the property belonged a *Parabola*.

Prop. XI.

A ſtraight line drawn from the focus of a parabola, perpendicular to a tangent, is a mean proportional between the ſtraight line drawn from the focus to the point of contact, and one-fourth the parameter of the axis.

Let FB be a perpendicular from the focus upon the tangent PB, and FP a ſtraight line drawn to the point of contact; let A be the principal vertex, and therefore FA equal to one-fourth of the parameter of the axis; FB is a mean proportional between FP and FA. Fig. 11.

Produce FB and FA to meet the directrix in D and C, and join AB. The lines FC, FD are biſected at A and B (3 cor. 3.), therefore (2. 6. E.) AB is parallel to CD, or perpendicular to CF, and conſequently a tangent to the curve at A (2 cor. 3.); now BP is a tangent at P, therefore the angle AFB is equal to BFP (4.), and ſince the angles FAB, FBP are right angles, the triangles FAB, FBP are equiangular; hence

$$FP : FB :: FB : FA.$$

Cor. 1. The common interſection of a tangent, and a perpendicular from the focus to the tangent, is in a ſtraight line touching the parabola at its vertex.

Cor. 2. If PH be drawn perpendicular to the tangent meeting the axis in H, and HK be drawn perpendicular to PF, PK ſhall be equal to half the parameter of the axis. For the triangles HPK, FBP are manifeſtly equiangular, therefore

HP : PK :: PF : FB :: FB : FA :: FD : FC,

But if PD be joined, the line PD is evidently perpendicular to the directrix (3.), therefore the figure HPDF is a parallelogram, and HP=FD, therefore PK=FC=half the parameter of the axis.

PROP. XII.

If any ordinate and abſciſs of a parabola be completed into a parallelogram, the area of the parabola, included between the ordinate and the curve, is two thirds of the parallelogram.

Fig. 12. LET AN be any diameter of a parabola, and PQ an ordinate to that diameter. Let BC be drawn through A, parallel to PQ, and let PB, QC be drawn parallel to NA; the area comprehended by the curve line PAQ and ordinate PQ is two thirds of the parallelogram PBCQ. Join PA, QA, and draw the tangents PT, QT, meeting the diameter NA in T, and BC in E and G; through E and G draw the diameters EFD, GHK, which will biſect PA, QA in D and K, (1 cor. 6.) and through F and H, the vertices, draw the tangents RL, MV; join PF, AF, alſo QH, AH. Becauſe NA=AT (7.) and therefore PQ=2 EG, the triangle PAQ is double the triangle ETG. For the ſame reaſon the triangles PFA, QHA are double the triangles REL, VGM reſpectively, therefore the inſcribed figure PFAHQ is double the external figure TRLMV. If diameters were drawn through the points R, L, M, V, and ſtraight lines were drawn joining the vertices of every two adjacent diameters, alſo tangents at the vertices of the diameters which paſs through the points R, L, M, V, there would thus be inſcribed in the parabola a new figure which would have the ſame baſe PQ, as the former, but the number of the remaining ſides double that of the former; and correſponding to it there would be a new external figure formed by the tangents at the vertices of the diameters, but ſtill the ſame proportion between the two figures would hold, or the former would be double the latter, and this would evidently be the caſe, if the operation of inſcribing and circumſcribing a new figure were repeated continually. Now it is evident that by thus increaſing continually the number of ſides of the inſcribed figure, it approaches nearer and nearer to the area of the parabola, which is its limit; alſo that the external figure approaches to the area contained by the two tangents TP, TQ and the parabolic arch PAQ, which ſpace is its limit; and ſince the limits of any two quantities which have a conſtant ratio muſt have the ſame proportion to each other as the quantities themſelves, the area contained by the parabolic arch PAQ and the ordinate PQ muſt be double the area contained by the ſame arch and the two tangents TP, TQ, and therefore muſt be two thirds of the area of the triangle TPQ, which triangle is evidently equal to the parallelogram PBCQ.

PROP. XIII. PROBLEM.

The directrix and focus of a parabola being given by poſition, to deſcribe the parabola.

FIRST METHOD. By Mechanical Deſcription.

LET AB be the given directrix, and F the focus. Fig. 13. Place the edge of the ruler ABKH along the directrix AB, and keep it fixed in that poſition. Let LCG be another ruler of ſuch a form that the part LC may ſlide along AB the edge of the fixed ruler ABKH, and the part CG may have its edge CD conſtantly perpendicular to AB. Let GDF be a ſtring of the ſame length as GC the edge of the moveable ruler; let one end of the ſtring be fixed at F, and the other faſtened to G, a point in the moveable ruler. By means of the pin D let the ſtring be ſtretched, ſo that the part of it between G and D may be applied cloſe to the edge of the moveable ruler, while, at the ſame time, the ruler ſlides along AB the edge of the fixed ruler; the pin D will thus be conſtrained to move along CG the edge of the ruler, and its point will trace upon the plane in which the directrix and focus are ſituated a curve line DE, which is the parabola required. For the ſtring GDF being equal in length to GDC, if GD be taken from both, there remains DF equal to DC; that is, the diſtance of the moving point D from the focus is equal to its diſtance from the directrix, therefore the point D deſcribes a parabola.

SECOND METHOD. By finding any number of points in the curve.

Through the focus F draw EFC perpendicular to the Fig. 14. directrix, and EC will be the axis. Draw any ſtraight line HE*h* parallel to the directrix, meeting the axis in E any point below the vertex; and on F as a centre, with a radius equal to CE, deſcribe a circle cutting H*h* in D and *d*; theſe will be points in the parabola required, as is ſufficiently evident.

PROP. XIV. PROBLEM.

A parabola being given by poſition, to find its directrix and focus.

LET DP*d* be the given parabola; draw any two Fig. 15. parallel chords D*d*, E*e*, and biſect them at H and K; join KH, meeting the parabola in P, the ſtraight line PHK is the diameter (4 cor. 6.) the point P is its vertex, and D*d*, E*e*, are ordinates to it. In HP produced take PL equal to one fourth part of a third proportional to PH and HD, and draw LN perpendicular to PL, the line LN will evidently be the directrix (10. & Def. 9.). Draw PM parallel to the ordinates to the diameter PK, then PM will be a tangent to the curve at P (2 cor. 6.). Draw LM perpendicular to PM, and take MF=ML, and the point F will be the focus of the parabola (3 cor. 3.).

PART

PART II. OF THE ELLIPSE.

Definitions.

Fig. 16. I. If two points F and f be given in a plane, and a point D be conceived to move around them in ſuch a manner that $Df+DF$, the ſum of its diſtances from them, is always the ſame, the point D will deſcribe upon the plane a line $ABab$, which is called an *Ellipſe*.

II. The given points F, f are called the *Foci* of the ellipſe.

III. The point C, which biſects the ſtraight line between the foci, is called the *Centre*.

IV. The diſtance of either focus from the centre is called the *Excentricity*.

V. A ſtraight line paſſing through the centre, and terminated both ways by the ellipſe, is called a *Diameter*.

VI. The extremities of a diameter are called its *Vertices*.

VII. The diameter which paſſes through the foci is called the *Tranſverſe Axis*, alſo the *Greater Axis*.

VIII. The diameter which is perpendicular to the tranſverſe axis is called the *Conjugate Axis*, alſo the *Leſſer Axis*.

IX. Any ſtraight line not paſſing through the centre, but terminated both ways by the ellipſe, and biſected by a diameter, is called an *Ordinate* to that diameter.

X. Each of the ſegments of a diameter intercepted between its vertices and an ordinate, is called an *Abſciſs*.

XI. A ſtraight line which meets the ellipſe in one point only, and everywhere elſe falls without it, is ſaid to *touch* the ellipſe in that point, and is called a *Tangent to the ellipſe*.

Prop. I.

If from any point in an ellipſe two ſtraight lines be drawn to the foci, their ſum is equal to the tranſverſe axis.

Fig. 17. Let $ABab$ be an ellipſe, of which F, f are the foci, and Aa the tranſverſe axis; let D be any point in the curve, and DF, Df lines drawn to the foci, $Df+DF=Aa$,

Becauſe A, a are the points in the ellipſe,

$$Af+AF=aF+af \text{ (Def. 1.)}$$

therefore $Ff+2AF=Ff+2af$;

Hence $2AF=2af$, and $AF=af$,

and $Af+AF=Af\times af=Aa$.

But D and A being points in the ellipſe,

$$Df+DF=Af+AF,$$

therefore $Df+DF=Aa$.

Cor. 1. The ſum of two ſtraight lines drawn from a point without the ellipſe to the foci is greater than the tranſverſe axis. And the ſum of two ſtraight lines drawn from a point within the ellipſe to the foci is leſs than the tranſverſe axis.

Let PF, Pf be drawn from a point without the ellipſe to the foci; let Pf meet the ellipſe in D; join FD; then $Pf+PF$ is greater than $Df+DF$ (21. 1. E.), that is, than Aa. Again, let QF, Qf be drawn from a point within the ellipſe, let Qf meet the curve in D, and join FD; $Qf+QF$ is leſs than $Df+DF$ (21. 1. E.), that is, than Aa. Fig. 17.

Cor. 2. A point is without or within the ellipſe, according as the ſum of two lines drawn from it to the foci is greater or leſs than the tranſverſe axis.

Cor. 3. The tranſverſe axis is biſected in the centre. Let C be the centre, then $CF=Cf$ (Def. 3.), and $FA=fa$, therefore $CA=Ca$.

Cor. 4. The diſtance of either extremity of the conjugate axis from either of the foci is equal to half the tranſverſe axis. Let Bb be the conjugate axis; join Fb, fb. Becauſe $CF=Cf$, and Cb is common to the triangles CFb, Cfb, alſo the angles at C are right angles, theſe triangles are equal; hence $Fb=fb$, and ſince $Fb+bf=Aa$, $Fb=AC$.

Cor. 5. The conjugate axis is biſected in the centre. Join fb, fB. By the laſt corollary $Bf=bf$, therefore the angles fBC, fbC are equal; now fC is common to the triangles fCB, fCb, and the angles at C are right angles, therefore (26. 1. E.) $CB=Cb$.

Prop. II.

Every diameter of an ellipſe is biſected in the centre.

Let Pp be a diameter, it is biſected in C. For if Cp be not equal to CP, take CQ equal to CP, and from the points P, p, Q draw lines to F, f the foci. The triangles FCP, fCQ, having $FC=Cf$, $PC=CQ$, and the angles at C equal, are in all reſpects equal, therefore $FP=fQ$; in like manner it appears that $fP=FQ$, therefore $FQ+fQ$ is equal to $FP+fP$, or, (Def. 1.), to $Fp+fp$, which is abſurd (21. 1. E.), therefore $CP=Cp$. Fig. 18.

Cor. 1. Every diameter meets the ellipſe in two points only.

Cor. 2. Every diameter divides the ellipſe into two parts which are equal and ſimilar, the like parts of the curve being at oppoſite extremities of the diameter.

Prop. III.

The ſquare of half the conjugate axis of an ellipſe is equal to the rectangle contained by the ſegments into which the tranſverſe axis is divided by either focus.

Draw a ſtraight line from f, either of the foci, to B, either of the extremities of the conjugate axis. Fig. 17.

Then $BC^2+Cf^2=Bf^2=Ca^2$ (4 cor. 1.),

But becauſe Aa is biſected at C,

$$Ca^2=Af\cdot fa+Cf^2,$$

therefore $BC^2+Cf^2=Af\cdot fa+Cf^2$,

and $BC^2=Af\cdot fa$.

PROP. IV.

The ſtraight line which biſects the angle adjacent to that which is contained by two ſtraight lines drawn from any point in the ellipſe to the foci is a tangent to the curve in that point.

Fig. 19. LET D be any point in the curve; let DF, Df be ſtraight lines drawn to the foci, the ſtraight line DE which biſects the angle fDG adjacent to fDF, is a tangent to the curve at D.

Take H any other point in DE, take DG=Df, and join Hf, HF, HG, fG; let fG meet DE in I. Becauſe Df=DG, and DI is common to the triangles DfI, DGI and the angles fDI, GDI are equal, theſe triangles are equal, and fI=IG, and hence fH=HG (4. 1. E.), ſo that FH+fH=FH+HG; but FH+HG is greater than FG, that is, greater than FD+fD or Aa, therefore FH+fH is greater than Aa, hence the point H is without the ellipſe (2 cor. 1.), and therefore DHI is a tangent to the curve at D (Def. 11.).

COR. 1. There cannot be more than one tangent at the ſame point. For D is ſuch a point in the line DE that the ſum of DF, Df, the diſtances of that point from the foci, is evidently leſs than the ſum of HF, Hf, the diſtances of H any other point in that line; and if another line KDL be drawn through D, there is in like manner a point K in that line, which will be different from D, ſuch that the ſum of FK, fK is leſs than the ſum of the diſtances of any other point in KL, and therefore leſs than FD+fD; therefore the point K will be within the ellipſe (2 cor. 1.), and the line KL will cut the curve.

COR. 2. A perpendicular to the tranſverſe axis at either of its extremities is a tangent to the curve. The demonſtration is the ſame as for the propoſition, if it be conſidered that when D falls at either extremity of the axis, the point I falls alſo at the extremity of the axis, and thus the tangent DE, which is always perpendicular to fI, is perpendicular to the axis.

COR. 3. A perpendicular to the conjugate axis at either of its extremities is a tangent to the curve. For the perpendicular evidently biſects the angle adjacent to that which is contained by lines drawn from the extremity to the foci.

COR. 4. A tangent to the ellipſe makes equal angles with ſtraight lines drawn from the point of contact to the foci. For the angle fDE being equal to GDE, is alſo equal to FDM, which is vertical to GDE.

SCHOLIUM.

From the property of the ellipſe, which forms this laſt corollary, the points F and f take the name of *Foci*. For writers on optics ſhew that if a poliſhed ſurface be formed, whoſe figure is that produced by the revolution of an ellipſe about its tranſverſe axis, rays of light which flow from one focus, and fall upon that ſurface, are reflected to the other focus, ſo that if a luminous point be placed in one focus, there is formed by reflection an image of it in the other focus.

PROP. V.

The tangents at the vertices of any diameter of an ellipſe are parallel.

LET Pp be a diameter, HPK, h p k tangents at its vertices; draw ſtraight lines from P and p to F and f the foci. The triangles FCP, fCp, having FC=fc, CP=Cp (2), and the angles at C equal, are in all reſpects equal; and becauſe the angle FPC is equal to C$p$$f$, FP is parallel to $f$$p$ (27. 1. E.); therefore Pf is equal and parallel to pF (33. 1. E.), thus FP$f$$p$ is a parallelogram, of which the oppoſite angles P and p are equal (34. 1. E.). Now the angles FPH, f p h are evidently half the ſupplements of theſe angles (4 cor. 4.), therefore the angles FPH, f p h, and hence CPH, C p h are alſo equal, and conſequently HP is parallel to h p. Fig. 18.

COR. 1. If tangents be drawn to an ellipſe at the vertices of a diameter, ſtraight lines drawn from either focus to the points of contact make equal angles with theſe tangents. For the angle F$p$$k$ is equal to FPH.

COR. 2. The axes of an ellipſe are the only diameters which are perpendicular to tangents at their vertices. For let Pp be any other diameter, then PF and pF are neceſſarily unequal, and therefore the angles FpP, FPp are alſo unequal; to theſe add the equal angles F$p$$k$, FPH, and the angles C$p$$k$, CPH are unequal, therefore neither of them can be a right angle (29. 1. E.).

PROP. VI.

A ſtraight line drawn from either focus of an ellipſe to the interſection of two tangents to the curve, will make equal angles with ſtraight lines drawn from the ſame focus to the points of contact.

LET HP, Hp be tangents to an ellipſe at the points P, p; let a ſtraight line be drawn from H, their interſection, to F, either of the foci, and let FP, Fp be drawn to the points of contact, the lines PF and pF make equal angles with HF. Fig. 20.

Draw Pf, $p$$f$ to the other focus; in FP, Fp produced take PK=Pf, and $p$$k$=$p$$f$; join HK, H$k$, and let fK, $f$$k$ be drawn, meeting the tangents at G and g. The triangles fPH, KPH, have Pf=PK, by conſtruction, and PH common to both, alſo the angle fPH equal to KPH (4.), therefore fH is equal to KH. In like manner it may be ſhewn that fH is equal to kH, therefore HK is equal to Hk; now FK is equal to Fk, for each is equal to FP+Pf, or Fp+$p$$f$, that is, to the tranſverſe axis; therefore the triangles FKH, FkH are in all reſpects equal, and hence the angle KFH is equal to kFH; therefore PF and pF make equal angles with HF.

PROP. VII.

Two tangents to an ellipſe, which are limited by their mutual interſection, and the points in which

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which they touch the curve, are to each other reciprocally as the ſines of the angles they contain with ſtraight lines drawn from the points of contact to either focus.

Fig. 21. LET the ſtraight lines HP, Hp, which interſect each other at H, be tangents to an ellipſe at the points Pp, and let PF, pF be drawn to either focus; then

HP : Hp :: ſine HpF : ſine HPF.

Join HF, and in FP take FQ equal to Fp, and join HQ; then the angles at F being equal (6.) the triangles HFQ, HFp are equal, therefore HQ is equal to Hp, and the angle HQF is equal to HpF. Now, in the triangle HPQ,

HP : HQ :: ſine HQP or ſine HQF : ſine HPF (Trigon.)
therefore HP : Hp :: ſine HpF : ſine HPF.

LEMMA.

Let KLl be a triangle, having its baſe L l biſected at p, and let H h, any ſtraight line parallel to the baſe, and terminated by the ſides, be biſected at P; then P, p, the points of biſection, and K, the vertex of the triangle, are in the ſame ſtraight line, and that line biſects Dd, any any other line parallel to the baſe.

Fig. 22. Complete the parallelograms KHPM, KLpN. The triangles KHh, KLl being ſimilar, and Hh, Ll ſimilarly divided at P and p,

KH : KL :: Hh : Ll :: HP : L p,

hence the parallelograms KHPM, KLpN are ſimilar. Now they have a common angle at K, therefore they are about the ſame diameter, that is, the points K, P, p are in the ſame ſtraight line (26. 6. E.).

Next, let Dd meet Kp in E, then

HP : DE (:: KP : KE) :: Ph : Ed,
therefore DE is equal to Dd.

PROP. VIII.

Any ſtraight line not paſſing through the centre, but terminated both ways by an ellipſe, and parallel to a tangent, is biſected by the diameter that paſſes through the point of contact; or is an ordinate to that diameter.

Fig. 23. THE ſtraight line Dd, terminated by the ellipſe, and parallel to the tangent HPh, is biſected at E, by Pp, the diameter that paſſes through the point of contact.

Let L p l be a tangent at the other extremity of the diameter, and let KD, Kd, tangents at the points D, d, meet the parallel tangents, HPh, L$p$$l$ in the points H, L, h, l, and draw DF, dF, PF, pF to either focus. Becauſe Hh is parallel to Dd,

HD : hd :: KD : Kd.

But, KD. Kd being tangents to the ellipſe,

Sine h d F : ſine HDF :: KD : Kd (7.)
therefore ſine hdF : ſine HDF :: HD : hd.
Now, ſine hPF : ſine hdF :: hd : hP (7.)
therefore (23. 5. E.) ſine hPF : HDF :: HD : HP;
but ſine HPF or ſine hPF : ſine HDF :: HD : HP,

therefore the ratio of HD to hP is the ſame as that of HD to HP, wherefore PH=Ph. In the ſame manner it may be demonſtrated that pL=p l, therefore (Lemma) the diameter p P when produced paſſes through K, and biſects D d, which is parallel to H h or Ll, at E.

COR. 1. Straight lines which touch an ellipſe at the extremities of an ordinate to any diameter interſect each other in that diameter.

COR. 2. Every ordinate to a diameter is parallel to a tangent at its vertex. For if not, let a tangent be drawn parallel to the ordinate, then the diameter drawn through the point of contact would biſect the ordinate, and thus the ſame line would be biſected in two different points, which is abſurd.

COR. 3. All the ordinates to the ſame diameter are parallel to each other.

COR. 4. A ſtraight line that biſects two parallel chords and terminates in the curve is a diameter.

COR. 5. The ordinates to either axis are perpendicular to that axis; and no other diameter is perpendicular to its ordinates. This follows evidently from 2 and 3 cor. to prop. 4. and 2 cor. to prop. 5.

COR. 6. Hence each axis divides the ellipſe into two parts which are ſimilar and equal.

PROP. IX.

If a tangent to an ellipſe meet a diameter, and from the point of contact an ordinate be drawn to that diameter, the ſemi-diameter will be a mean proportional between the ſegments of the diameter intercepted between the centre and the ordinate, and between the centre and the tangent.

LET DK, a tangent to the curve at D, meet the diameter pP, produced in K, and let DEd be an ordinate to that diameter. Fig. 23.

Then CE : CP :: CP : CK.

Through P and p, the vertices of the diameter, draw the tangents PH and pL, meeting KD in H and L; theſe tangents are parallel to each other (5.) and to DE, the ordinate, by the laſt propoſition. Draw PF, pF, DF to either of the foci. Then

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{DH : PH :: ſine HPF : ſine HDF} \\ \text{and DL : } p\text{ L :: ſine L}p\text{F : ſine LDF} \end{array}\right\} (7.)$$

Now the angles HPF, LpF are equal (cor. 5.) and the ſine of HDF is the ſame as that of LDF, therefore

DH : PH :: DL : pL,

and by alternation,

DH : DL :: PH : pL;

therefore, becauſe of the parallel lines PH, ED, pL,

EP : Ep :: PK : p K.

Take

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Take CG=CE, then by division

EG : EP :: Pp : PK,

and taking the halves of the antecedents,

CE : EP :: CP : PK;

hence, by composition, CE : CP :: CP : CK.

Cor. 1. The rectangle contained by PE and Ep is equal to the rectangle contained by KE and CE.

For $PC^2 = KC \cdot CE = KE \cdot EC + EC^2$ (3. 2. E.)
also $PC^2 = PE \cdot Ep + EC^2$ (5. 2. E.)
therefore $KE \cdot EC + EC^2 = PE \cdot Ep + EC^2$,
and $KE \cdot EC = PE \cdot Ep$.

Cor. 2. The rectangle contained by PK and Kp is equal to the rectangle contained by KE and KC.

For $KC^2 = PK \cdot Kp + CP^2$ (6. 2. E.)
also $KC^2 = EK \cdot KC + EC \cdot KC = EK \cdot KC + CP^2$ (1. 2. E. and by the prop.)
therefore $PK \cdot Kp + CP^2 = EK \cdot KC + CP^2$,
and $PK \cdot Kp = EK \cdot KC$.

Prop. X.

If a diameter of an ellipse be parallel to the ordinates to another diameter, the latter diameter shall be parallel to the ordinates to the former.

Fig. 24. Let Pp, a diameter of an ellipse, be parallel to DEd any ordinate to the diameter Qq, the diameter Qq shall be parallel to the ordinates to the diameter Pp.

Draw the diameter dCG through one extremity of the ordinate dD, and join G and D, the other extremity, meeting Pp in H. Because dG is bisected at C, and CH is parallel to dD, the line DG is bisected at H, therefore DG is an ordinate to the diameter Pp. And because dG and dD are bisected at C and E, the diameter Qq is parallel to DG (2. 6. E.) therefore Qq is parallel to any ordinate to the diameter Pp.

Definitions.

XII. Two diameters are said to be *conjugate* to one another when each is parallel to the ordinates to the other diameter.

Cor. Diameters which are conjugate to one another are parallel to tangents at the vertices of each other.

XIII. A third proportional to any diameter and its conjugate is called the *Parameter*, also the *Latus rectum of that diameter*.

Prop. XI.

If an ordinate be drawn to any diameter of an ellipse, the rectangle under the abscisses of the diameter will be to the square of the semi-ordinate as the square of the diameter to the square of its conjugate.

Fig. 25. Let DEd be an ordinate to the diameter Pp, and let Qq be its conjugate, then

$PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp^2 : Qq^2$.

Let KDL a tangent at D meet the diameter in K, and its conjugate in L; draw DG parallel to Pp, meeting Qq in G. Because CP is a mean proportional between CE and CK (9.)

$CP^2 : CE^2 :: CK : CE$ (2 cor. 20. 6. E.)

and by division $CP^2 : PE \cdot Ep :: CK : KE$.

But, because ED is parallel to CL,

CK : KE :: CL : DE or CG,

and because CQ is a mean proportional between CG and CL (9.)

$CL : CG :: CQ^2 : CG^2$ or ED^2;
therefore $CP^2 : PE \cdot Ep :: CQ^2 : DE^2$,

and by inversion and alternation,

$PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: CP^2 : CQ^2 :: Pp^2 : Qq^2$.

Cor. 1. The squares of semi-ordinates and of ordinates to any diameter of an ellipse are to one another as the rectangles contained by the corresponding abscisses.

Cor. 2. The ordinates to any diameter, which intercept equal segments of that diameter from the centre, are equal to one another, and, conversely, equal ordinates intercept equal segments of the diameter from the centre.

Cor. 3. If a circle be described upon Aa, either of the axes of an ellipse, as a diameter, and DE, de, any two semi-ordinates to the axes meet the circle in H and h, DE shall be to de as HE to he. For Fig. 26.

$DE^2 : de^2 :: AE \cdot Ea : Ae.ea :: HE^2 : he^2$,
therefore $DE : de :: HE : he$.

Cor. 4. If a circle be described upon Aa the transverse axis as a diameter, and DE, any ordinate to the axis, be produced to meet the circle in H, HE shall be to DE as the transverse axis Aa to the conjugate axis Bb. For, produce the conjugate axis to meet the circle in K, then, by last corollary,

HE : DE :: KC, or AC : BC :: Aa : Bb.

Cor. 5. And if HE be divided at D, so that HE is to DE, as the transverse axis to the conjugate axis, D is a point in the ellipse, and DE a semi-ordinate to the axis Aa.

Prop. XII.

The transverse axis of an ellipse is the greatest of all its diameters, and the conjugate axis is the least of all its diameters.

Let Aa be the transverse axis, Bb the conjugate axis, and CD any semidiameter. Draw DE perpendicular to Aa, and DL perpendicular to Bb. Fig. 26.

Because $Aa^2 : Bb^2 :: AE \cdot Ea : DE^2$ (11.)
and Aa^2 is greater than Bb^2,
therefore $AE \cdot Ea$ is greater than DE^2;
and $AE \cdot Ea + EC^2$ is greater than $DE^2 + EC^2$,
that is, AC^2 is greater than DC^2,
therefore, AC is greater than DC.

By

By the same manner of reasoning it may be shewn that because Bb^2 is less than Aa^2,

$$BL \cdot Lb + CL^2 \text{ is less than } DL^2 + CL^2;$$
$$\text{that is, } BC^2 \text{ is less than } DC^2,$$
$$\text{and } BC \text{ less than } DC.$$

Prop. XIII.

If an ordinate be drawn to any diameter of an ellipse, the rectangle under the abscisses of the diameter is to the square of the semi-ordinate as the diameter to its parameter.

Fig 27. Let DE be a semi-ordinate to the diameter Pp, let PG be the parameter of the diameter, and Qq the conjugate diameter. By the definition of the parameter (Def. 13.)

$$Pp : Qq :: Qq : PG,$$
$$\text{therefore } Pp : PG :: Pp^2 : Qq^2 \text{ (2 cor. 20. 6. E.)}$$
$$\text{But } Pp^2 : Qq^2 :: PE \cdot Ep : DE^2, \text{ (11.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp : PG.$$

Cor. Let the parameter PG be perpendicular to the diameter Pp; join pG, and from E draw EM parallel to PG, meeting pG in M. The square of DE, the semi-ordinate, is equal to the rectangle contained by PE and EM.

$$\text{For } PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp : PG,$$
$$\text{and } Pp : PG :: Ep : EM :: PE \cdot Ep : PE \cdot EM,$$
$$\text{therefore } DE^2 = PE \cdot EM.$$

Scholium.

If the rectangles PGLp, HGKM be completed, it will appear that the square of ED is equal to the rectangle MP, which rectangle is less than the rectangle KP, contained by the abscis PE and parameter PG, by a rectangle KH similar and similarly situated to LP, the rectangle contained by the diameter and parameter. It was on account of the deficiency of the square of the ordinate from the rectangle contained by the abscis and parameter that Apollonius called the curve line to which the property belonged an Ellipse.

Prop. XIV.

If from the vertices of two conjugate diameters of an ellipse there be drawn ordinates to any third diameter, the square of the segment of that diameter intercepted between either ordinate and the centre is equal to the rectangle contained by the segments between the other ordinate and the vertices of the same diameter.

Let Pp, Qq be two conjugate diameters, and PE, QG semi-ordinates to any third diameter Rr, then $CG^2 = RE \cdot Er$, and $CE^2 = RG \cdot Gr$. Fig 28.

Draw the tangents PH, QK meeting Rr in H and K. The rectangles HC · CE and KC · CG are equal, for each is equal CR^2 (9.), therefore

$$HC : CK :: CG : CE,$$

But the triangles HPC, CQK are evidently similar (cor. def. 12.); and PE being parallel to QG, their bases CH, KC are similarly divided at E and G, therefore

$$HC : CK :: HE : CG$$
$$\text{wherefore } CG : CE :: HE : CG,$$
$$\text{consequently } CG^2 = CE \cdot EH = \text{(1 cor. 9.) } RE \cdot Er.$$

In like manner it may be shewn that $CE^2 = RG \cdot Gr$.

Cor. 1. Let Ss be the diameter that is conjugate to Rr, then Rr is to Ss as CG to PE, or as CE to QG.

$$\text{For } Rr^2 : Ss^2 :: RE \cdot Er, \text{ or } CG^2 : PE^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } Rr : Ss :: CG : PE.$$

In like manner $Rr : Ss :: CE : QG$.

Cor. 2. The sum of the squares of CE, CG, the segments of the diameter to which the semi-ordinates PE, QG are drawn, is equal to the square of CR the semi-diameter.

$$\text{For } CE^2 + CG^2 = CE^2 + RE \cdot EG = CR^2.$$

Cor. 3. The sum of the squares of any two conjugate diameters is equal to the sum of the squares of the axes.

Let Rr, Ss be the axes, and Pp, Qq any two conjugate diameters; draw PE, QG perpendicular to Rr, and PL, QM perpendicular to Ss. Then

$$CE^2 + CG^2 = CR^2, \text{ and } CM^2 + CL^2, \text{ or } GQ^2 + PE^2 = CS^2;$$
$$\text{therefore } CE^2 + PE^2 + CG^2 + GQ^2 = CR^2 + CS^2,$$
$$\text{that is (47. 1. E.), } CP^2 + CQ^2 = CR^2 + CS^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } Pp^2 + Qq^2 = Rr + Ss^2.$$

Prop. XV.

If four straight lines be drawn touching an ellipse at the vertices of any two conjugate diameters, the parallelogram formed by these lines is equal to the rectangle contained by the transverse and conjugate axis.

Fig. 29. Let Pp, Qq be any two conjugate diameters, a parallelogram DEGH formed by tangents to the curve at their vertices is equal to the rectangle contained by Aa, Bb the two axes.

Produce Aa, one of the axes, to meet the tangent PE in K, join QK, and draw PL, QM perpendicular to Aa.

Because CK : CA :: CA : CL (9.)
and CA : CB :: CL : QM (1 cor. 14.)
ex aeq. CK : CB :: CA : QM.
therefore CK · QM = CB · CA.

But C · QM = twice trian. CKQ = paral. CPEQ, therefore the parallelogram CPEQ = CB · CA, and taking the quadruples of these, the parallelogram DEGH is equal to the rectangle contained by Aa and Bb.

Prop. XVI.

If two tangents at the vertices of any diameter of an ellipse meet a third tangent, the rectangle contained by their segments between the points Plate CLVIII.

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of contact and the points of intersection is equal to the square of the semi-diameter to which they are parallel. And the rectangle contained by the segments of the third tangent between its point of contact and the parallel tangents is equal to the square of the semi-diameter to which it is parallel.

Fig. 30. LET PH, ph tangents at the vertices of a diameter Pp meet HDh, a tangent to a curve at any point D, in H and h; let CQ be the semi-diameter to which the tangents PH, ph are parallel, and CR that to which Hh is parallel, then,

$$PH \cdot ph = CQ^2, \text{ and } DH \cdot Dh = CR^2.$$

If the tangent HDh be parallel to Pp the proposition is manifest. If it is not parallel, let it meet the semi-diameters CP, CQ, in L and K. Draw DE, RM parallel to CQ, and DG parallel to CP.

Because $LP \cdot Lp = LE \cdot LC$ (2 cor. 9.),
$LP : LE :: LC : Lp$.

hence, and because of the parallels PH, ED, CK, ph,

$PH : ED :: CK : ph$,
wherefore $PH \cdot ph = ED \cdot CK$,
but $ED \cdot CK = CG \cdot CK = CQ^2$ (9.)
therefore $PH \cdot ph = CQ^2$.

Again the triangles LED, CMR are evidently similar, and LE, LD similarly divided at H and P, also at h and p,

therefore $PE : HD :: (LE : LD ::) CM : CR$,
also $pE : hD :: (LE : LD ::) CM : CR$,

hence, taking the rectangles of the corresponding terms,

$$PE \cdot pE : HD \cdot hD :: CM^2 : CR^2.$$

But if CD be joined, the points D and R are evidently the vertices of two conjugate diameters (cor. Def. 12.) and therefore $PE \cdot pE = CM^2$ (14.)

therefore $HD \cdot hD = CR^2$.

COR. The rectangle contained by LD and DK, the segments of a tangent intercepted between D the point of contact and Pp, Qq, any two conjugate diameters, is equal to the square of CR, the semi-diameter to which the tangent is parallel

Let the parallel tangents PH, ph meet LK in H and h, and draw DE a semi-ordinate to Pp. Because of the parallels PH, ED, CK, ph,

$LE : LD :: EP : DH$,
and $EC : DK :: Ep : Dh$,
therefore $LE \cdot EC :: LD \cdot DK :: EP \cdot Ep : DH \cdot Dh$.
But $LE \cdot EC = EP \cdot Ep$ (1 cor. 9.)
therefore $LD \cdot DK = DH \cdot Dh =$ (by this prop.) CR^2.

PROP. XVII.

If two straight lines be drawn from the foci of an ellipse perpendicular to a tangent, straight lines drawn from the centre to the points in which they meet the tangent will each be equal to half the transverse axis.

LET DPd be a tangent to the curve at P, and FD, fd perpendiculars to the tangent from the foci, the straight lines joining the points C, D, and C, d, are each equal to AC half the transverse axis. Fig. 31.

Join FPfP, and produce FD, fP till they intersect in E. The triangles FDP, EDP, have the angles at D right angles, and the angles FPD, EPD equal (4.) and the side DP common to both, they are therefore equal, and consequently have ED=DF, and EP=PF, wherefore $Ef = FP + Pf = Aa$. Now the straight lines FE, Ff, being bisected at D and C, the line DC is parallel to Ef, and thus the triangles FfE, FCD are similar,

therefore $Ff : fE$ or $Aa :: FC : CD$,

but FC is half of Ff, therefore CD is half of Aa. In like manner it may be shewn that Cd is half of Aa.

COR. If the diameter Qq be drawn parallel to the tangent Dd, it will cut off from PF, Pf the segments PG, Pg, each equal to AC half the transverse axis. For CdPG, CD Pg are parallelograms, therefore $PG = dC = AC$, and $Pg = DC = AC$.

PROP. XVIII.

The rectangle contained by perpendiculars drawn from the foci of an ellipse to a tangent is equal to the square of half the conjugate axis.

LET DPd be a tangent, and FD, fd perpendiculars from the foci, the rectangle contained by FD and fd is equal to the square of CB half the conjugate axis. Fig. 32.

It is evident from the last proposition that the points D, d are in the circumference of a circle whose centre is the centre of the ellipse, and radius GA, half the transverse axis; now FDd being a right angle, if dC be joined, the lines DF, dC when produced will meet at H, a point in the circumference; and since FC=fC, and CH=Cd, and the angles FCH, fCd are equal, FH is equal to fd, therefore

$DF \cdot df = DF \cdot FH = AF \cdot Fa$ (35. 3. E.) $= CB^2$ (3.).

COR. If PF, Pf be drawn from the point of contact to the foci, the square of FD is a fourth proportional to fP, FP and BC^2. For the lines fP, FP make equal angles with the tangent (4 cor. 4.) and fdP, FDP are right angles, therefore the triangles fPd, FPD are similar, and

$fP : FP :: fd : FD : fd \cdot FD$ or $CB^2 : FD^2$.

PROP. XIX.

If from C the centre of an ellipse a straight line CL be drawn perpendicular to a tangent LD, and from D the point of contact a perpendicular be drawn to the tangent, meeting the transverse axis in H and the conjugate axis in h, the rectangle contained by CL and DH is equal to the square of CB, the semi-conjugate axis; and the rectangle contained by CL and Dh is equal to the square of CA, the semi-transverse axis. Fig. 32.

PRODUCE the axes to meet the tangent in M and m, and from D draw the semi-ordinates DE, De, which will be perpendicular to the axes.

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The triangles DEH, CL m are evidently equi-angular, therefore

$$DH : DE :: Cm : CL,$$
$$\text{hence } CL \cdot DH = DE \cdot Cm;$$
$$\text{but } DE \cdot Cm, \text{ or } Ce \cdot Cm = BC^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } CL \cdot DH = BC^2.$$

In the same way it is shewn that $CL \cdot Dh = AC^2$.

Cor. 1. If a perpendicular be drawn to a tangent at the point of contact, the segments intercepted between the points of contact, and the axes, are to each other reciprocally as the squares of the axes by which they are terminated.

For $AC^2 : BC :: CL \cdot Dh : CL \cdot DH :: Dh : DH$.

Cor. 2. If DF be drawn to either focus, and HK be drawn perpendicular to DF, the straight line DK shall be equal to half the parameter of the transverse axis.

Draw CG parallel to the tangent at D, meeting DH in N, and DF in G. The triangles GDN, HDK are similar, therefore

$$GD : DN :: HD : DK, \text{ and hence } GD \cdot DK = HD \cdot DN.$$
$$\text{But } GD = AC \text{ (cor. 17.) and } ND = CL,$$
$$\text{therefore } AC \cdot DK = HD \cdot CL = \text{(by the prop.) } CB^2,$$
$$\text{wherefore } AC : BC :: BC : DK, \text{ hence DK is half the parameter of } Aa \text{ (Def. 13.).}$$

Definitions.

Fig. 33. XIV. If a point G be taken in the transverse axis of an ellipse produced, so that the distance of G from the centre may be a third proportional to CF the excentricity, and CA the semi-transverse axis, a straight line GH h, drawn through G perpendicular to the axis, is called the *Directrix of the ellipse*.

Cor. 1. If MF m, an ordinate to the axis, be drawn through the focus, tangents to the ellipse at the extremities of the ordinate will meet the axis at the point G (9.)

Cor. 2. The ellipse has two directrices, for the point G may be taken on either side of the centre.

Prop. XX.

The distance of any point in an ellipse from either directrix is to its distance from the focus nearest that directrix in the constant ratio of the semi-transverse axis to the excentricity.

Fig. 33. Let D be any point in the ellipse, let DK be drawn perpendicular to the directrix, and let DF be drawn to the focus nearest the directrix; DK is to DF as CA, half the transverse axis, to CF, the excentricity.

Draw Df to the other focus, and DE perpendicular to A a, take L a point in the axis, so that AL = FD, and consequently L a = D f, then CL is evidently half the difference between AL and a L, or FD and fD, and CE half the difference between fE and FE, and because

$$Df + DF : fF :: fE - FE : Df - DF \text{ (Trigon.)}$$

By taking the halves of the terms of the proportion

$$CA : CF :: CE : CL,$$
$$\text{But } CA : CF :: CG : CA \text{ (Def. 14.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } CG : CA :: CE : CL,$$
$$\text{hence (20. 5. E.) } EG : AL :: CG : CA :: CA : CF,$$
$$\text{that is, } DK : DF :: CA : CF.$$

Cor. 1. If the tangent GMN be drawn through M, the extremity of the ordinate passing through the focus, and ED be produced to meet GM in N, EN shall be equal to DF. For draw MO perpendicular to the directrix, then, because M and D are points in the ellipse, and from similar triangles,

$$FM : FD :: MO : DK :: GF : GE :: FM : EN,$$
$$\text{therefore } FD = EN.$$

Cor. 2. If AI and $a\,i$ be drawn perpendicular to the transverse axis at its extremities, meeting the tangent GM in I and i, then AI = AF, and $a\,i = a$ F. This follows evidently from last corollary.

Prop. XXI.

Let A a, B b be the transverse and conjugate axes of an ellipse; from K any point in the conjugate axis let a straight line KH, which is equal to the sum or difference of the semi-axis CA, CB, be placed so as to meet the transverse axis in H; and in KH, produced beyond H when KH is the difference of the semi-axes, let HD be taken equal to CB; the point D is in the ellipse. Fig. 34.

Draw DE perpendicular to A a, and through C draw CG parallel to KD, meeting ED in G, then CG = KD = AC by construction, hence G is in the circumference of a circle of which C is the centre, and CA the radius; and because the triangles CEG, HED are similar,

$$GE : DE :: CG : HD :: CA : CB,$$

therefore DE is a semi-ordinate, and D a point in the ellipse (5 cor. 11.)

Scholium.

The instrument called the *trammels*, also the *elliptic compasses*, which workmen use for describing elliptic curves, is constructed on the property of the curve demonstrated in this proposition. (See Compasses.) Upon the same principle lathes are constructed for turning picture frames, &c. of an oval form.

Prop. XXII.

If a circle be described on the transverse axis of an ellipse as a diameter, the area of the circle will be to the area of the ellipse as the transverse axis to the conjugate axis.

Let A a be the transverse axis of the ellipse, which is also the diameter of the circle. Draw DE, D'E', D'' E'' any number of perpendiculars to the axis, meeting the ellipse in D D', D'', and the circle in d, d', d'', and join AD, DD', D'D'', D''a; also A d, $d\,d'$, $d'\,d''$, Fig. 35.

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$d'd''$, $d''a$, and draw DG, dg parallel to A a, meeting d' E′ in G and g.

The triangle A d E is to the triangle ADE as d E to DF, that is (4 cor. 11.) as the transverse axis to the conjugate axis. Again, because d'E′ and d' E are similarly divided at D′ and D (3 cor. 11.)

d E : DE :: (d'E′—d E : D′E′—DE ::) $d'g$: D′G,

But, triangle $dg\,d'$: triangle DGD′ :: $d'g$: D′G,

therefore the triangles $dg\,d'$, DGD′ as well as the rectangles d E′, DE′ are to each other as d E to DE, or as the transverse axis to the conjugate axis, and consequently the trapezoids d EE′d', DEE′D′ are to each other in the same ratio. In like manner it may be shewn, that the trapezoids d'E′E″d'', D′E′E″D″, also the triangles d''E″ a, D″E″ a are to each other as the transverse to the conjugate axis, and therefore the whole rectilineal figure A $d\,d'\,d''\,a$ inscribed in the semicircle to the whole figure ADD′D″ a inscribed in the semiellipse in the same ratio, which ratio is constant, and altogether independent of the number of the sides of each figure. But, the base A a remaining common to both figures, if we suppose the number of perpendiculars dDE, d'D′E′, &c. indefinitely increased, it is evident that the polygons A $d\,d'\,d''\,a$, ADD′D″ a will approach nearer and nearer to the semicircle and semiellipse, which are their respective limits, therefore, the semicircle is to the semiellipse, and consequently the circle is to the ellipse, as the transverse to the conjugate axis.

Cor. The area of an ellipse is equal to the area of a circle, whose diameter is a mean proportional between the axes.

Prop. XXIII. Problem.

Two unequal straight lines which bisect each other at right angles being given by position, to describe an ellipse of which these may be the two axes.

First Method. By a Mechanical Description.

Fig. 36. Let A a, B b be the transverse and conjugate axes, and C the centre. On B, one extremity of the conjugate axis, as a centre, with a radius equal to AC, half the transverse axis, let a circle be described, cutting the transverse axis in F and f; these points will be the foci of the ellipse (4 cor. 1.).

Let the ends of a string, equal in length to A a, be fastened at the points F, f, and let the string be stretched by a pin D, and while it is kept uniformly tense, let the point of the pin be carried round in the plane in which the lines A a, B b are situated, till it return to the place from which it set out; by this motion the point of the pin will trace upon the plane a curve line which is the ellipse required, as is evident from the definition of the Ellipse.

Second Method. By Finding any Number of Points in the Curve.

Find F either of the foci as before; draw HAK $h\,a\,k$, perpendicular to the transverse axis at its extremities, and take AH and AK on each side of the vertex equal to AF, also $a\,h$ and $a\,k$ each equal to a F, join H h and K k, take E any point in A a, and through E draw NE n parallel to HK, meeting H h and K k in N and n. On F as a centre with a radius equal to EN or E n let a circle be described, meeting N n in D and d, these will be two points in the ellipse, and in the same way may any number of points be found. The reason of this construction is obvious from cor. 1. and 2. to prop. 20. Fig. 37.

Prop. XXIV. Problem.

An ellipse being given by position, to find its axes.

Let AB $a\,b$ be the given ellipse. Draw two parallel chords H h, K k, and bisect them at L and M; join LM, and produce it to meet the ellipse in P and p, then, P p is a diameter (4 cor. 8.). Bisect P p in C, the point C is the centre of the ellipse (2.). Fig. 38.

Take D any point in the ellipse, and on C as a centre with the distance CD describe a circle. If this circle fall wholly without the curve, then CD must be half the transverse axis; and if it fall wholly within the curve, then CD must be half the conjugate axis (12.). If the circle neither falls wholly without the curve, nor wholly within it, let the circle meet it again in d, join D d, and bisect D d in E, join CE, which produce to meet the ellipse in A and a, then A a will be one of the axes (5 cor. 8.), for it is perpendicular to D d (3. 3. E.) which is an ordinate to A a. The other axis B b will be found by drawing a straight line through the centre perpendicular to A a.

PART III. OF THE HYPERBOLA.

Definitions.

Fig. 39. I. If two points F, f be given in a plane, and a point D be conceived to move in such a manner that Df—DF, the difference of its distances from them is always the same, the point D will describe upon the plane a line DAD′ called an *Hyperbola*. By assuming first one of the given points F, and then the other f as that to which the moving point is nearest, the difference of the lines DF and Df in both cases being the same, there will be two hyperbolas DAD′, $d\,a\,d'$, described, opposite to one another, which are therefore called *Opposite Hyperbolas*.

Cor. The lines DF, Df may become greater than any given line, therefore the hyperbolas extend to a greater distance from the given points F, f than any which can be assigned.

II. The given points F, f are called the *Foci of the hyperbola*.

III. The point C, which bisects the straight line between the foci, is called the *Centre*.

IV. A straight line passing through the centre, and terminated

terminated by the oppofite hyperbolas, is called a *Tranfverfe Diameter*. It is alfo fometimes called, fimply, a *Diameter*.

V. The extremities of a diameter are called its *Vertices*.

VI. The diameter which paffes through the foci, is called the *Tranfverfe Axis*.

Cor. The vertices of the tranfverfe axis lie between the foci. Let A be either of the vertices, then, becaufe any fide of a triangle is greater than the difference between the other two fides, F f is greater than fD—DF which is equal to fA—FA (Def. 1.) Now this can only take place when A is between F and f.

VII. A ftraight line B b paffing through the centre, perpendicular to the tranfverfe axis, and limited at B and b by a circle defcribed on one extremity of that axis, with a radius equal to the diftance of either focus from the centre, is called the *Conjugate Axis*. It is alfo called the *Second Axis*.

Cor. The conjugate axis is bifected in the centre. This appears from 3. 3. E.

VIII. Any ftraight line terminated both ways by the hyperbola, and bifected by a tranfverfe diameter produced, is called an *Ordinate* to that diameter.

IX. Each of the fegments of a tranfverfe diameter produced, intercepted by its vertices, and an ordinate, is called a *Abfcifs*.

X. A ftraight line which meets the hyberbola in one point only, and which everywhere elfe falls without the oppofite hyperbolas, is faid to *touch* the hyperbola in that point, and is called a *Tangent to the hyperbola*.

Prop. I.

If from any point in an hyperbola two ftraight lines be drawn to the foci, their difference is equal to the tranfverfe axis.

Fig. 39. Let DAD′, $d\,a\,d'$ be oppofite hyperbolas, of which F, f are the foci, and A a the tranfverfe axis; let D be any point in the curve, and DF, Df lines drawn to the foci, Df—DF=A a.

Becaufe A and a are points in the hyperbola,

Af—AF=aF—$a f$ (Def. 1.)
therefore Ff—2AF=Ff—2 $a f$;
Hence 2AF=2 $a f$ and AF=$a f$,
and Af—AF=Af—$a f$=A a.

But D and A being points in the hyperbola,

Df—DF=Af—AF, therefore Df—DF=A a.

Cor. 1. The difference of two ftraight lines drawn from a point without the oppofite hyperbolas to the foci is lefs than the tranfverfe axis, and the difference of two ftraight lines drawn from a point within either of them to the foci is greater than the tranfverfe axis.

Fig. 40. Let Pf, PF be lines drawn from a point without the hyperbolas, that is, between the curve and its conjugate axis. The line PF muft neceffarily meet the curve, let D be the point of interfection; Pf is lefs than PD+Df (20. 1. E.), therefore Pf—PF is lefs than (PD+Df)—PF, that is, lefs than Df—DF, or A a. Again, let Qf, QF be lines drawn from a point within either of the hyperbolas, Qf muft neceffarily meet the curve; let D be the point of interfection, join FD. QF is greater than QD+DF, and therefore Qf—CF is greater than Qf—(QD+DF), that is, greater than Df—DF or A a.

Cor. 2. A point is without, or within the hyperbolas, according as the difference of two lines drawn from that point to the foci is lefs or greater than the tranfverfe axis.

Cor. 3. The tranfverfe axis is bifected in the centre. Let C be the centre; then CF=Cf (Def. 3.), and FA=$f a$, therefore CA=C a.

Lemma I.

Two triangles ABC, ADC on the fame bafe, and on the fame fide of it, having AB, AD, the greater of the two fides of each ending in the fame extremity of the bafe, and having their vertical angles B, D without each other, cannot have the difference of the fides of the one equal to the difference of the fides of the other. Fig. 41.

Let AD meet BC in E. Becaufe AE+EB is greater than AB, (AE+EB)—BC=AE—EC is greater than AB—BC. Again, becaufe DC is lefs than DE+EC, AD—DC is greater than AD—(DE+EC)=AE—EC; much more therefore is AD—DC greater than AB—BC. Therefore AD—DC cannot be equal to AB—BC.

Prop. II.

Every tranfverfe diameter of an hyperbola is bifected in the centre. Plate CLIX.

Let Pp be a tranfverfe diameter, it is bifected in C; for if Cp be not equal to CP, take CQ equal to CP; from the points P, p, Q draw ftraight lines to F and f the foci; draw fD perpendicular to Cp, and FE parallel to PD, meeting fD in E; join Ep, EQ. Becaufe fC=CF, and CD is parallel to EF, fD=DE (2. 6. E.). Now pD is common to the triangles fDp, EDp, and the angles at D are equal, being right angles, therefore the triangles are equal, and $p f$=pE. In like manner, it appears that Qf=QE. Again, the triangles FCP, fCQ having FG=Cf, PC=CQ, and the angles at C equal, are in all refpects equal, therefore FP=fQ. In like manner it appears that Pf=QF, therefore FQ—fQ is equal to fP—FP, or (Def. 1.) to Fp—$f p$; that is, FQ—QE is equal to Fp—pE, which by the preceding lemma is abfurd; therefore CP=Cp. Fig. 42.

Cor. 1. Every tranfverfe diameter meets the oppofite hyperbolas each in one point only, and being produced falls within them.

Cor. 2. Every tranfverfe diameter divides the oppofite hyperbolas into parts which are equal and fimilar; the like parts of the curve being at oppofite extremities of the diameter, and on contrary fides of it.

Prop. III.

The fquare of half the conjugate axis of an hyperbola is equal to the rectangle contained by the ftraight lines between either focus and the extremities of the tranfverfe axis.

Draw

Of the Hyperbola.

Plate CLVIII. Fig. 39.

DRAW a straight line from a, either of the extremities of the transverse axis, to B, either of the extremities of the conjugate axis.

Then $BC^2 + Ca^2 = Ba^2 = Cf^2$ (Def. 7.)

But because Aa is bisected at C, and produced to f,

$Cf^2 = Affa + Ca^2$ (6. 2. E.)
therefore $BC^2 + Ca^2 = Affa + Ca^2$,
and $BC^2 = Affa$.

PROP. IV.

The straight line which bisects the angle contained by two straight lines drawn from any point in the hyperbola to the foci is a tangent to the curve at that point.

Plate CLIX. Fig. 43.

LET D be any point in the curve, let DF, Df be straight lines drawn to the foci, the straight line DE which bisects the angle fDF is a tangent to the curve.

Take H any other point in DE, take DG=Df, and join Hf, HF, HG, fG; let fG meet DE in I. Because Df=DG and DI is common to the triangles DfI, DGI, and the angles fDI, GDI are equal, these triangles are equal, and fI=IG, and hence fH =HG (4. 1. E.), so that FH—fH=FH—HG: but since FH is less than FG+GH, FH—HG is less than FG, that is less than FD—fD or A a, therefore FH—fH is less than A a; hence the point H is without the hyperbola, (2. cor. 1.), and consequently DHI is a tangent to the curve at D (Def. 10.)

COR. 1. There cannot be more than one tangent to the hyperbola at the same point. For D is such a point in the line DE, that the difference of the lines DF, Df, the distances of that point from the foci, is evidently greater than the difference of FH, fH the distances of H any other point in that line; and if another line KD be drawn through D, there is in like manner a point K in that line, which will be different from D, such, that the difference of FK, fK is greater than the difference of the distances of any other point in KD, and therefore greater than FD—fD, therefore the point K will be within the hyperbola (2 cor. 1.), and the line KD will cut the curve.

COR. 2. A perpendicular to the transverse axis at either of its extremities is a tangent to the curve. The demonstration is the same as for the proposition, if it be considered that when D falls at either extremity of the axis, the point I falls also at the extremity of the axis, and thus the tangent DE, which is always perpendicular to fI, is perpendicular to the axis.

COR. 3. Every tangent to either of the opposite hyperbolas passes between that hyperbola and the centre. Let the tangent DI meet the axis in E. Because DE bisects the angle FDf,

FD : fD :: FE : fE (3. 6. E.)

But FD is greater than fD (Def. 1.), therefore FE is greater than fE, and hence E is between C and the vertex of the hyperbola to which DE is a tangent.

SCHOLIUM.

From the property of the hyperbola which forms this proposition, the points F and f are called *Foci*. For rays of light proceeding from one focus, and falling upon a polished surface whose figure is that formed by the revolution of the curve about the transverse axis, are reflected in lines passing through the other focus.

PROP. V.

The tangents at the vertices of any transverse diameter of an hyperbola are parallel.

LET Pp be a diameter, HP, hp tangents at its vertices; draw straight lines from P and p to F and f the foci. The triangles FCP, fCp, having FC=fC, CP=Cp (2.), and the angles at C equal, are in all respects equal, and because the angle FPC is equal to Cpf, FP is parallel to fp (27. 1. E.), therefore Pf is equal and parallel to pF (33. 1. E.): thus FPfp is a parallelogram of which the opposite angles P and p are equal (34. 1. E.); now the angles FPH, fph are the halves of these angles (4.); therefore the angles FPH, fph, and hence CPH, Cph, are also equal, and consequently HP is parallel to hp. Fig. 44.

COR. 1. If tangents be drawn to an hyperbola at the vertices of a transverse diameter, straight lines drawn from either focus to the points of contact make equal angles with these tangents. For the angle Fph is equal to FPH.

COR. 2. The transverse axis is the only diameter which is perpendicular to tangents at its vertices. For let Pp be any other diameter. The angle CPH is less than FPH, that is, less than the half of FPf, therefore CPH is less than a right angle.

PROP. VI.

A straight line drawn from either focus of an hyperbola to the intersection of two tangents to the curve, will make equal angles with straight lines drawn from the same focus to the points of contact.

LET HP, Hp be tangents to an hyperbola at the points P, p; let a straight line be drawn from H their intersection to F either of the foci; and let FP, Fp be drawn to the points of contact; the lines PF, pF make equal angles with HF. Fig. 45. and 46.

Draw Pf, pf to the other focus. In PF and pF take PK=Pf, and pk=pf; join HK, Hk, and let fK, fk be drawn, meeting the tangents in G and g. The triangles fPH, KPH have Pf=PK, by construction, and PH common to both, also the angle fPH equal to KPH (4.); therefore fH is equal to KH. In like manner it may be shewn, that fH is equal to kH, therefore HK is equal to Hk; now FK is equal to Fk, for each is equal to the difference between FP and fP, or Fp and fp, that is, to the transverse axis; therefore the triangles FKH, FkH are in all respects equal, and hence the angle FKH is equal to kFH, therefore PF and pF make equal angles with HF.

PROP.

PROP. VII.

Two tangents to an hyperbola, or opposite hyperbolas, which are limited by their mutual intersection and the points in which they touch the curve, are to each other, reciprocally, as the sines of the angles they contain with straight lines drawn from the points of contact to either focus.

Fig. 47. and 48. LET HP, Hp, which intersect each other at H, be tangents to an hyperbola, or opposite hyperbolas, at the points P, p; and let PF, pF be drawn to either focus,

HP : Hp :: sine HpF : sine PHF.

Join HF, and in FP take FQ equal to Fp, and join HQ; then, the angles at F being equal (6.), the triangles HFQ, HFp are equal, therefore HQ is equal to Hp, and the angle HQF is equal to HpF. Now in the triangle HPQ,

HP : HQ :: sine HQP, or sine HQF : sine HPF (Trig.)
therefore HP : Hp :: sine HpF : sine HPF.

LEMMA II.

Fig. 49. Let KLl be a triangle, having its base Ll bisected at p, and let Hh, any straight line parallel to the base, and terminated by the sides produced, be bisected at P, then P, p the point of bisection, and K the vertex of the triangle, are in the same straight line, and that line bisects Dd any other line parallel to the base.

JOIN KP, Kp. The triangles KHh, KLl being similar, and Hh, Ll similarly divided at P, p,

KH : KL :: (Hh : Ll ::) HP : Lp.

Now the angles at H and L are equal, therefore the triangles KHP, KLp are similar, and the angle PKH is equal to pKL; to both add the angle HKp, and the angles PKH, HKp are equal to pKL, HKp, that is, to two right angles; therefore KP, Kp lie in the same straight line (14. 1. E.)

Next let Dd meet Kp in E, then

HP : DE (:: PK : EK) :: Ph : Ed,
therefore DE is equal to Ed.

PROP. VIII.

Any straight line terminated both ways by an hyperbola, and parallel to a tangent, is bisected by the transverse diameter produced, that passes through the point of contact, or is an ordinate to that diameter.

Fig. 50. THE straight line Dd, terminated by the hyperbola, and parallel to the tangent HPh, is bisected at E by Pp the transverse diameter produced, which passes through P, the point of contact.

Let L$p l$ be a tangent at the other extremity of the diameter, and let KD, Kd, tangents at the points D, d, meet the parallel tangents HPh, L$p l$ in the point H, L, h, l, and draw DF, dF, PF to either focus. Because Hh is parallel to Dd,

HD : $h d$ :: KD : Kd.

But KD, Kd being tangents to the hyperbola,

sine $h d$F : sine HDF :: KD : Kd (7.)
therefore sine $h d$F : sine HDF :: HD : $h d$,
now, sine hPF : sine $h d$F :: $h d$: hP (7.)
therefore, (23. 5. E.) sine hPF : sine HDF :: HD : hP;

but sine HPF or sine hPF : sine HDF :: HD : HP, therefore the ratio of HD to hP is the same as the ratio of HD to HP, wherefore PH = Ph. In the same manner it may be demonstrated that pL = $p l$, therefore (lemma 2.) the diameter Pp when produced passes through K, and bisects Dd, which is parallel to Hh, or Ll, at E.

COR. 1. Straight lines which touch an hyperbola at the extremities of an ordinate to any transverse diameter, intersect each other in that diameter.

COR. 2. Every ordinate to a transverse diameter is parallel to a tangent at its vertex. For, if not, let a tangent be drawn parallel to the ordinate, then the diameter drawn through the point of contact would bisect the ordinate, and thus the same line would be bisected in two different points, which is absurd.

COR. 3. All the ordinates to the same transverse diameter are parallel to each other.

COR. 4. A straight line that bisects two parallel chords, and terminates in the opposite hyperbola, is a transverse diameter.

COR. 5. The ordinates to the transverse axis are perpendicular to it, and no other transverse diameter has its ordinates perpendicular to it. This follows from 2 cor. 4. and 2 cor. 5.

COR. 6. The transverse axis, indefinitely produced, divides each of the opposite hyperbolas into two parts which are similar to one another.

PROP. IX.

If a tangent to an hyperbola meet a transverse diameter, and from the point of contact an ordinate be drawn to that diameter, the semidiameter will be a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter intercepted between the centre and the ordinate, and between the centre and the tangent.

LET DK a tangent to the curve at D meet the transverse diameter Pp in K, and let DEd be an ordinate to that diameter, Fig. 50.

Then CE : CP :: CP : CK.

Through P and p, the vertices of the diameter, draw the tangents PH and pL, meeting KD in H and L, these tangents are parallel to each other (5.), and to DE, the ordinate, by last proposition. Draw PF, pF, DF to either of the foci. Then,

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{DH : HP :: sine HPF : sine HDF,}\\ \text{and DL : L}p\text{ :: sine L}p\text{F : sine LDF, or sine HDF}\end{array}\right\}(7.)$$

Now the angles HPF, LpF are equal (1 cor. 5.); therefore,

therefore,

$$DH : PH :: DL : pL,$$

and by alternation

$$DH : DL :: PH : pL;$$

therefore, because of the parallel lines PH, ED, pL,

$$EP : Ep :: PK : pK.$$

Take CG=CE, then PG=Ep, and by composition

$$EG : EP :: Pp : PK,$$

and taking the halves of the antecedents

$$CE : EP :: CP : PK;$$

hence, by division, CE : CP :: CP : CK.

Cor. 1. The rectangle contained by PE and Ep is equal to the rectangle contained by KE and CE.

For $CP^2 = KC \cdot CE = EC^2 - KE \cdot EC$ (2. 2. E.)
also $CP^2 = EC^2 - PE \cdot Ep$ (6. 2. E.)
therefore $EC^2 - KE \cdot EC = EC^2 - PE \cdot Ep$,
and $KE \cdot EC = PE \cdot Ep$.

Cor. 2. The rectangle contained by PK and Kp is equal to the rectangle contained by KE and KC.

For $KC^2 = CP^2 - PK \cdot Kp$ (5. 2. E.)
also $KC^2 = EC \cdot KC - EK \cdot KC = CP^2 - EK \cdot KC$ (3. 2. E. and by the prop.)
therefore $CP^2 - PK \cdot Kp = CP^2 - EK \cdot KC$,
and $PK \cdot Kp = EK \cdot KC$.

Prop. X.

If a tangent to an hyperbola meet the conjugate axis, and from the point of contact a perpendicular be drawn to that axis, the semiaxis will be a mean proportional between the segments of the axis intercepted between the centre and the perpendicular, and between the centre and the tangent.

Fig. 51. Let DH, a tangent to the hyperbola at D, meet the conjugate axis Bb in H, and let DG be perpendicular to that axis, then

$$CG : CB :: CB : CH.$$

Let DH meet the transverse axis in K, draw DE perpendicular to that axis, draw DF, Df to the foci, and describe a circle about the triangle DfF; the conjugate axis will evidently pass through the centre of the circle, and because the angle FDf is bisected by the tangent DK, the line DK will pass through one extremity of the diameter; therefore the circle passes through H. Draw DL to the other extremity of the diameter. The triangles LGD, KCH, are similar, for each is similar to the right-angled triangle LDH, therefore,

LG : GD (=CE) :: CK : CH;
hence $LG \cdot CH = CE \cdot CK =$ (by last prop.) CA^2.
Now $LC \cdot CH = CF^2$ (35. 3. E.)
therefore $LC \cdot CH - LG \cdot CH = CF^2 - CA^2$,
that is, $CG \cdot CH = CB^2$ (Def. 7.)
wherefore CG : CB :: CB : CH.

Definition.

Fig. 52. XI. If through A, one of the vertices of the transverse axis, a straight line HAh be drawn, equal and parallel to Bb the conjugate axis, and bisected at A by the transverse axis, the straight lines CHM, Chm drawn through the centre, and the extremities of that parallel, are called *Asymptotes*.

Cor. 1. The asymptotes of two opposite hyperbolas are common to both. Through a, the other extremity of the axis, drawn H′$a$$h'$, parallel to B$b$, and meeting the asymptotes of the hyperbola DAD in H′ and h'. Because aC is equal to AC, aH′ is equal to Ah, or to BC; also $a$$h'$ is equal to AH, or to BC; hence, by the definition, CH′ and Ch' are asymptotes of the opposite hyperbola d a d.

Cor. 2. The asymptotes are diagonals of a rectangle formed by drawing perpendiculars to the axes at their vertices. For the lines AH, CB, aH′ being equal and parallel, the points H, B, H′ are in a straight line passing through B parallel to Aa; the same is true of the points h, b, h'.

Prop. XI.

The asymptotes do not meet the hyperbola; and if from any point in the curve a straight line be drawn parallel to the conjugate axis, and terminated by the asymptotes, the rectangle contained by its segments from that point is equal to the square of half that axis.

Through D any point in the hyperbola draw a straight line parallel to the conjugate axis, meeting the transverse axis in E, and the asymptotes in M and m; the points M and m shall be without the hyperbola, and the rectangle MD·Dm is equal to the square of BC. Fig. 53.

Draw DG perpendicular to Bb the conjugate axis, let a tangent to the curve at D meet the transverse axis in K, and the conjugate axis in L, and let a perpendicular at the vertex A meet the asymptote in H. Because DK is a tangent, and DE an ordinate to the axis, CA is a mean proportional between CK and CE (9.), and therefore

CK : CE :: CA^2 : CE^2 (2. cor. 20. 6. E.)
But CK : CE :: LC : LG,
and $CA^2 : CE^2 :: AH^2 : EM^2$;
therefore LC : LG :: $AH^2 : EM^2$.

Again, CB being a mean proportional between CL and CG (10.)

LC : CG :: $CB^2 : CG^2$,
and therefore
LC : LG :: $CB^2 : CB^2 + CG^2$, or $CB^2 + ED^2$;
wherefore $AH^2 : EM^2 :: CB^2 : CB^2 + ED^2$;
Now $AH^2 = CB^2$ (Def. 11.)
therefore $EM^2 = CB^2 + ED^2$,

consequently EM^2 is greater than ED^2, and EM greater

greater than ED, therefore M is without the hyperbola. In like manner it appears that m is without the hyperbola; therefore every point in both the asymptotes is without the hyperbola. Again, the straight line Mm terminated by the asymptotes, being manifestly bisected by the axis at E,

$$ME^2 = MD \cdot Dm + DE^2;$$

but it has been shewn that

$$ME^2 = BC^2 + DE^2$$

therefore $MD \cdot Dm = BC^2$.

Cor. 1. Hence, if in a straight line Mm, terminated by the asymptotes, and parallel to the conjugate axis, there be taken a point D such that the rectangle MD·Dm is equal to the square of that axis, the point D is in the hyperbola.

Cor. 2. If straight lines MDm, NRn, be drawn through D and R, any points in the hyperbola, or opposite hyperbolas, parallel to the conjugate axis, and meeting the asymptotes in M, m, and N, n, the rectangles MD·Dm, NR·Rn are equal.

Prop. XII.

The hyperbola and its asymptote when produced continually approach to each other, and the distance between them becomes less than any given line.

Fig. 53. Take two points E and O in the transverse axis produced, and through these points draw straight lines parallel to the conjugate axis, meeting the hyperbola in D, R, and the asymptotes in M m, and N n.

Because NO^2 is greater than ME^2,
and $NR \cdot Rn = MD \cdot Dm$, (2 cor. 11.)
therefore $NO^2 - NR \cdot Rn$ is greater than $ME^2 - MD \cdot Dm$,
that is, RO^2 is greater than DE^2,
and RO is greater than DE;
now On is greater than Em,
therefore Rn is greater than Dm,
and since $Rn : Dm :: DM : RN$, (2 cor. 11.)
DM is greater than RN,

therefore the point R is nearer to the asymptote than D, that is, the hyperbola when produced approaches to the asymptote.

Let S be any line less than half the conjugate axis; then, because Dm, a straight line drawn from a point in the hyperbola, parallel to the conjugate axis, and terminated by the asymptote on the other side of the transverse axis, may evidently be of any magnitude greater than Ah, which is equal to half the conjugate axis, Dm may be a third proportional to S and BC; and since Dm is also a third proportional to DM (the segment between D and the other asymptote) and BC, DM may be equal to S; but the distance of D from the asymptote is less than DM, therefore that distance may become less than S, and consequently less than any given line.

Cor. Every straight line passing through the centre, within the angles contained by the asymptotes through which the transverse axis passes, meets the hyperbola, and therefore is a transverse diameter; and every straight line passing through the centre within the adjacent angles falls entirely without the hyperbola.

Scholium.

The name *asymptotes* (*non concurrentes*) has been given to the lines CH, Ch, because of the property they have of continually approaching to the hyperbola without meeting it, as has been proved in this proposition.

Prop. XIII.

If from two points in a hyperbola, or opposite hyperbolas, two parallel straight lines be drawn to meet the asymptotes, the rectangles contained by their segments between the points and the asymptotes are equal. Plate CLX.

Let D and G be two points in the hyperbola, or opposite hyperbolas, let parallel lines EDe, HGh be drawn to meet the asymptotes in E, e, and H, h, the rectangles ED·De, HG·GH are equal. Fig. 54. and 55.

Through D and G draw straight lines parallel to the conjugate axis, meeting the asymptotes in the points L, l, and M, m. The triangles HGM, EDL are similar, as also the triangles h G m, e D l,

therefore $DL : DE :: GM : GH$,
and $Dl : De :: Gm : Gh$;

hence, taking the rectangles of the corresponding terms of the proportions,

$LD \cdot Dl : ED \cdot De :: MG \cdot Gm : HG \cdot Gh$.
But $LD \cdot Dl = MG \cdot Gm$ (2 cor. 11.)
therefore $ED \cdot De = HG \cdot Gh$.

Cor. 1. If a straight line be drawn through D, d, two points in the same or opposite hyperbolas, the segments DE, de between those points and the asymptotes are equal. For in the same manner that the rectangles ED·De, HG·Gh have been proved to be equal, it may be shewn that the rectangles Ed · de, HG · Gh are equal, therefore ED · De = Ed · de. Let E e be bisected in O, then $ED \cdot De = EO^2 - OD^2$ and $Ed \cdot de = EO^2 - Od^2$, therefore $EO^2 - OD^2 = EO^2 - Od^2$; hence OD = O$d$, and ED = ed. Fig. 54. and 55.

Cor. 2. When the points D and d are in the same hyperbola, by supposing them to approach till they coincide at P, the line Ee will thus become a tangent to the curve at P. Therefore any tangent KPk, which is terminated by the asymptotes, is bisected at P, the point of contact. Fig. 54. and 55.

Cor. 3. And if any straight line KPk, limited by the asymptotes, be bisected at P a point in the curve, that line is tangent at P. For it is evident that only one line can be drawn through P which shall be limited by the asymptotes, and bisected at P. Fig. 54.

Cor. 4. If a straight line be drawn through D, any point in the hyperbola, parallel to a tangent KPk, and terminated by the asymptotes at E and e, the rectangle ED·De is equal to the square of PK, the segment of the tangent between the point of contact and either asymptote. The demonstration is the same as in the proposition. Fig. 54.

Cor. 5. If from any point D in a hyperbola a straight line be drawn parallel to Pp any diameter, meeting the asymptotes in E and e, the rectangle ED·De is equal to the square of half the diameter. The demonstration is the same as in the proposition. Fig. 55.

Of the Hyperbola.

PROP. XIV.

If two ſtraight lines be drawn from any point in an hyperbola to the aſymptotes, and from any other point in the ſame, or oppoſite hyperbolas, two other lines be drawn parallel to the former, the rectangle contained by the two firſt lines will be equal to the rectangle contained by the other two lines.

Fig. 56. FROM D any point in the hyperbola draw DH and DK to the aſymptotes, and from any other point d draw dh and dk parallel to DH and DK. The rectangles HD · DK, $hd \cdot dk$ are equal.

Join D, d meeting the aſymptotes in E, e. From ſimilar triangles

$$ED : DH :: Ed : dh,$$
$$\text{and } eD : DK :: ed : dk,$$

therefore taking the rectangles of correſponding terms,

$$ED \cdot De : HD \cdot DK :: Ed \cdot de : hd \cdot dk;$$
$$\text{but } ED \cdot De = Ed \cdot de \ (13.),$$
$$\text{therefore } HD \cdot DK = hd \cdot dk.$$

COR. 1. If the lines D′K′, D′H′, $d'k'$, $d'h'$, be parallel to the aſymptotes, and thus form the parallelograms D′K′CH′, $d'k'$ Ch', theſe are equal to one another (16. and 14. 6. E.). And if D′C, d'C be joined, the halves of the parallelograms, or the triangles D′K′C, $d'k'$ C are alſo equal.

COR. 2. If from D′, d', any two points in an hyperbola, ſtraight lines D′K′, $d'k'$ be drawn parallel to one aſymptote, meeting the other in K′ and k', theſe lines are to each other reciprocally as their diſtances from the centre, or D′K : $d'k'$ :: Ck' : CK′. This appears from laſt cor. and 14. 6. E.

DEFINITIONS.

Fig. 57. XII. If Aa be the tranſverſe axis, and Bb the conjugate axis of two oppoſite hyperbolas DAD, dad, and if Bb be the tranſverſe axis, and Aa the conjugate axis of other two oppoſite hyperbolas EBE, ebe, theſe hyperbolas are ſaid to be *conjugate to the former*. When all the four hyperbolas are mentioned they are called *conjugate hyperbolas*.

COR. The aſymptotes of the hyperbolas DAD, dad are alſo the aſymptotes of the hyperbolas EBE, ebe. This is evident from Cor. 2. to Definition 11.

XIII. Any diameter of the conjugate hyperbolas is called a *ſecond diameter of the other hyperbolas*.

COR. Every ſtraight line paſſing through the centre within the angle through which the conjugate or ſecond axis paſſes, is a ſecond diameter of the hyperbola.

XIV. Any ſtraight line not paſſing through the centre, but terminated both ways by the oppoſite hyperbolas, and biſected by a ſecond diameter, is called an *Ordinate to that diameter*.

PROP. XV.

Any ſtraight line not paſſing through the centre, but terminated by the oppoſite hyperbolas, and parallel to a tangent to either of the conjugate hyperbolas, is biſected by the ſecond diameter that paſſes through the point of contact, or is an ordinate to that diameter.

Of the Hyperbola.

THE ſtraight line Dd terminated by the oppoſite hyperbolas, and parallel to the tangent KQk, is biſected at E by Qq the diameter that paſſes through the point of contact. Fig. 58.

Let Dd meet the aſymptotes in G and g, and let the tangent meet them in K and k. The ſtraight lines Gg, Kk are evidently ſimilarly divided at E and Q, and ſince KQ=Qk (2 cor. 13.) therefore GE=Eg; now DG=gd (1 cor. 13.) therefore DE=Ed.

COR. 1. Every ordinate to a ſecond diameter is parallel to a tangent at its vertex. The demonſtration is the ſame as in Cor. 2. Prop. 8.

COR. 2. All the ordinates to the ſame ſecond diameter are parallel to each other.

COR. 4. A ſtraight line that biſects two parallel ſtraight lines which terminate in the oppoſite hyperbolas is a ſecond diameter.

COR. 5. The ordinates to the conjugate or ſecond axis are perpendicular to it, and no other ſecond diameter is perpendicular to its ordinates.

COR. 6. The oppoſite hyperbolas are ſimilar to one another, and like portions of them are, in all reſpects, equal.

PROP. XVI.

If a tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola be parallel to the ordinates to a ſecond diameter, the latter ſhall be parallel to the ordinates to the former.

LET Pp, a tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola, be parallel to DEd, any ordinate to the ſecond diameter Qq, the ſecond diameter Qq ſhall be parallel to the ordinates to the diameter Pp. Fig. 59.

Draw the diameter dCG through one extremity of the ordinate dD, and join G and D, the other extremity, meeting Pp in H. Becauſe dG is biſected at C, and CH is parallel to dD, the line DG is biſected at H, therefore DG is an ordinate to the diameter Pp. And becauſe dG and dD are biſected at C and E, the diameter Qq is parallel to DG (2. 6. E.), therefore Qq is parallel to any ordinate to the diameter Pp.

DEFINITIONS.

XV. Two diameters are ſaid to be *conjugate to one another* when each is parallel to the ordinates to the other diameter.

COR. Diameters which are conjugate to one another are parallel to tangents at the vertices of each other.

XVI. A third proportional to any diameter and its conjugate is called the *Parameter*, alſo the *Latus rectum of that diameter*.

PROP. XVII.

The tangent at the vertex of any tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola, which is terminated by the aſymptotes, is equal to the diameter that is conjugate to that diameter.

LET PCp be any tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola, HPh a tangent at its vertex, meeting the aſymptotes Fig. 60.

Of the Hyperbola.

totes in H and h, and Qq the diameter which is conjugate to Pp; the tangent Hh is equal to the diameter Qq.

Through D, any point in the hyperbola, draw a ſtraight line parallel to the tangent and diameter, cutting either of the conjugate hyperbolas in d, and the aſymptotes in E and e, and through D and d draw lines parallel to Bb the conjugate axis, meeting the aſymptotes in the points K, k, and L, l. The triangles DEK, dEL are ſimilar, as alſo eDk, edl, therefore

$$KD : DE :: Ld : dE,$$
$$\text{and } kD : De :: ld : de;$$

therefore, taking the rectangles of the correſponding terms,

$$KD \cdot Dk : ED \cdot De :: Ld \cdot dl : Ed \cdot de.$$

But $KD \cdot Dk = BC^2$ (11.) and $BC^2 = Ld \cdot dl$ (5 cor. 13.)

therefore $ED \cdot De = Ed \cdot de$.

Now $ED \cdot De = HP^2$ (4 cor. 13.),

and $Ed \cdot de = QC^2$ (5 cor. 13.)

therefore $HP^2 = QC^2$, and $HP = QC$,

and conſequently $Hh = Qq$.

Cor. 1. If another tangent be drawn to the curve at p, meeting the aſymptotes in H′ and h', the ſtraight lines which join the points H, H′, alſo h, h', are tangents to the conjugate hyperbolas at Q and q. For pH′ as well as PH is equal and parallel to CQ, therefore the points H, Q, H′ are in a ſtraight line parallel to Pp, and HQ=H′Q (33. 1. E.), therefore HQH′ is a tangent to the curve at Q. In like manner it appears that hqh' is a tangent at q.

Cor. 2. If tangents be drawn at the vertices of two conjugate diameters, they will meet in the aſymptotes, and form a parallelogram of which the aſymptotes are diagonals.

Prop. XVIII.

If a tangent to an hyperbola meet a ſecond diameter, and from the point of contact an ordinate be drawn to that diameter, half the ſecond diameter will be a mean proportional between the ſegments of the diameter intercepted between the centre and the ordinate, and between the centre and the tangent.

Let DL a tangent to the curve at D meet the ſecond diameter Qq in L, and let DGd' be an ordinate to that diameter, then Fig. 61

$$CG : CQ :: CQ : CL.$$

Let Pp be the diameter that is conjugate to Qq, let HPh be a tangent at the vertex, terminated by the aſymptotes; through D draw the ordinate DEd to the diameter Pp, meeting the aſymptotes in M and m; let K be the interſection of DL and Pp. Becauſe DK is a tangent at D, and DEd an ordinate to Pp, CP is a mean proportional between CE and CK (9.) and therefore

$$CE^2 : CP^2 :: CE : CK.$$

Now, the lines CQ, PH, EM being parallel (8. and Def. 15.), from ſimilar triangles,

$$CE^2 : CP^2 :: EM^2 : PH^2,$$
$$\text{and CE, or DG} : CK :: LG : LC;$$
$$\text{therefore } EM^2 : PH^2 :: LG : LC,$$
$$\text{and by diviſion, \&c. } EM^2 - PH^2 : PH^2 :: CG : LC :: CG^2 : CG \cdot LC.$$
$$\text{But ſince } PH^2 = MD \cdot Dm \text{ (4 cor. 13.), } EM^2 - PH^2 = ED^2 = CG^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } PH^2 = CG \cdot LC;$$
$$\text{wherefore, and ſince } PH = CQ \text{ (17.)}$$
$$CG : CQ :: CQ : CL.$$

Prop. XIX.

If an ordinate be drawn to any tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola, the rectangle under the abſciſſes of the diameter will be to the ſquare of the ſemi-ordinate as the ſquare of the diameter to the ſquare of its conjugate.

Fig. 62. Let DEd be an ordinate to the tranſverſe diameter Pp, and let Qq be its conjugate diameter.

$$PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp^2 : Qq^2.$$

Let DKL a tangent at D meet the diameter in K, and its conjugate in L. Draw DG parallel to Pp, meeting Qq in G. Becauſe CP is a mean proportional between CE and CK (9.)

$$CP^2 : CE^2 :: CK : CE,$$
$$\text{and by diviſion } CP^2 : PE \cdot Ep :: CK : KE.$$
$$\text{But, becauſe ED is parallel to CL,}$$
$$CK : KE :: CL : DE, \text{ or CG,}$$

and becauſe CQ is a mean proportional between CG and CL (18.)

$$CL : CG :: CQ^2 : CG^2, \text{ or } DE^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } CP^2 : PE \cdot Ep :: CQ^2 : DE^2,$$

and by inverſion and alternation,

$$PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: CP^2 : CQ^2 :: Pp^2 : Qq^2.$$

Cor. 1. If an ordinate be drawn to any ſecond diameter of an hyperbola, the ſum of the ſquares of half the ſecond diameter and its ſegment intercepted by the ordinate from the centre, is to the ſquare of the ſemi-ordinate, as the ſquare of the ſecond diameter to the ſquare of its conjugate.

Let DG be a ſemi-ordinate to the ſecond diameter Qq. It has been ſhewn that

$$CG^2 : CQ^2 :: PE \cdot Ep : CP^2,$$
$$\text{therefore, by comp.}$$
$$CQ^2 + CG^2 : CQ^2 : CE^2 \text{ or } DG^2 : CP^2,$$
$$\text{and by alter.}$$
$$CQ^2 + CG^2 : CE^2 :: CQ^2 : CP^2 :: Qq^2 : Pp^2.$$

Cor. 2. The ſquares of ſemi-ordinates, and of ordinates to any tranſverſe diameter, are to one another as the rectangles contained by the correſponding abſciſſes; and the ſquares of ſemi-ordinates, and of ordi-

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nates to any ſecond diameter are to one another as the ſums of the ſquares of half that diameter and the ſegments intercepted by the ordinate from the centre.

Cor. 3. The ordinates to any tranſverſe diameter, which intercept equal ſegments of that diameter from the centre, are equal to one another, and, converſely, equal ordinates intercept equal ſegments of the diameter from the centre.

Prop. XX.

Plate CLXI. The tranſverſe axis of an hyperbola is the leaſt of all its tranſverſe diameters, and the conjugate axis is the leaſt of all its ſecond diameters.

Fig. 64. Let Rr be the tranſverſe axis, Pp any other tranſverſe diameter, draw PE perpendicular to Rr; then CE being greater than CR, and CP greater than CE, much more is CP greater than CR, therefore Pp is greater than Rr. In like manner it is ſhewn that if Ss be the conjugate axis, and Qq any other ſecond diameter, Qq is greater than Ss.

Prop. XXI.

Plate CLX. If an ordinate be drawn to any tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola, the rectangle under the abſciſſes of the diameter is to the ſquare of the ſemi-ordinate as the diameter to its parameter.

Fig. 63. Let DE be a ſemi-ordinate to the tranſverſe diameter Pp; let PG be the parameter of the diameter, and Qq the conjugate diameter. By the definition of the parameter (Def. 16.)

$$Pp : Qq :: Qq : PG,$$
$$\text{therefore, } Pp : PG :: Pp^2 : Qq^2, \text{ (2 cor. 20. 6. E.)}$$
$$\text{But } Pp^2 : Qq^2 :: PE \cdot Ep : DE^2, \text{ (19.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp : PG.$$

Cor. Let the parameter PG be perpendicular to the diameter Pp; join pG, and from E draw EM parallel to PG, meeting pG in M. The ſquare of DE the ſemi-ordinate is equal to the rectangle contained by PE and EM.

$$\text{For } PE \cdot Ep : DE^2 :: Pp : PG,$$
$$\text{and } Pp : PG :: Ep : EM :: PE \cdot Ep : PE \cdot EM,$$
$$\text{therefore } DE^2 = PE \cdot EM.$$

Scholium.

If the rectangles PGLp, HGKM be completed, it will appear that the ſquare of ED is equal to the rectangle MP, which rectangle is greater than the rectangle KP, contained by the abſciſs PE, and the parameter GP, by a rectangle KH ſimilar and ſimilarly ſituated to LP, the rectangle contained by the parameter and diameter. It was on account of the exceſs of the ſquare of the ordinate above the rectangle contained by the abſciſs and parameter that Apollonius gave the curve to which the property belonged the name of Hyperbola.

Prop. XXII.

Plate CLXI. If from the vertices of two conjugate diameters of an hyperbola there be drawn ordinates to any third tranſverſe diameter, the ſquare of the ſegment of that diameter, intercepted between the ordinate from the vertex of the ſecond diameter, and the centre, is equal to the rectangle contained by the ſegments between the other ordinate and the vertices of the third tranſverſe diameter. And the ſquare of the ſegment intercepted between the ordinate from the vertex of the tranſverſe diameter and the centre is equal to the ſquare of the ſegment between the other ordinate, and the centre, together with the ſquare of half the third tranſverſe diameter.

Fig. 64. Let Pp, Qq be two conjugate diameters, of which Pp is a tranſverſe, and Qq a ſecond diameter; let PE, QG be ſemi-ordinates to any third tranſverſe diameter Rr, then $CG^2 = RE \cdot Er$, and $CE^2 = CG^2 + CR^2$.

Draw the tangents PH, QK, meeting Rr in H and K. The rectangles HC·CE and KC·CG are equal, for each is equal to CR^2 (9.) therefore,

$$HC : CK :: CG : CE.$$

But the triangles HPC, CQK are evidently ſimilar (cor. Def. 15.) and ſince PE, QG are parallel, their baſes CH, KC ſimilarly divided at E and G, therefore

$$HC : CK :: HE : CG,$$
$$\text{wherefore } CG : CE :: HE : CG,$$
$$\text{conſequently } CG^2 = CE \cdot EH = (1 \text{ cor. } 9.)\ BE \cdot Er.$$

Again, from the ſimilar triangles HPC, CQK,

$$HC : CK :: CE : KG.$$
$$\text{Now it was ſhewn that } HC : CK :: CG : CE,$$
$$\text{therefore } CG : CE :: CE : KG,$$

conſequently

$$CE^2 = CG \cdot GK = (3.\ 2.\ E.)\ CG^2 + GC \cdot CK.$$
$$\text{But } GC \cdot CK = CR^2 \text{ (18.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } CE^2 = CG^2 + CR^2.$$

Cor. 1. Let Ss be the diameter that is conjugate to Rr, then Rr is to Ss as CG to PE, or as CE to QG.

$$\text{For } Rr^2 : Ss^2 :: RE \cdot Er, \text{ or } CG^2 : PE^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } Rr : Ss :: CG : PE.$$

In like manner $Rr : Ss :: CE : QG$.

Cor. 2. The difference between the ſquares of CE, CG the ſegments of the tranſverſe diameter to which the ſemi-ordinates PE, QG are drawn, is equal to the ſquare of CR the ſemi-diameter. For it has been ſhewn that $CE^2 = CG^2 + CR^2$;

$$\text{therefore } CE^2 - CG^2 = CR^2.$$

Cor. 3. The difference of the ſquares of any two conjugate diameters is equal to the difference of the ſquares of the axes. Let Rr, Ss be the axes, and Pp, Qq any two conjugate diameters; draw PE, QG perpendicular to Rr, and PL, QM perpendicular to Ss. Then

$$CE^2 - CG^2 = CR^2,$$
$$\text{and } CM^2 - CL^2, \text{ or } GB^2 - PE^2 = CS^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } CE^2 + PE^2 - (CG^2 + GQ^2) = CR^2 - CS^2,$$
$$\text{that is (47. 1. E.) } CP^2 - CQ^2 = CR^2 - CS^2,$$
$$\text{therefore } Pp^2 - Qq^2 = Rr^2 - Ss^2.$$

Prop.

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PROP. XXIII.

If four ſtraight lines be drawn touching conjugate hyperbolas at the vertices of any two conjugate diameters, the parallelogram formed by theſe lines is equal to the rectangle contained by the tranſverſe and conjugate axes.

Fig. 65. LET P p, Q q be any two conjugate diameters, a parallelogram DEGH formed by tangents to the conjugate hyperbolas at their vertices is equal to the rectangle contained by A a, B b the two axes.

Let A a, one of the axes, meet the tangent PE in K; join QK, and draw PL, QM perpendicular to A a.

Becauſe CK : CA :: CA : CL (9.)
and CA : CB :: CL : QM (1 cor. 22.)
ex aeq. CK : CB :: CA : QM,
therefore CK · QM=CB · CA.

But CK · QM=twice trian. CKQ=paral. CPEQ,
therefore the parallelogram CPEQ=CB · CA;

and, taking the quadruples of theſe, the parallelogram DEGH is equal to the rectangle contained by A a and B b.

PROP. XXIV.

If two tangents at the vertex of any tranſverſe diameter of an hyperbola meet a third tangent, the rectangle contained by their ſegments between the points of contact, and the points of interſection, is equal to the ſquare of the ſemi-diameter to which they are parallel. And the rectangle contained by the ſegments of the third tangent between its points of contact and the parallel tangents, is equal to the ſquare of the ſemi-diameter to which it is parallel.

Fig. 66. LET PH, p h, tangents at the vertices of a tranſverſe diameter P p, meet DH h, a tangent to the curve at any point D, in H and h; let CQ be the ſemi-diameter to which the tangents PH, p h are parallel, and CR that to which H h is parallel; then

PH · p h=CQ², and DH · D h=CR².

Let H h meet the ſemi-diameters CP, CQ in L and K. Draw ED, RM parallel to CQ, and DG parallel to CP.

Becauſe LP · L p=LE · LC (2 cor. 9.)
LP : LE :: LC : L p;

Hence, and becauſe of the parallels PH, ED, CK, p h,

PH : ED :: CK : p h,
wherefore PH · p h=ED · CK.
But ED · CK=CG · CK=CQ² (18.)
therefore PH · p h=CQ².

Again, the triangles LED, CMR are evidently ſimilar, and LE, LD are ſimilarly divided at H and P, alſo at h and p,

therefore PE : HD :: (LE : LD ::) CM : CR,
alſo p E : h D :: (LE : LD ::) CM : CR,

hence taking the rectangles of the correſponding terms,

PE · p E : HD · h D :: CM² : CR².

But, if CD be joined, the points D and R are evidently the vertices of two conjugate diameters (cor. def. 15.) and therefore PE · p E=CM² (22.)

therefore HD · h D=CR².

COR. The rectangle contained by LD and DK, the ſegments of a tangent intercepted between D the point of contact, and P p, Q q, any two conjugate diameters, is equal to the ſquare of CR, the ſemi-diameter to which the tangent is parallel.

Let the parallel tangents PH, p h meet LK in H and h, and draw DE a ſemi-ordinate to P p. Becauſe of the parallels ED, PH, CK, p h,

LE : LD :: EP : DH,
and EC : DK :: E p : D h,
therefore
LE · EC : LD · DK :: EP · E p : DH · D h.
But LE · EC=EP · E p (1 cor. 9.)
therefore LD · DK=DH · D h= (by this prop.) CR².

PROP. XXV.

If two ſtraight lines be drawn from the foci of an hyperbola perpendicular to a tangent, ſtraight lines drawn from the centre, to the points in which they meet the tangent, will each be equal to half the tranſverſe axis.

Let P d D be a tangent to the curve at P, and FD, f d perpendiculars to the tangent from the foci, the ſtraight lines joining the points C, D and C, d are each equal to AC, half the tranſverſe axis. Fig. 67.

Join FP, f P, and produce FD, P f till they interſect in E. The triangles FDP, EDP have the angles at D right angles, and the angles FPD, EPD equal (4.), and the ſide DP common to both; they are therefore equal, and conſequently have ED=DF, and EP=PF, wherefore E f=FP—P f=A a. Now the ſtraight lines FE, F f being biſected at D and C, the line DC is parallel to E f, and thus the triangles F f E, FCD are ſimilar,

therefore F f : f F, or A a :: FC : CD;
but FC is half F f, therefore CD is half of A a.

COR. If a ſtraight line Q q be drawn through the centre parallel to the tangent D d, it will cut off from PE, P f the ſegments PG, P g, each equal to AC half the tranſverſe axis. For C d PG, CDP g are parallelograms, therefore PG=dC=AC, and P g=DC=AC.

PROP. XXVI.

The rectangle contained by perpendiculars drawn from the foci of an hyperbola to a tangent is equal to the ſquare of half the conjugate axis.

LET P d D be a tangent, and FD, f d perpendiculars from the foci, the rectangle contained by FD and f d is equal to the ſquare of BC half the conjugate axis. Fig. 67.

It is evident from laſt propoſition that the points D, d are in the circumference of a circle, whoſe centre is

Of the Hyperbola.

is the centre of the hyperbola, and radius CA half the transverse axis; now FDd being a right angle, if dC be joined, and produced, it will meet DF in H, a point in the circumference; and since FC$=f$C, and CH$=$Cd, and the angles FCH, fCd are equal, FH is equal to $f\,d$, therefore,

$$DF \cdot d\,f = DF \cdot FH = AF \cdot aF \text{ (36. 3. E.)} = CB^2 \text{ (3.)}$$

Cor. If PF, Pf, be drawn from the point of contact to the foci, the square of FD is a fourth proportional to fP, FP and CB². For the angles fPd, FPD are equal (4.), and FDP. $f\,d$ P are right angles, therefore the triangles FDP, $f\,d$ P are similar, and

$$fP : FP :: fd : FD :: fd \cdot FD \text{ or } BC^2 : FD^2.$$

Prop. XXVII.

Fig. 68. If from C the centre of an hyperbola a straight line CL be drawn perpendicular to a tangent LD, and from D the point of contact a perpendicular be drawn to the tangent, meeting the transverse axis in H, and the conjugate axis in h, the rectangle contained by CL and DH is equal to the square of CB, the semi-conjugate axis; and the rectangle contained by CL and Dh is equal to the square of CA, the semi-transverse axis.

Let the axes meet the tangent in M and m, and from D draw the semi-ordinates DE, De, which will be perpendicular to the axes.

The triangles DEH, CLm are evidently equiangular, therefore,

$$DH : DE :: Cm : CL,$$
$$\text{hence } CL \cdot DH = DE \cdot Cm,$$
$$\text{but } DE \cdot C\,m \text{ or } Ce \cdot Cm = BC^2 \text{ (10.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } CL \cdot DH = BC^2.$$

In the same way it may be shewn, that CL $\cdot$ Dh $=$ AC².

Cor. 1. If a perpendicular be drawn to a tangent at the point of contact, the segments intercepted between the point of contact and the axes are to each other reciprocally as the squares of the axes by which they are terminated.

$$\text{For } AC^2 : BC^2 :: CL \cdot Dh : CL \cdot DH :: Dh : DH.$$

Cor. 2. If DF be drawn to either focus, and HK be drawn perpendicular to DF; the straight line DK shall be equal to half the parameter of the transverse axis.

Draw CG parallel to the tangent at D, meeting DH in N, and DF in G. The triangles GDN, HDK are similar, therefore

$$GD : DN :: HD : DK;$$
$$\text{and hence } GD \cdot DK = HD \cdot DN.$$
$$\text{But } GD = AC \text{ (cor. 25.) and } ND = CL,$$
$$\text{therefore } AC \cdot DK = HD : CL = \text{(by the prop.) } CB^2,$$
$$\text{wherefore } AC : BC :: BC : DK,$$
$$\text{hence DK is half the parameter of } Aa \text{ (def. 16.)}$$

Definition.

Fig. 69. XVII. If a point G be taken in the transverse axis of an hyperbola, so that the distance of G from the centre may be a third proportional to CF, the distance of either focus from the centre, and CA the semi-transverse axis, a straight line HG h drawn through G, perpendicular to the axis, is called the *Directrix* of the hyperbola.

Cor. 1. If MFm, an ordinate to the axis, be drawn through the focus, tangents to the hyperbola at the extremities of the ordinate will meet the axis at the point G (9).

Cor. 2. The hyperbola has two directrices, for the point G may be taken on either side of the centre.

Prop. XXVIII.

The distance of any point in an hyperbola from either directrix is to its distance from the focus nearest that directrix, in the constant ratio of the semi-transverse axis to the distance of the focus from the centre.

Let D be any point in the hyperbola; let DK be drawn perpendicular to the directrix, and DF to the focus nearest the directrix; DK is to DF as CA, half the transverse axis, to CF, the distance of the focus from the centre. Fig. 69.

Draw Df to the other focus, and DE perpendicular to Aa; take L a point in the axis, so that AL$=$FD, and consequently L$a$$=Df$; then CL is evidently half the sum of AL and a L, or of FD and f D, and CE half the sum of FE and f E, and because

$$Df - DF : Ff :: fE + FE : Df + DF \text{ (Trig.)}$$

by taking the halves of the terms of the proportion,

$$CA : CF :: CE : CL.$$
$$\text{But } CA : CF :: CG : CA \text{ (def. 17.);}$$
$$\text{therefore, } CG : CA :: CE : CL,$$
$$\text{hence (19. 5. E.) } EG : AL :: CG : CA :: CA : CF$$
$$\text{that is, } DK : DF :: CA : CF.$$

Cor. 1. If the tangent GMN be drawn through M, the extremity of the ordinate passing through the focus, and ED be produced to meet GM in N, EN shall be equal to DF. For draw MO perpendicular to the directrix, then, because M and D are points in the hyperbola, and from similar triangles,

$$FM : FD :: MO : DK :: GF : GE :: MF : EN,$$
$$\text{therefore } FD = EN.$$

Cor. 2. If AI and $a\,i$ be drawn perpendicular to the transverse axis at its extremities, meeting the tangent GM in I and i, then AI$=$AF and $ai$$=$$a$F.

Prop. XXIX.

If through P and Q, the vertices of two semi-diameters of an hyperbola, there be drawn straight lines PD, QE parallel to one of the asymptotes CN, meeting the other asymptote in D and E, the hyperbolic sector PCQ is equal to the hyperbolic trapezium PDEQ. Fig. 70.

Let CQ meet PD in G. The triangles CDP, CEQ are equal (1 cor. 14.) therefore, taking the triangle CDG from both, the triangle CGP is equal to the quadrilateral DEQG; to these add the figure PGQ,

PGQ, and the hyperbolic ſector PCQ is equal to the hyperbolic trapezium PDEQ.

PROP. XXX.

Fig. 71. If from the centre of an hyperbola the ſegments CD, CE, CH be taken in continued proportion, in one of the aſymptotes, and the ſtraight lines DP, EQ, HR be drawn parallel to the other aſymptote, meeting the hyperbola in P, Q, R, the hyperbolic areas PDEQ, QEHR are equal.

THROUGH Q draw a tangent to the curve, meeting the aſymptotes in K and L: join PR meeting the aſymptotes in M and N; draw the ſemi-diameters CP, CQ, CR, let CQ meet PR in G.

Becauſe QE is parallel to CM, and KQ is equal to QL (2 cor. 13.) CE is equal to EL; and becauſe MC, PD, RH, are parallel, and MP is equal to RN (1 cor. 13.) CD is equal to HN. Now, by hypotheſis,

CD : CE :: CE : CH,
therefore NH : LE :: CE : CH;
but CE : CH :: HR : EQ (2 cor. 14.)
therefore NH : LE :: HR : EQ,
and by alternation NH : HR :: LE : EQ.

Now the angles at H and E are equal, therefore the triangles NHR, LEQ are equiangular, and NR is parallel to LQ; conſequently RP is an ordinate to the diameter CQ (8.), and is biſected by it at G; and as CQ biſects all lines which are parallel to KL, and are terminated by the hyperbola, it will biſect the area PQR. Let the equal areas PQG, RQG be taken from the equal triangles PCG, RCG, and there will remain the hyperbolic ſectors PCQ, RCQ equal to each other. Therefore (29.) the areas DPQE, EQRH are alſo equal.

COR. Hence if CD, CE, CH, &c. any number of ſegments of the aſymptote be taken in continued proportion, the areas DPQE, DPQRH, &c. reckoned from the firſt line DP, will be in arithmetical progreſſion.

PROP. XXXI. PROBLEM.

Fig. 72, 73. Two ſtraight lines H*a*, B*b*, which biſect each other at right angles in C, being given by poſition, to deſcribe an hyperbola, of which H*a* ſhall be the tranſverſe and B*b* the conjugate axis.

FIRST METHOD. By a Mechanical Deſcription.

Fig. 72. JOIN AB, and in A*a*, produced, take CF, C*f* each equal to AB; the points F, *f* will be the foci of the hyperbola.

Let one end of a ſtring be faſtened at F, and the other to G the extremity of a ruler *f*DG, and let the difference between the length of the ruler and the ſtring be equal to A*a*. Let the other end of the ruler be fixed to the point *f*, and let the ruler be made to revolve about *f* as a centre in the plane in which the axes are ſituated, while the ſtring is ſtretched by means of a pin D, ſo that the part of it between G and D is applied cloſe to the edge of the ruler; the point of the pin will by its motion trace a curve line DAD upon the plane which is one of the hyperbolas required.

If the ruler be made to revolve about the other focus F, while the end of the ſtring is faſtened to *f*, the oppoſite hyperbola will be deſcribed by the moving point D; for in either caſe G*f*—(GD+DF), that is, D*f*—DF is by hypotheſis equal to A*a* the tranſverſe axis.

SECOND METHOD. By finding any number of points in the curve.

Find F, either of the foci as before, draw HAK, *hak* perpendicular to the tranſverſe axis at its extremities, and take AH and AK on each ſide of the vertex equal to AF, alſo *ah* and *ak* each equal to *a*F; join H*h* and K*k*; take E any point in A*a*, and through E draw NE*n* parallel to HK, meeting H*h* and K*k* in N and *n*. On F as a centre, with a radius equal to EN or E*n*, let a circle be deſcribed meeting N*n* in D and *d*, theſe will be two points in the hyperbola; and in the ſame way may any number of points in the hyperbola, or oppoſite hyperbolas, be found. The reaſon of this conſtruction is obvious from cor. 1. and 2. Prop. 28. Fig. 73.

PROP. XXXII. PROBLEM.

An hyperbola being given by poſition, to find its axes. Plate CLXII.

LET HA*h* be the given hyperbola. Draw two parallel ſtraight lines H*h*, K*k* terminating in either of the oppoſite hyperbolas, and biſect them at L and M; join LM, and produce it to meet the hyperbola in P; then LP will be a tranſverſe diameter (4 cor. 8.). Let *p* be the point in which it meets the oppoſite hyperbola, biſect P*p* in C, the point C is the centre (2.). Take D any point in the hyperbola, and on C as a centre with the diſtance CD deſcribe a circle; if this circle lie wholly without the oppoſite hyperbolas, then CD muſt be half the tranſverſe axis (20.), but if not, let the circle meet the hyperbola again in *d*, join D*d*, and biſect it in E, join CE, meeting the oppoſite hyperbolas in A and *a*, then A*a* will be the tranſverſe axis (5 cor. 8.) for it is perpendicular to D*d* (3. 3. E.) which is an ordinate to A*a*. The other axis will be found by drawing B*b* a ſtraight line through the centre perpendicular to A*a*, and taking CB ſo that CB^2 may be a fourth proportional to the rectangle AE · E*a*, and the ſquares of DE and CA, thus CB is half the conjugate axis (19.). Fig. 74.

PART

PART IV.

SECT. I.

OF THE CONE AND ITS SECTIONS.

Definitions.

Fig. 75. I. If through the point V, without the plane of the circle ADB, a ſtraight line AVE be drawn, and produced indefinitely both ways, and if the point V remain fixed while the ſtraight line AVE is moved round the whole circumference of the circle, two ſuperficies will be generated by its motion, each of which is called a *Conical Superficies*, and theſe mentioned together are called *Oppoſite Conical Superficies*.

II. The ſolid contained by the conical ſuperficies, and the circle ADB is called a *Cone*.

III. The fixed point V is called the *Vertex of the cone*.

IV. The circle ADB is called the *Baſe of the cone*.

V. Any ſtraight line drawn from the vertex to the circumference of the baſe is called a *Side of the cone*.

VI. Any ſtraight line VC drawn through the vertex of the cone, and the centre of the baſe, is called the *Axis of the cone*.

VII. If the axis of the cone be perpendicular to the baſe it is called a *Right cone*.

VIII. If the axis of the cone be not perpendicular to the baſe, it is called a *Scalene cone*.

Prop. I.

If a cone be cut by a plane paſſing through the vertex, the ſection will be a triangle.

Fig. 75. Let ADBV be a cone, of which VC is the axis; let AD be the common ſection of the baſe of the cone and the cutting plane; join VA, VD. When the generating line comes to the points A and D, it is evident that it will coincide with the ſtraight lines VA, VD, they are therefore in the ſurface of the cone, and they are in the plane which paſſes through the points V, A, D, therefore the triangle VAD is the common ſection of the cone and the plane which paſſes through its vertex.

Prop. II.

If a cone be cut by a plane parallel to its baſe, the ſection will be a circle, the centre of which is in the axis.

Fig. 75. Let EFG be the ſection made by a plane parallel to the baſe of the cone, and VAB, VCD two ſections of the cone made by any two planes paſſing through the axis VC; let EG, HF be the common ſections of the plane EFG, and the triangles VAB, VCD. Becauſe the planes EFG, ADB are parallel, HE, HF will be parallel to CA, CD, and

$$AC : EH :: (VC : VH ::) CD : HF,$$

but AC=CD, therefore EH=HF. For the ſame reaſon GH=HF, therefore EFG is a circle of which H is the centre and EG the diameter.

Prop. III.

If a ſcalene cone ADBV be cut through the axis by a plane perpendicular to the baſe, making the triangle VAB, and from any point H, in the ſtraight line AV, a ſtraight line HK be drawn in the plane of the triangle VAB, ſo that the angle VHK may be equal to the angle VBA, and the cone be cut by another plane paſſing through HK perpendicular to the plane of the triangle ABC, the common ſection HFKM of this plane and the cone will be a circle. Fig. 76.

Take any point L in the ſtraight line HK, and through L draw EG parallel to AB, and let EFGM be a ſection parallel to the baſe, paſſing through EG; then the two planes HFKM, EFGM being perpendicular to the plane VAB, their common ſection FLM is perpendicular to ELG, and ſince EFGM is a circle (by laſt prop.) and EG its diameter, the ſquare of FL is equal to the rectangle contained by EL and LG (35. 3. E.); but ſince the angle VHK is equal to VBA, or VGE, the angles EHK, EGK are equal, therefore the points E, H, G, K, are in the circumference of a circle (21. 3. E.), and $HL \cdot LK = EL \cdot LG$ (35. 3. E.)$=FL^2$, therefore the ſection HFKM is a circle of which HLK is a diameter (35. 3. E.)

This ſection is called a *Subcontrary Section*.

Prop. IV.

If a cone be cut by a plane which does not paſs through the vertex, and which is neither parallel to the baſe, nor to the plane of a ſubcontrary ſection, the common ſection of the plane and the ſurface of the cone will be an ellipſe, a parabola, or an hyperbola, according as the plane paſſing through the vertex parallel to the cutting plane falls without the cone, touches it, or falls within it.

Let ADBV be any cone, and let ONP be the common ſection of a plane paſſing through its vertex and the plane of the baſe, which will fall without the baſe, will touch it, or will fall within it. Fig. 77, 78, 79.

Let FKM be a ſection of the cone parallel to VPO; through C the centre of the baſe draw CN perpendicular to OP, meeting the circumference of the baſe in A and B; let a plane paſs through V, A and B, meeting the plane OVP in the line NV, the ſurface of the cone in VA, VB, and the plane of the ſection FKM in LK; then becauſe the planes OVP, MKF are parallel, KL will be parallel to VN, and will meet VB one ſide of the cone in K; it will meet VA the

Of the Cone and its Sections

the other side in H, fig. 77. within the cone; it will be parallel to VA in fig. 78. and it will meet VA, produced beyond the vertex, in H, fig. 79.

Let EFGM be a section of the cone parallel to the base, meeting the plane VAB in EG, and the plane FKM in FM, and let L be the intersection of EG and FM, then EG will be parallel to BN, and FM will be parallel to PO, and therefore will make the same angle with LK wherever the lines FM, LK cut each other, and since BN is perpendicular to PO, EG is perpendicular to FM. Now the section EFGM is a circle, of which EG is the diameter (2.); therefore FM is bisected at L, and $FL^2 = EL \cdot LG$.

Fig. 77. CASE I. Let the line PNO be without the base of the cone. Through K and H draw KR and HQ parallel to AB. The triangles KLG, KHQ are similar, as also HLE, HKR; therefore

$$KL : LG :: KH : HQ,$$
$$\text{and } HL : LE :: KH : KR;$$

therefore $KL \cdot HL : LG \cdot LE$ or $LF^2 :: KH^2 : HQ \cdot KR$.

Now the ratio of KH^2 to $HQ \cdot KR$ is the same wherever the sections HFKM, EFGM intersect each other, therefore $KL \cdot HL$ has a constant ratio to LF^2, consequently (1 cor. 11. Part II.) the section HFKM is an ellipse, of which HK is a diameter and MF an ordinate.

Fig. 78. CASE II. Next, suppose the line ONP to touch the circumference of the base in A. Let DIS be the common section of the base and the plane FKM, the line DIS is evidently parallel to FLM and perpendicular to AB, therefore $DI^2 = AI \cdot IB$,

$$\text{hence } DI^2 : FL^2 :: AI \cdot IB : EL \cdot LG.$$

But since EG is parallel to AB, and IK parallel to AV, AI is equal to EL, and

$$IB : LG :: KI : KL;$$
$$\text{therefore } DI^2 : FL^2 :: KI : KL.$$

Hence it appears (cor. 9. Part I.), that the section DFKMS is a parabola, of which KLI is a diameter, and DIS, FLM ordinates to that diameter.

Fig. 79. CASE III. Lastly, Let the line PNO fall within the base; draw VT through the vertex parallel to EG. The triangles HVT, HEL are similar, as also the triangles KVT, KGL, therefore

$$HT : TV :: HL : LE,$$
$$\text{and } KT : TV :: KL : LG,$$

therefore $HT \cdot KT : TV^2 :: HL \cdot LK : LE \cdot LG$ or LF^2.

Hence it appears, that $HL \cdot LK$ has to LF^2 a constant ratio, therefore the section DFKMS is an hyperbola, of which KH is a transverse diameter, and FM an ordinate to that diameter, (2 cor. 19. Part III.).

SCHOLIUM.

From the four preceding propositions it appears, that the only lines which can be formed by the common section of a plane and the surface of a cone, are these five. I. A straight line, or rather two straight lines intersecting each other in the vertex of the cone, and forming with the straight line which joins the points in which they meet the base a triangle. II. A circle. III. An ellipse. IV. A parabola. V. An hyperbola. The two first of these, however, viz. the triangle and circle, may be referred to the hyperbola and the ellipse, for if the axes of an hyperbola be supposed to retain a constant ratio to each other, and, at the same time to diminish continually, till at last the vertices coincide; the opposite hyperbolas will evidently become two straight lines intersecting each other in a point; and a circle may be considered as an ellipse, whose axes are equal, or whose foci coincide with the centre; so that the only three sections which require to be separately considered, are the *ellipse*, the *parabola*, and the *hyperbola*.

Of the Curvature of the Conic Sections.

SECT. II.

OF THE CURVATURE OF THE CONIC SECTIONS.

DEFINITIONS.

I. A circle is said to *touch* a conic section in any point, when the circle and conic section have a common tangent in that point.

II. If a circle touch a conic section in any point, so that no other circle touching it in the same point can pass between it and the conic section on either side of the point of contact, it is said to have the *same curvature* with the conic section in the point of contact, and it is called the CIRCLE OF CURVATURE.

LEMMA.

Fig. 80. Let PL be any chord in a circle, PX a tangent at one of its extremities, and LK a diameter passing through the other extremity: draw any chord G*g* parallel to the tangent PX, meeting PL in E, and from its extremities draw GH, *g h* perpendicular to the diameter, meeting PL in N and *n*; the square of GE is equal to the rectangle contained by PE and LN, and the square of *g* E is equal to the rectangle contained by PE and L *n*.

From G and *g* draw the straight lines GP, *g* P, GL, *g* L, and let LM a perpendicular to the diameter, and therefore a tangent to the circle at L, meet the tangent PX in M. The triangle NGE is evidently similar to the triangle LMP, and LM=MP, therefore NG=GE; hence the angles GNL, GEP are equal. Now the angle PGE is equal to the alternate angle GPX, that is, to the angle GLN in the alternate segment of the circle (32. 3. E.), therefore the triangles PGE, GLN are similar, and

$$PE : EG :: GN \text{ or } EG : NL,$$
$$\text{therefore } GE^2 = PE \cdot NL.$$

In the same way it may be demonstrated that $ng = gE$, and that the triangles P*g* E, *g* L *n* are similar, and therefore that

$$PE : Eg :: gn \text{ or } Eg : nL$$
$$\text{and hence } gE^2 = PE \cdot nL.$$

PROP. I.

If a circle be described touching a conic section, and cutting off from the diameter that passes through

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through the point of contact a segment greater than the parameter of that diameter, a part of the circumference on each side of the point of contact will be wholly without the conic section; but if it cuts off from the diameter a segment less than the parameter, a part of the circumference on each side of the point of contact will be wholly within the conic section.

Fig. 81, 82, 83, 84.

Let P p be the diameter of a conic section; let a circle GP g touch the section in P the vertex of the diameter, and cut off from it a segment PL, which is either greater or less than the parameter of the diameter; in the former case a part GP g of the circumference of the circle on each side of P the point of contact will be wholly without the conic section, as in fig. 81. and fig. 82. and in the latter a part GP g of the circumference on each side of P will be wholly within the section, as in fig. 83. and fig. 84.

Through L draw LK a diameter of the circle; let DE d an ordinate to the diameter of the section meet the circle in G and g, so that the points G, P, g may be on the same side of LK the diameter of the circle, and draw GH, g h, PO perpendicular to LK, the two former lines meeting LP in N and n. From L towards P place LR in the diameter equal to its parameter; then in the former case the point R will fall between L and P, as in fig. 81. and 82.; and in the latter it will fall in LP produced, as in fig. 82. and 83.

Case I. First, let the section be a parabola (fig. 81. 83.)

Then DE^2, also $dE^2 = PE \cdot RL$ (Cor. prop. 9. of Part I.)

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Now } GE^2 = PE \cdot LN \\ \text{and } gE^2 = PE \cdot Ln\end{array}\right\} \text{(Lemma).}$$

$$\text{Therefore } DE^2 : GE^2 :: LR : LN,$$
$$\text{and } dE^2 : gE^2 :: LR : Ln.$$

Now if the ordinate D d be supposed to approach to the tangent at the vertex, the points G, g will approach to P, the lines GH, g h to the line PO, and the points N, n to the vertex P, where they will at last coincide; hence it is evident, that the ordinate DE d may be at such a distance from the tangent that the points N, n, and the vertex P, may be all on the same side of the point R; in this position of the ordinate if the segment cut off by the circle be greater than the parameter, as in fig. 81. then LR will be less than either LN, or L n, and therefore DE^2 less than GE^2, also dE^2 less than gE^2, so that the points G, g are both without the parabola. If the ordinate be supposed to approach nearer to the tangent, as the points N, n will also approach nearer to P, the line LR will still be less than either LN, or L n, and therefore DE^2 less than GE^2, and dE^2 less than gE^2. Hence it follows, that every point in the arch GP g, which lies on each side of the point of contact is without the parabola.

If the segment cut off by the circle be less than the parameter (fig. 83.), and therefore LR greater than either LN or L n, then, reasoning as before, it will appear that DE^2 is greater than GE^2, and dE^2 greater than gE^2, so that the points G, g are within the parabola; and as the same will hold for every other position of the ordinate nearer to the tangent, the arch GP g which lies on each side of the point of contact is wholly within the parabola.

Case II. Next, let the section be an ellipse, or an hyperbola (fig. 82. 84.) (A). Take V a point in LR, so that

$$p\,P : p\,E :: LR : LV,$$
$$\text{and therefore } P\,p : LR :: p\,E : LV :: p\,E \cdot EP : LV \cdot EP.$$
$$\text{But } P\,p : LR :: p\,E \cdot EP : DE^2 \text{ or } dE^2 \text{ (13. Part II. and 21. Part III.),}$$
$$\text{therefore } DE^2, \text{ also } dE^2 = LV \cdot EP.$$
$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Now } GE^2 = LN \cdot EP \\ \text{and } gE^2 = Ln \cdot EP,\end{array}\right\} \text{(Lemma.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } DE^2 : GE^2 :: LV : LN,$$
$$\text{and } dE^2 : gE^2 :: LV : Ln.$$

Now as P p and RL are similarly divided at E and V, if the point E approach to P, the point V will approach to R, and as E may come nearer to P than any assignable line, so V may come nearer to R than any assignable line; but as in the same circumstances GH and g h approach to PO, and N and n approach to P, it is evident that the ordinate D d may have such a position that the points N, n, and the vertex P, may be all on the same side of V, and the same thing have place for every other position of the ordinate nearer to the tangent; therefore, in these circumstances, when LP the segment cut off from the diameter is greater than LR the parameter (fig. 82.), LV will be less than either LN or L n, and consequently DE^2 less than GE^2, also dE^2 less than gE^2; thus the points G, g, as well as every other point in the arch GP g which lies on both sides of the vertex, are without the ellipse or hyperbola.

On the contrary, when LP is less than LR the parameter (fig. 84.), LV will be greater than either LN or L n, and therefore DE^2 greater than GE^2, also dE^2 greater than gE^2; and therefore the points G, g, as well as every other point in the arch GP g, are within the ellipse or hyperbola.

Cor. 1. If a circle touch a conic section, and cut off from the diameter that passes through the point of contact a segment equal to its parameter, it will have the same curvature with the conic section in the point of

(A) As the reasoning applies alike to the ellipse and hyperbola, to avoid a number of figures, those for the hyperbola are omitted.

Of the Curvature of the Conic Sections.

of contact. For if a greater circle be described it will cut off from the diameter a segment greater than its parameter, therefore a part of its circumference on each side of the point of contact will be wholly without the conic section; and as it will also be without the former circle, it will not pass between that circle and the conic section at the point of contact. If, on the other hand, a less circle be described, it will cut off from the diameter a segment less than its parameter, therefore a part of its circumference on each side of the point of contact will fall within the conic section; and as it will be within the former circle, it will not pass between that circle and the conic section at the point of contact. Hence (Def. 2.), the circle which cuts off a segment equal to the parameter is the circle of curvature.

Cor. 2. Only one circle can have the same curvature with a conic section in a given point.

Prop. II.

Plate CLXIII. The circle of curvature at the vertex of the axis of a parabola, or at the vertex of the transverse axis of an ellipse or hyperbola, falls wholly within the conic section; but the circle of curvature at the vertex of the conjugate axis of an ellipse falls wholly without the conic section.

Fig. 85, 86, 87, 88.

Let Pp be the axis of the parabola (fig. 85.), and $PGLg$ the circle of curvature at its vertex, which therefore cuts off from the axis a segment PL equal to the parameter of the axis; because the tangent at the vertex is common to the parabola and circle, the centre of the circle is in Pp. Let DEd an ordinate to the axis meet the circle in G and g; it may be shewn as in last proposition that

$$DE^2 : GE^2 :: LP : LE.$$

But in every position of the ordinate LP is greater than LE, therefore DE^2 is always greater than GE^2, and dE^2 greater than gE^2; therefore the circle is wholly within the parabola. Next let Pp be the transverse axis of an ellipse or hyperbola (fig. 86, 87.), or the conjugate axis of an ellipse (fig. 88.), and $PGLg$ the circle of curvature, then as in the parabola the centre of the circle will be in the axis. Draw Dd an ordinate to the axis meeting the circle in G, g; and take a point V in PL, so that

$$pP : pE :: LP : LV;$$

then it will appear as in last prop. that

$$DE^2 : GE^2 :: LV : LE.$$

Now, when Pp is the transverse axis of an ellipse, (fig. 86.) as Pp is greater than LP, and $Pp : PL :: PE : PV$, therefore PE is greater than PV, and hence LV is always greater than LE, therefore DE^2 is greater than GE^2, also dE^2 greater than gE^2, so that the circle falls wholly within the ellipse.

Again, when Pp is the transverse axis of an hyperbola (fig. 87.) as pE is greater than pP, therefore LV is greater than LP, and consequently greater also than LE; hence DE^2 is greater than GE, and dE^2 is greater than gE^2, and the circle is wholly within the hyperbola.

Lastly, When Pp is the conjugate axis of an ellipse (fig. 88.) as Pp is less than LP, and $Pp : LP :: PE : PV$, therefore, PE is less than PV; hence LV is less than LE, and consequently DE^2 is less than GE^2, also dE^2 less than gE^2, therefore the circle is wholly without the ellipse.

Prop. III.

The circle of curvature at the vertex of any diameter of a conic section, which is not an axis, meets the conic section again in one point only; and between that point and the vertex of the diameter the circle falls wholly within the conic section on the one side, and wholly without it on the other.

Case I. Let the conic section be a parabola, of which Pp is a diameter (fig. 89.) and PLK the circle of curvature at the vertex, cutting off from the diameter a segment PL equal to its parameter. Draw LK a diameter of the circle, and draw PO perpendicular to LK, this line will necessarily meet the circle again, let it meet the circle in I; draw IS parallel to the tangent at P, meeting the chord PL in S; then, because IP is perpendicular to LK, Fig. 89, 90.

$$IS^2 = PS \cdot PL \text{ (Lemma)};$$

hence (Cor. Prop. 9. Part I.) I is a point in the parabola.

Let DEd an ordinate to the diameter Pp meet the arch PLI anywhere in G; draw GH perpendicular to LK, meeting PL in N, then because LP is equal to the parameter, as in Prop. I. Case I.

$$DE^2 : GE^2 :: LP : LN :: LO : LH.$$

But wherever the point G be taken in the arch PLI, LO is greater than LH, therefore DE^2 is also greater than OE^2; thus the arch PGLI falls wholly within the parabola.

Let the ordinate DEd now meet the arch PKI, anywhere, as at g, draw gh perpendicular to LK, meeting LP in n, then it will appear as before that

$$dE^2 : gE^2 :: LP : Ln :: LO : Lh;$$

but LO is less than Lh, and therefore dE^2 less than gE^2, thus the arch $PgKI$ falls wholly without the parabola.

Case II. Let the conic section be either an ellipse or hyperbola (fig. 90.) of which Pp is a diameter, and PLK the circle of curvature at its vertex, cutting off PL equal to its parameter. Draw LK the diameter of the circle and LQ perpendicular to LK, and let pQ, a tangent to the conic section in p, meet LQ in Q. Join PQ, this line will necessarily meet the circle again; let it meet the circle in I; and draw IS, IT parallel to Qp, QL, meeting PL in S, T. Because of the parallels,

$$pP : pS :: QP : QI :: LP : LT,$$
$$\text{hence } pP : LP :: pS : LT :: pS \cdot SP : LT \cdot SP;$$
$$\text{but } LT \cdot SP = IS^2 \text{ (Lemma)},$$
$$\text{therefore } pP : LP :: pS \cdot SP : SI^2;$$

hence I is a point in the ellipse or hyperbola (13. Prop. Part II. and 21. Prop. Part III.).

Let DEd an ordinate to the diameter Pp meet the arch PLI anywhere in G, if the point L is between

P and p, or the arch PIL, if L is in Pp produced. Let Dd meet PI in Y, draw GH perpendicular to LK meeting PL in N, and PI in Z, and draw YV parallel to GN meeting LP in V. Because EY, pQ are parallel, also VY, LQ,

$$Pp : pE :: (QP : QY ::) LP : LV;$$

now LP being the parameter, we have, as in Case II. Prop. I.

$$DE^2 : GE^2 :: LV : LN :: QY : QZ;$$

but wherever the point G be taken in the arch PGI, QY is greater than QZ, therefore also DE^2 is greater than GE^2; thus the arch PGI falls wholly within the conic section.

Let the ordinate DEd now meet the other arch Pg I anywhere in g; draw $g\,h$ perpendicular to LK meeting LP in n, and IP in z, then it will in like manner appear that

$$dE^2 : gE^2 :: LV : Ln :: QY : Qz;$$

and since in this case QY is less than Qz, therefore dE^2 is less than gE^2; hence the arch Pg I is wholly without the conic section.

Prop. IV.

The chord of the circle of curvature which is drawn from the point of contact through the focus of a parabola is equal to that which is cut off from the diameter; and half the radius of the circle is a third proportional to the perpendicular from the focus upon the tangent, and the distance of the point of contact from the focus.

Fig. 91. Let PL be the chord cut off from the diameter, and PFH the chord passing through F the focus; draw PM the diameter of the circle, join HL, HM, and draw FK perpendicular to the tangent at P. Because the lines PFH, PL make equal angles with the tangent at P (3. Part I.), the angles PHL, PLH are equal (32. 3. E.) hence PH=PL. Secondly, the triangles FKP, PHM, being manifestly similar,

$$FK : FP :: PH, \text{ or } 4\,PF : PM,$$

$$\text{hence } FK : FP :: FP : \tfrac{1}{4}PM, \text{ or } \tfrac{1}{2} \text{ the radius.}$$

Cor. 1. Hence the radius is equal to $\frac{2FP^2}{FK}$.

Cor. 2. The radius is also equal to $\frac{2FK^3}{AF^2}$, where AF is the distance of the focus from the vertex of the parabola; for $FP = \frac{FK^2}{AF}$ (11. Part I.)

Cor. 3. Hence also the radius is equal to $\frac{\frac{1}{2}L \cdot FP^3}{FK^3}$, where L denotes the parameter of the axis,

$$\text{for } \frac{2FP^2}{FK} = \frac{2AF \cdot FP^3}{AF \cdot FP \cdot FK} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}L \cdot FP^3}{FK^3}.$$

Prop. V.

The radius of the circle of curvature at the vertex of any diameter of an ellipse, or hyperbola, is a third proportional to the perpendicular drawn from the centre upon the tangent, and half the conjugate diameter; and the chord which is drawn from the point of contact through the focus is a third proportional to the transverse axis, and conjugate diameter.

Let PL be the chord cut off from the diameter, and PFH the chord passing through F the focus; draw PM the diameter of the circle, and from the centre O draw OR perpendicular to PL, which will bisect PL in R; join HM, and draw the conjugate diameter QCq meeting PH in N and PM in S, then PS is equal to the perpendicular from the centre C upon the tangent. The triangles PSC, PRO are similar, therefore, Fig. 92.

$$PS : PC :: PR : PO,$$
$$\text{but } PC : CQ :: CQ : PR \text{ (Def. of param.)}$$
$$\text{therefore } PS : CQ :: CQ : PO.$$

Secondly, the triangles PSN, PHM are similar,

$$\text{therefore } PN : PS :: PM : PH;$$
$$\text{but } PS : CQ :: (CQ : PO ::)\ Qq : PM,$$
$$\text{therefore } PN : CQ :: Qq : PH,$$

or, since PN=AC (Cor. 17. Part II. and Cor. 25. Part III.),

$$Aa : Qq :: Qq : PH.$$

Cor. 1. Hence the radius of curvature is equal to $\frac{CQ^2}{PS}$, and the chord passing through the focus is equal to $\frac{2CQ^2}{AC}$.

Cor. 2. The radius of curvature is also equal to $\frac{CQ^3}{AC \cdot BC}$, for $PS = \frac{AC \cdot BC}{CQ}$ (15. Part II. and 23. Part III.).

Cor. 3. Draw FK from the focus perpendicular to the tangent, and let L denote the parameter of the transverse axis; the radius of curvature is also equal to $\frac{\frac{1}{2}L \times FP^3}{FK^3}$. For the triangles PFK, NPS are manifestly similar, therefore

$$FK : FP :: PS : PN, \text{ or } AC :: BC : CQ;$$

$$\text{hence } CQ = \frac{FP}{FK} \times BC,$$

$$\text{and } \frac{CQ^3}{AC \cdot BC} = \frac{FP^3}{FK^3} = \frac{BC^2}{AC} = \frac{FP^3}{FK^3} \times \tfrac{1}{2}L.$$

This expression for the radius of curvature is the same for all the three conic sections.

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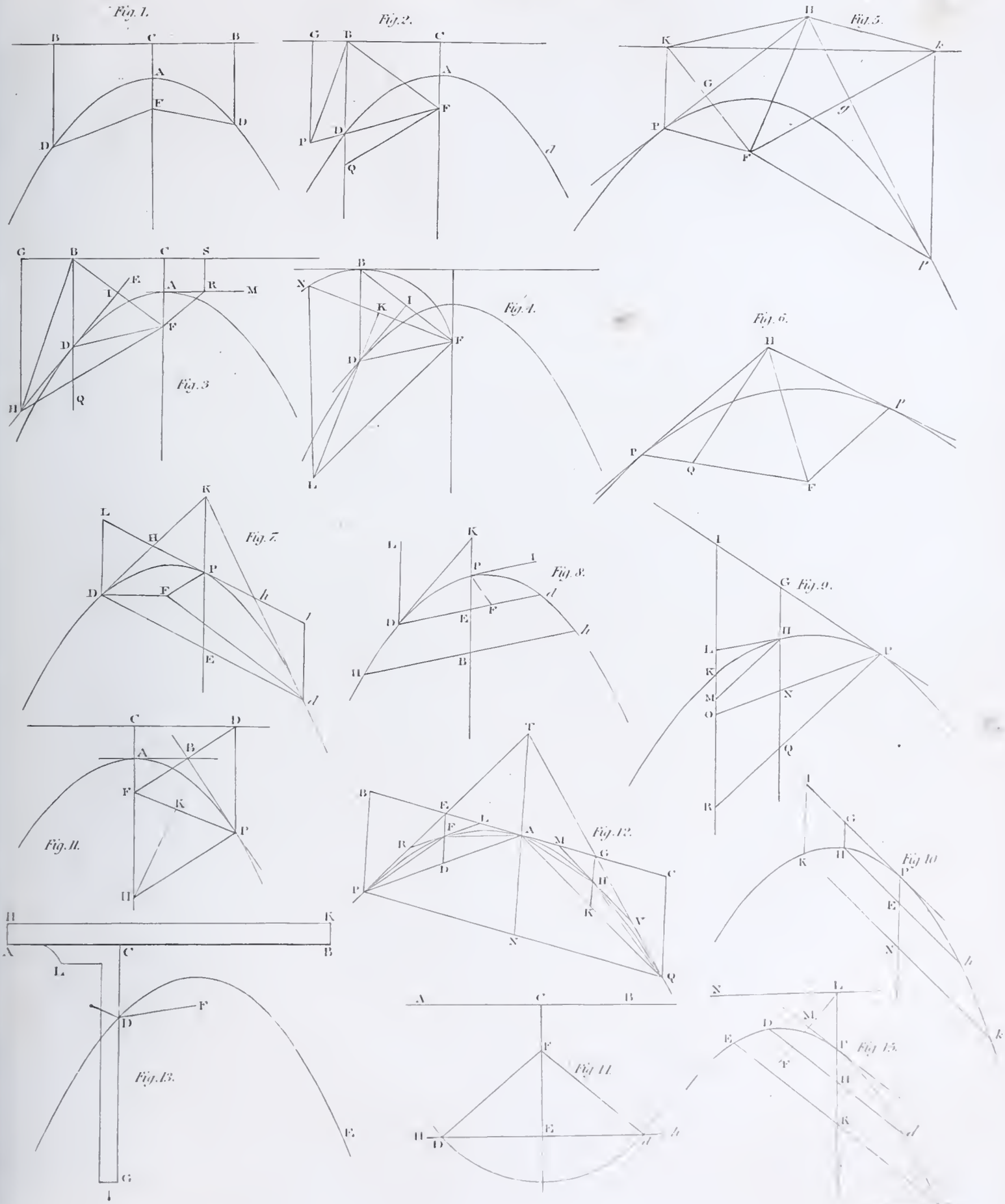


Fig. 1.
Fig. 2.
Fig. 3
Fig. 4.
Fig. 5.
Fig. 6.
Fig. 7.
Fig. 8.
Fig. 9.
Fig. 10
Fig. 11.
Fig. 12.
Fig. 13.
Fig. 14.
Fig. 15.

CONIC SECTIONS.

PLATE CLVII.

Fig. 16.

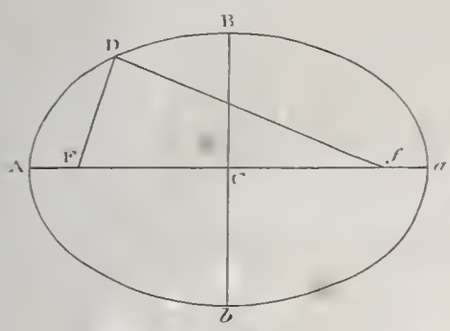


Fig. 17.

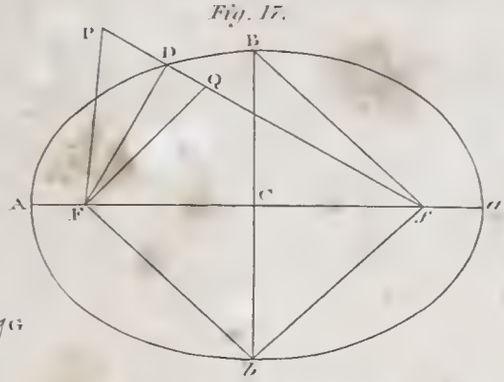


Fig. 18.

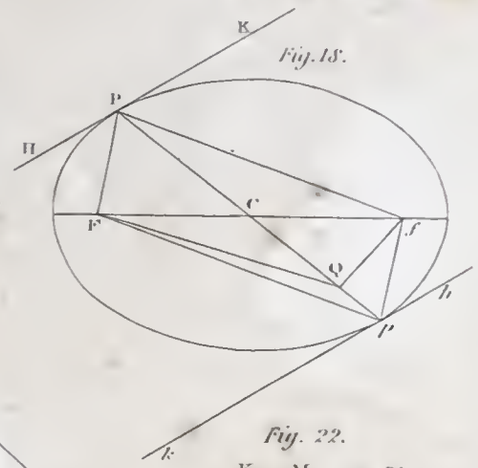


Fig. 19.

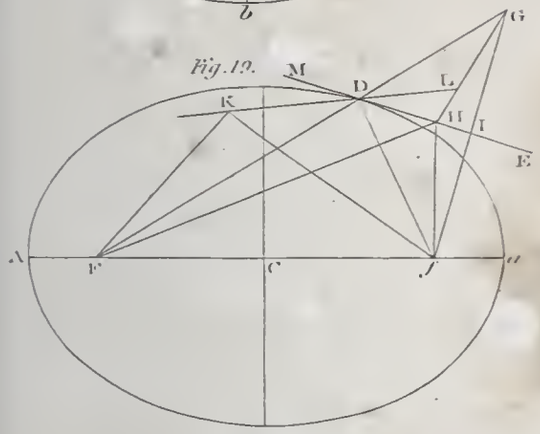


Fig. 20.

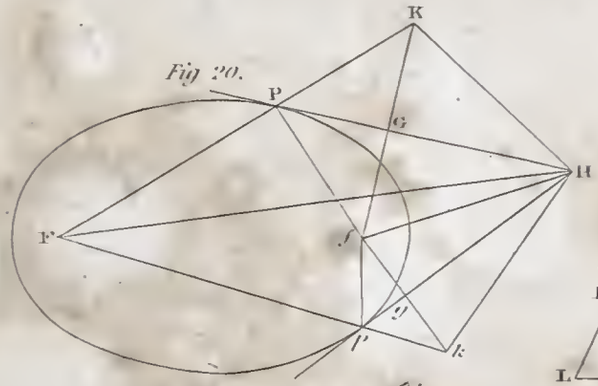


Fig. 22.

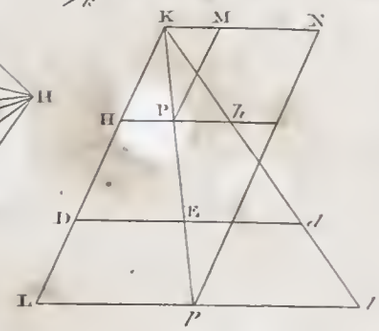


Fig. 21.

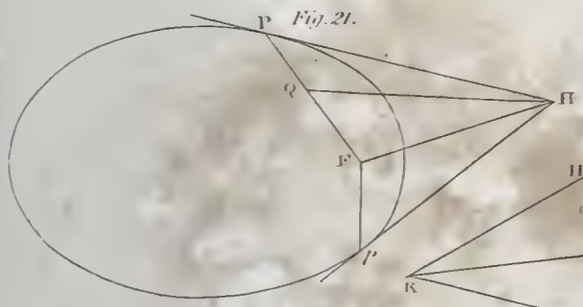


Fig. 23.

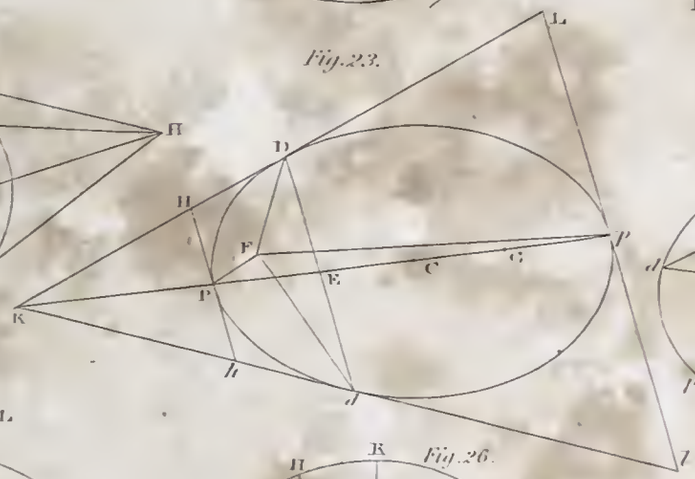


Fig. 24.

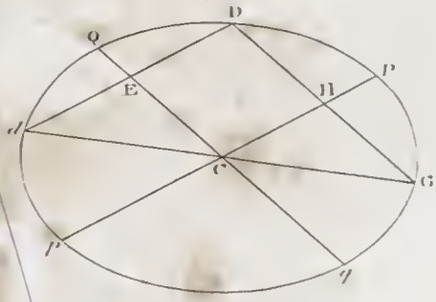


Fig. 25.

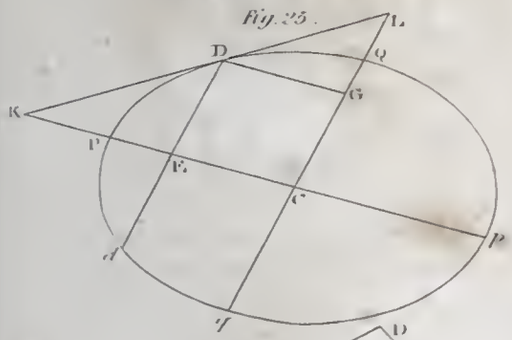


Fig. 26.

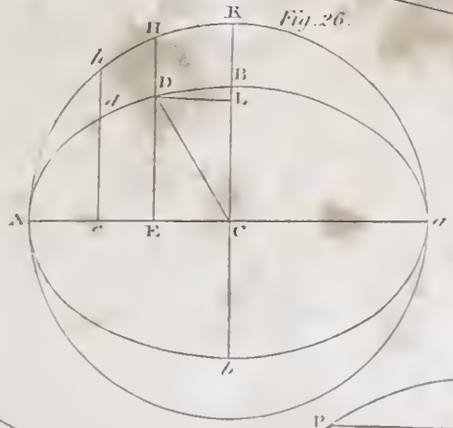


Fig. 27.

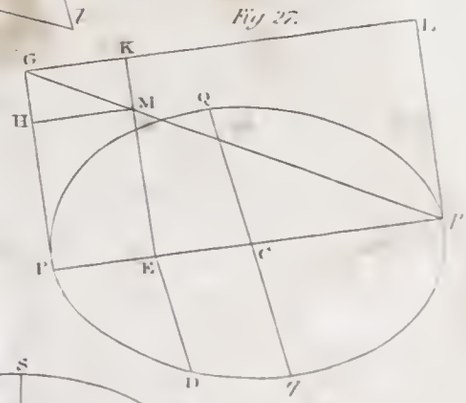


Fig. 29.

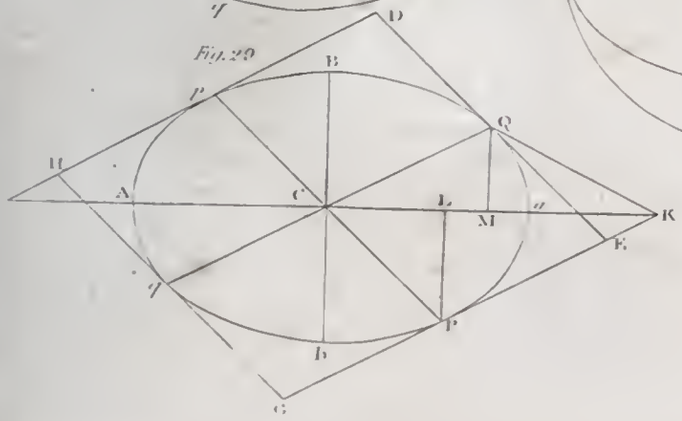
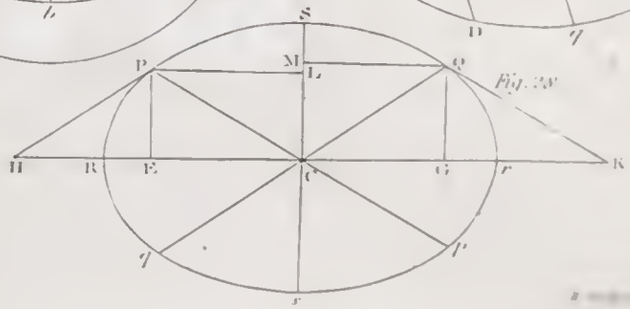
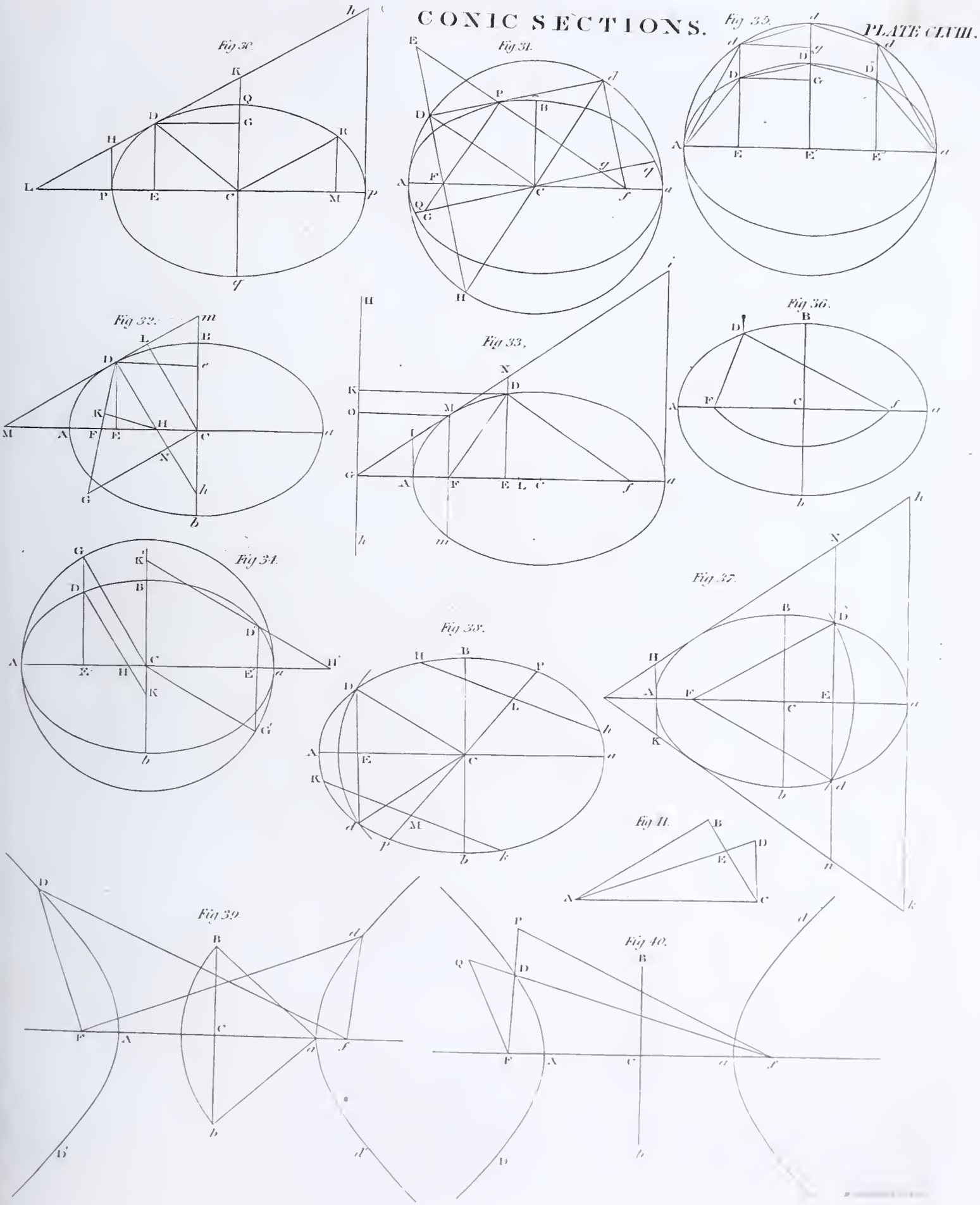


Fig. 28.



CONIC SECTIONS.

PLATE CLVIII.



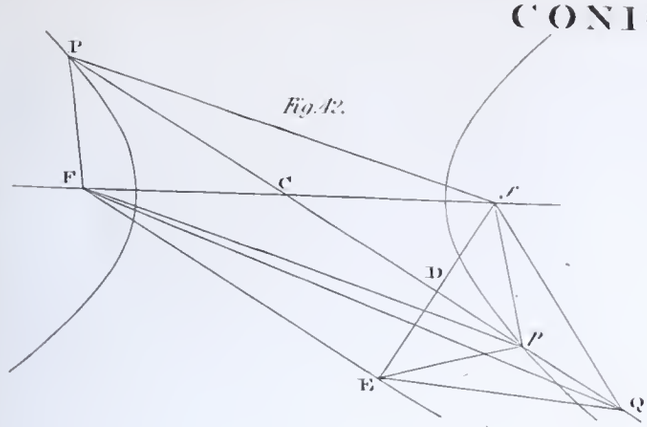


Fig. 42.
P
F
C
f
D
p
E
Q

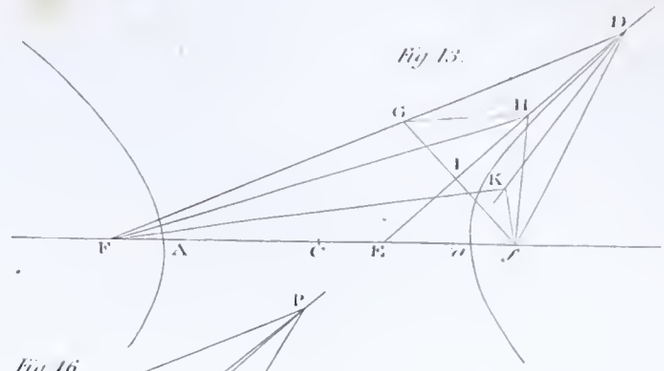


Fig 43.
D
G
H
I
K
F
A
C
E
a
f

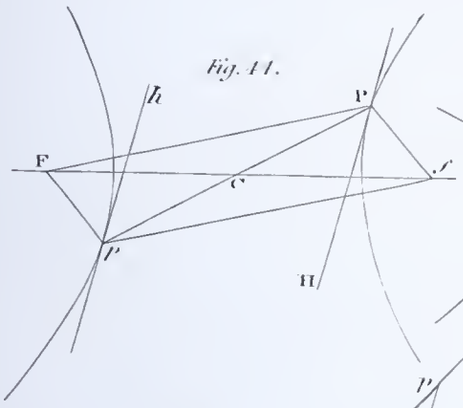


Fig. 44.
h
P
F
C
f
p
H

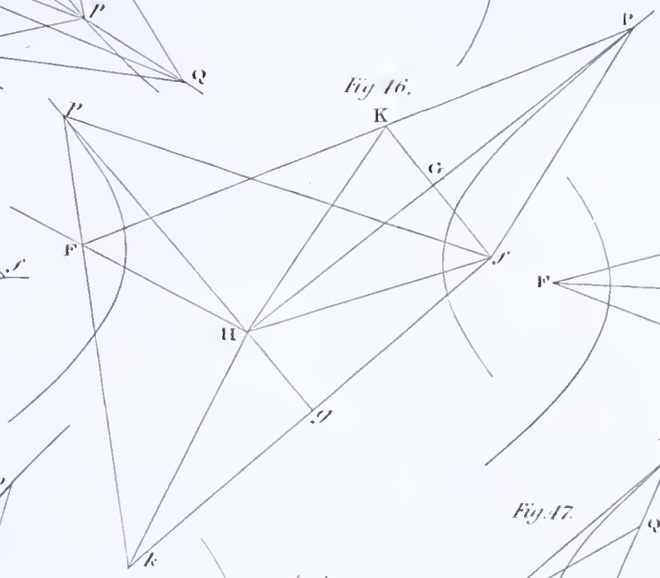


Fig 46.
P
K
G
F
f
H
g
k

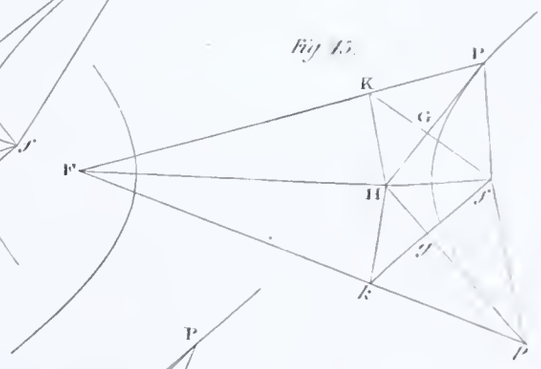


Fig 45.
P
K
G
F
H
f
g
k
p

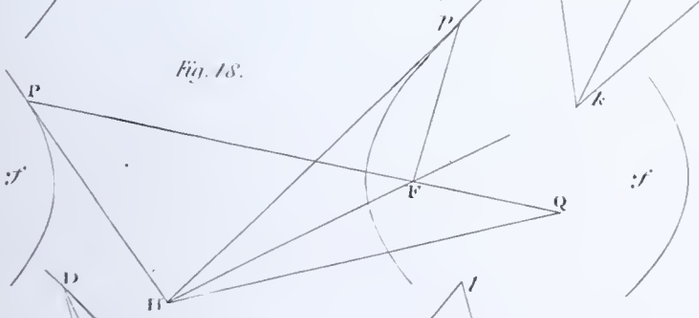


Fig. 48.
P
p
f
F
Q
f
H

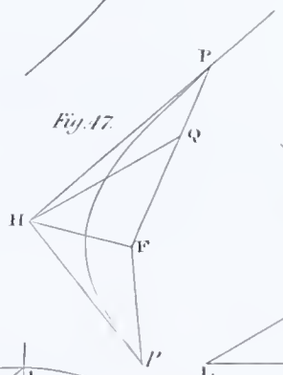


Fig. 47.
P
Q
H
F
p

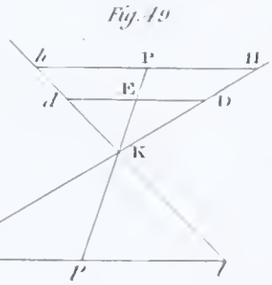


Fig. 49
h
P
H
d
E
D
K
L
P
I

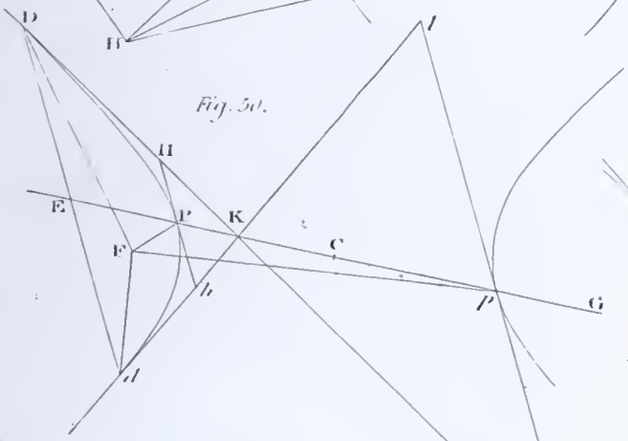


Fig. 50.
D
I
H
E
P
K
C
F
h
P
G
d
L

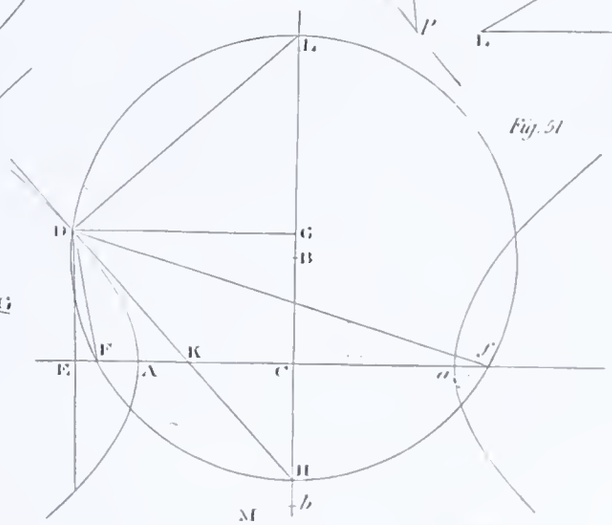


Fig. 51
L
D
G
B
F
K
f
E
A
C
a
H
b

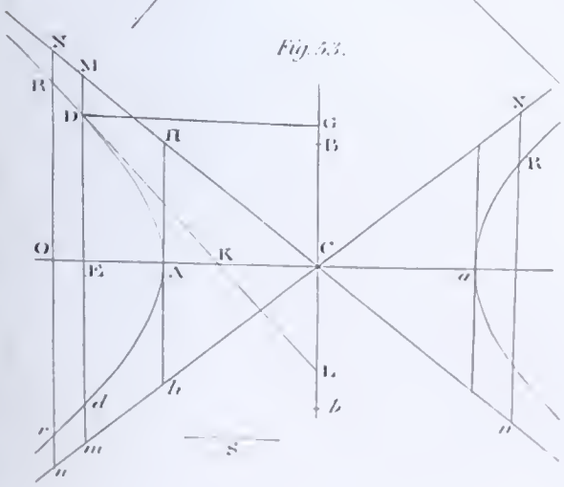


Fig. 53.
N
M
R
D
G
H
B
X
R
O
E
A
K
C
a
L
b
d
h
r
m
n
S
n

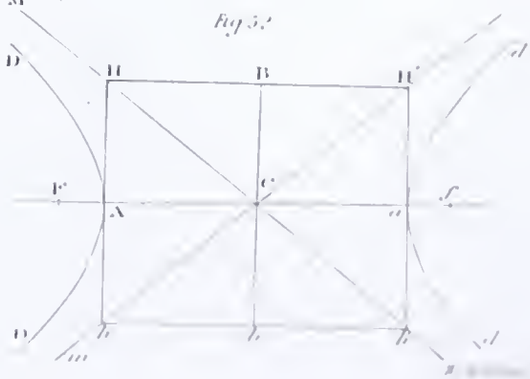


Fig 52
M
D
H
B
H'
d
F
C
f
A
a
D
h
h
h
d
m

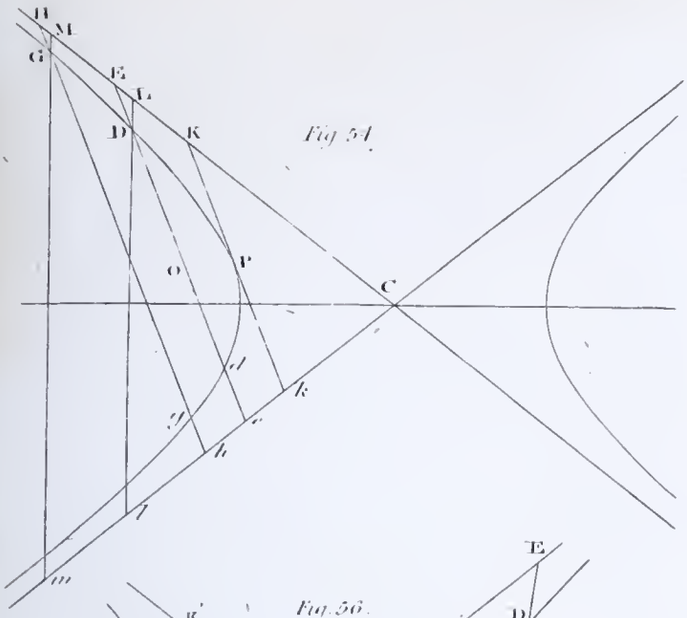


Fig 54.

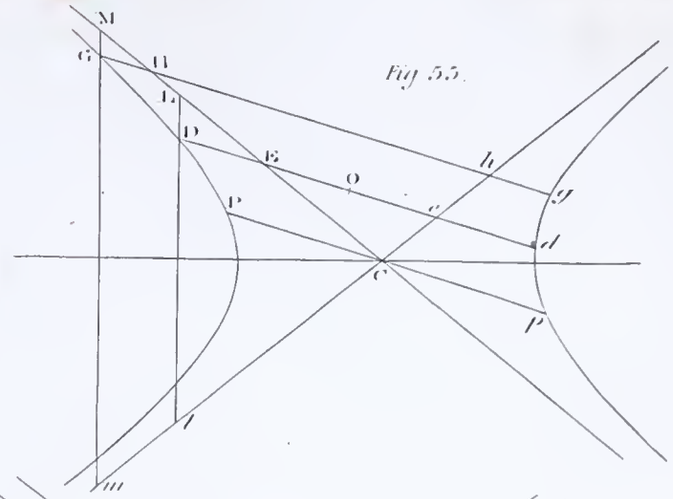


Fig 55.

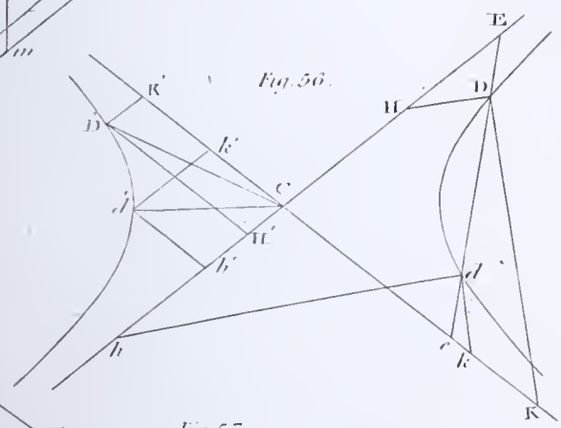


Fig. 56.

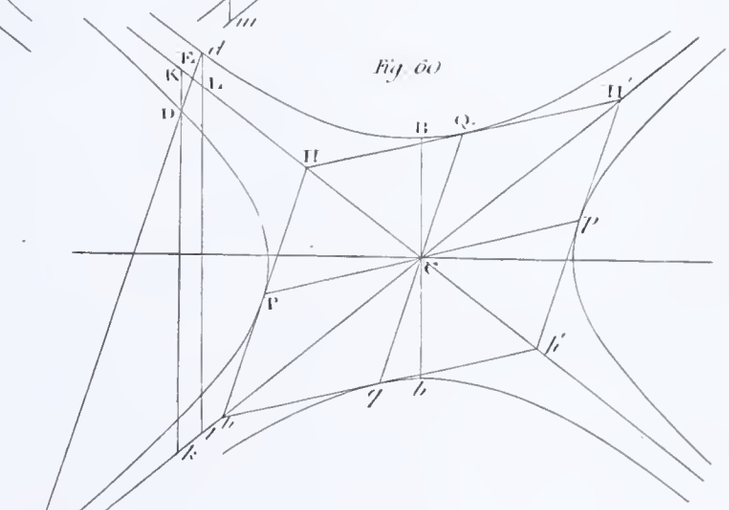


Fig 60

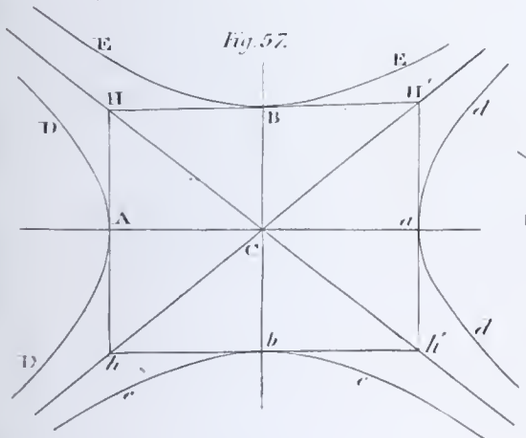


Fig. 57.

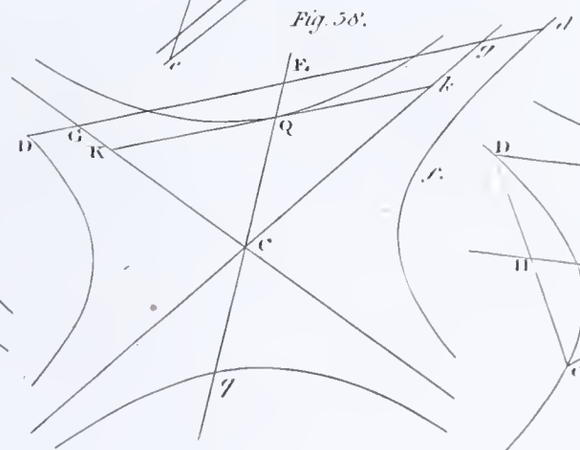


Fig. 58.

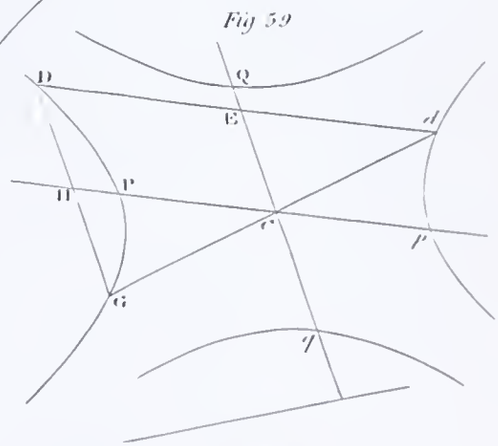


Fig 59

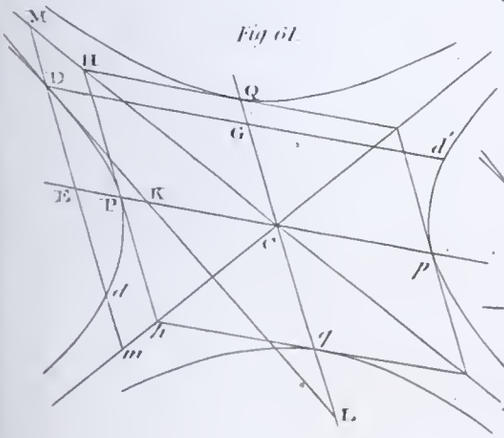


Fig 61.

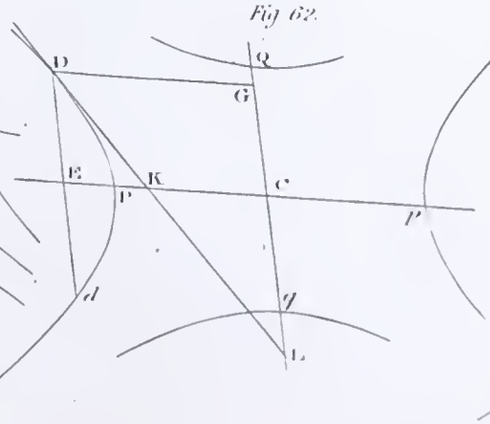


Fig 62.

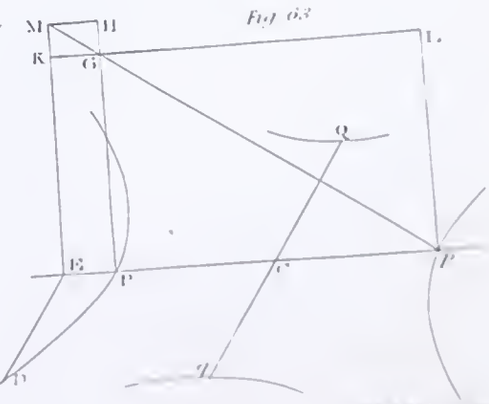
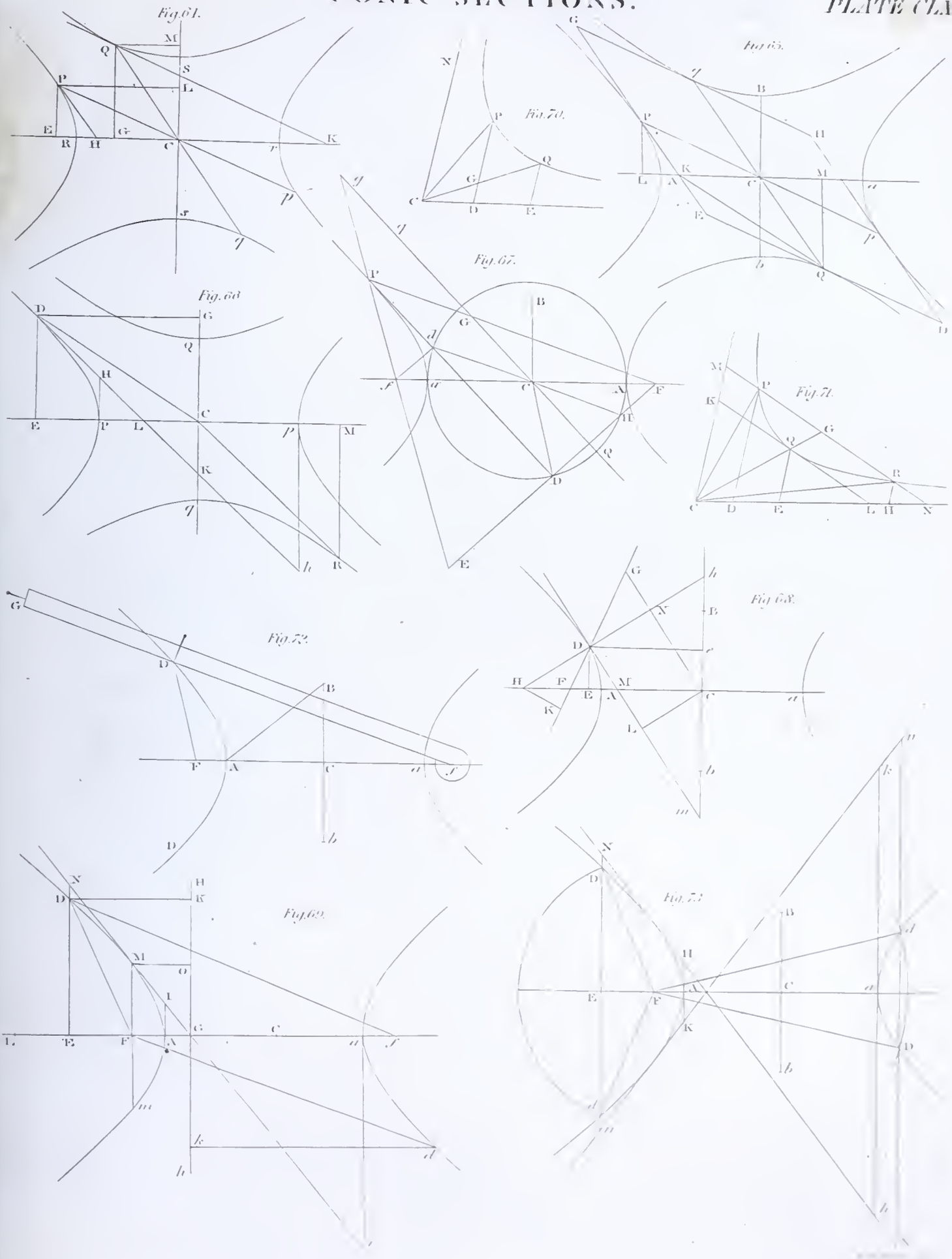


Fig 63

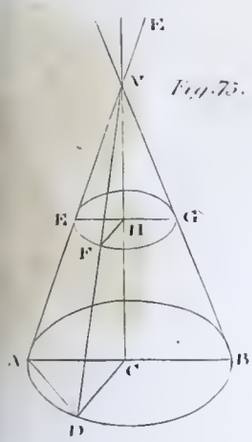
CONIC SECTIONS.

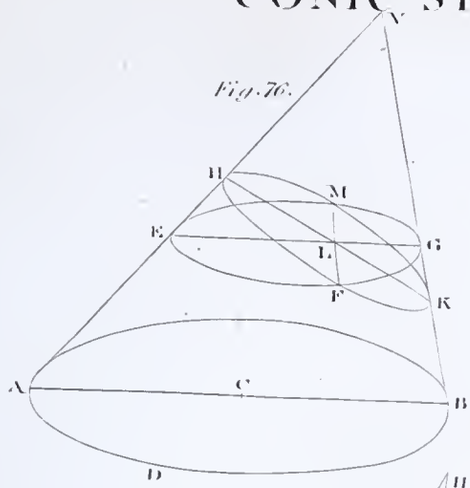
PLATE CLXI.

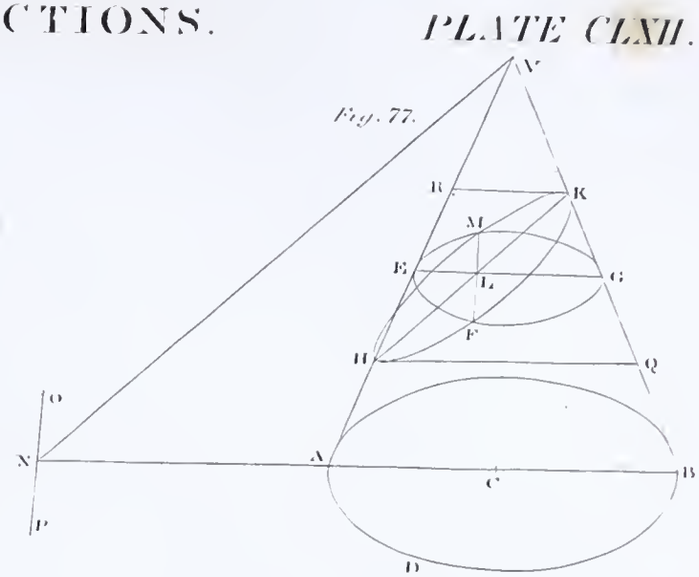


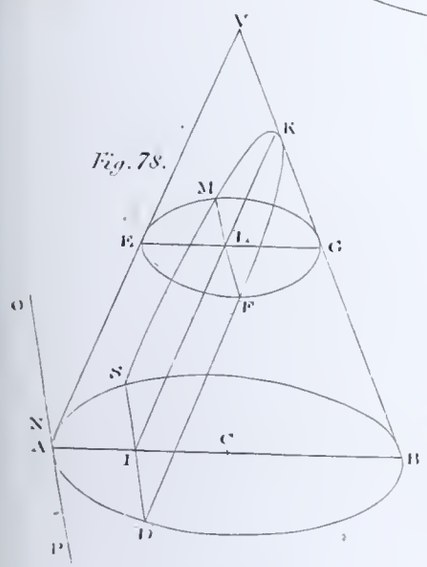
CONIC SECTIONS.

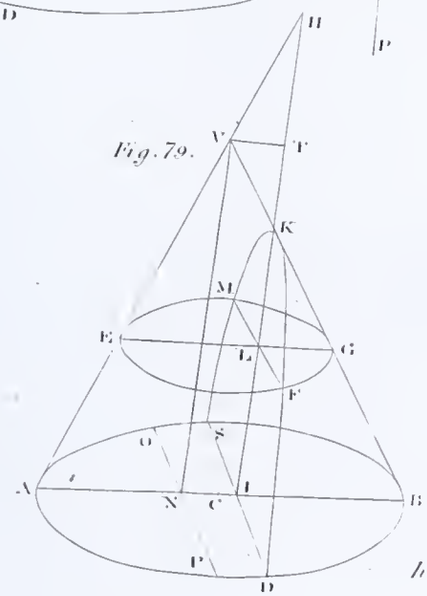
PLATE CLXII.

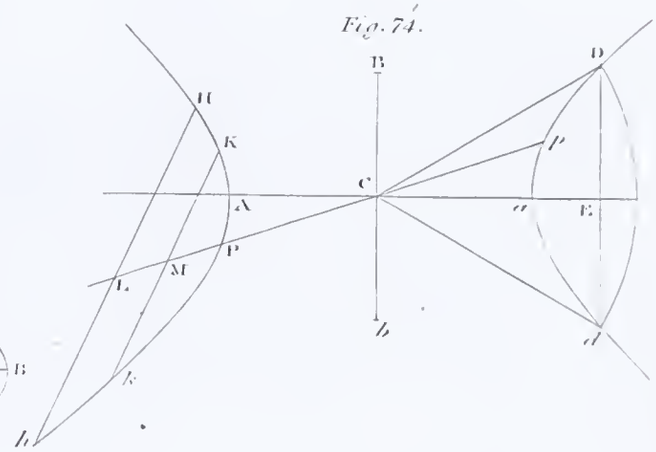


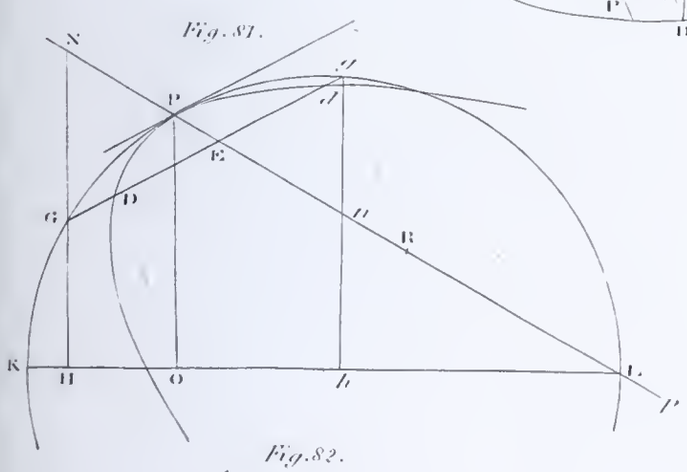


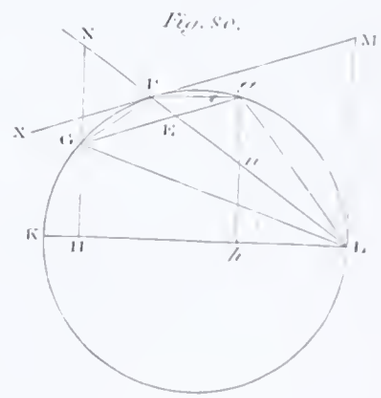


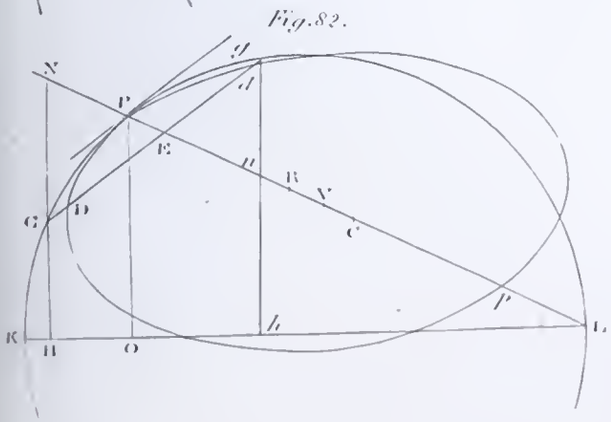












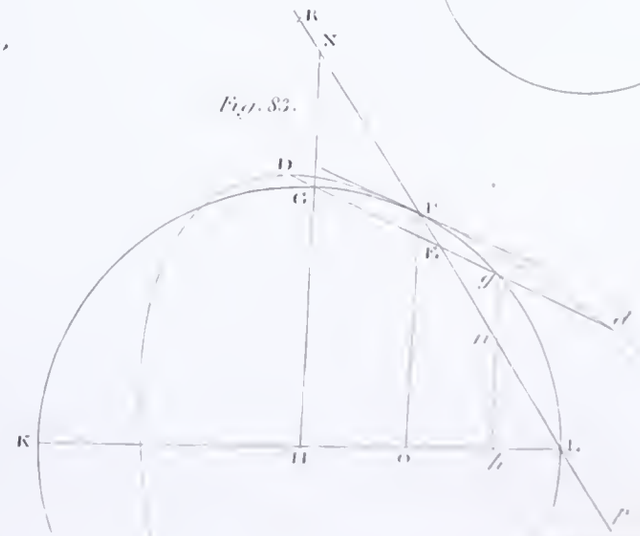


Fig. 84.

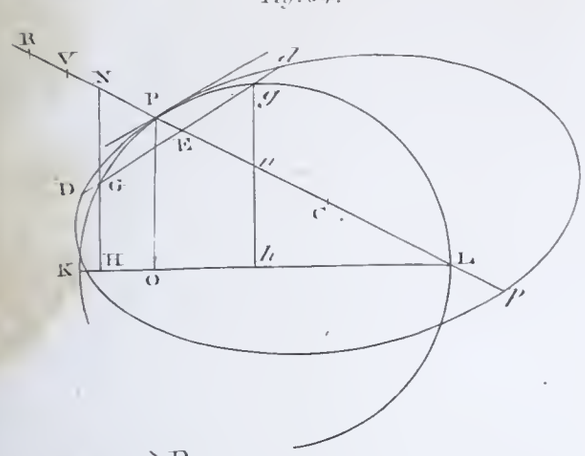


Fig. 85.

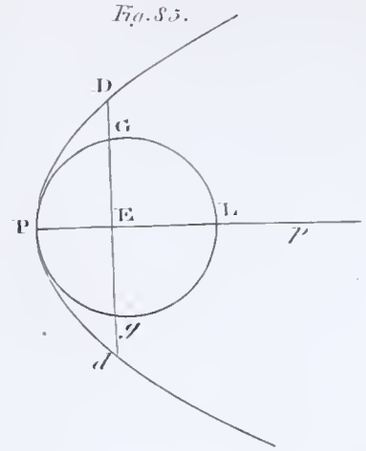


Fig. 86.

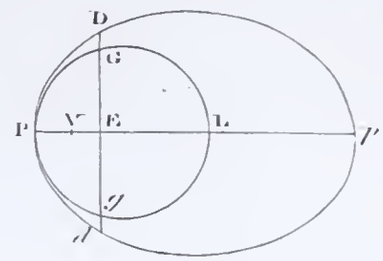


Fig. 87.

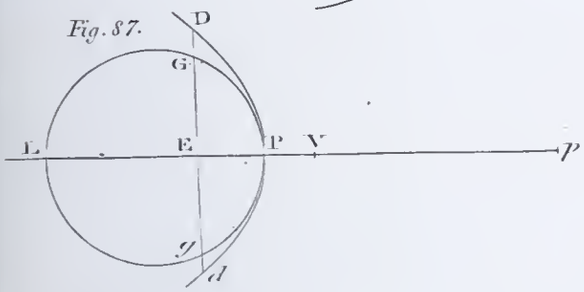


Fig. 88.

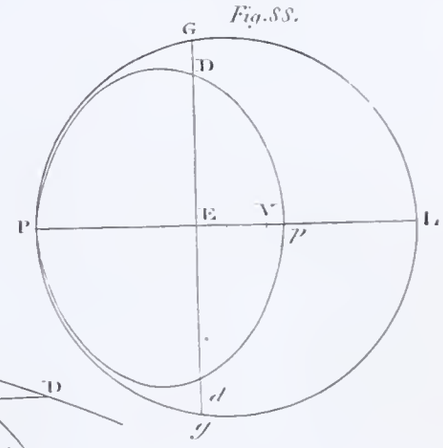


Fig. 89.

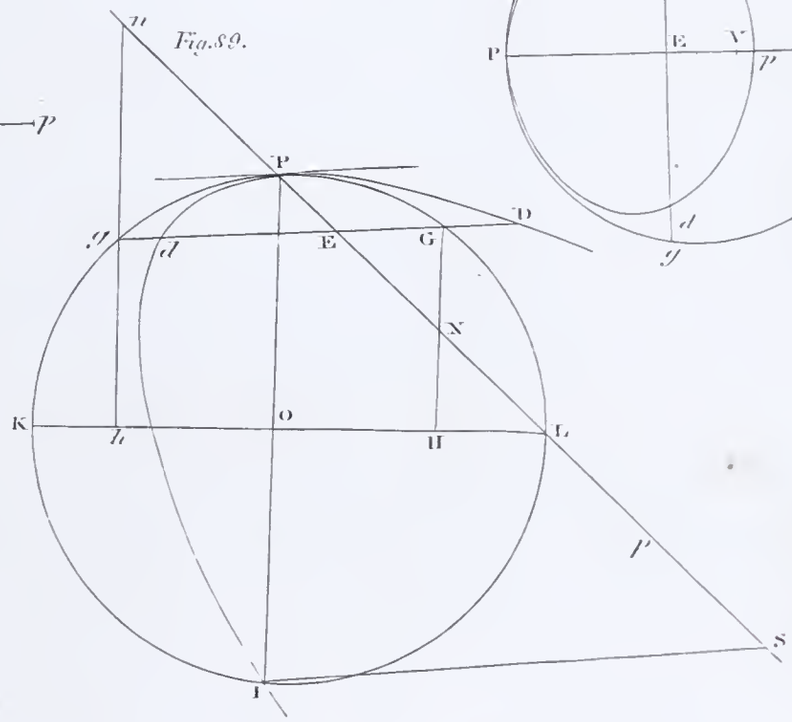


Fig. 91.

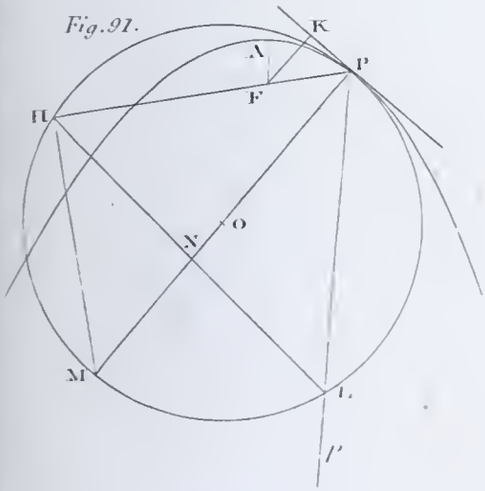


Fig. 92.

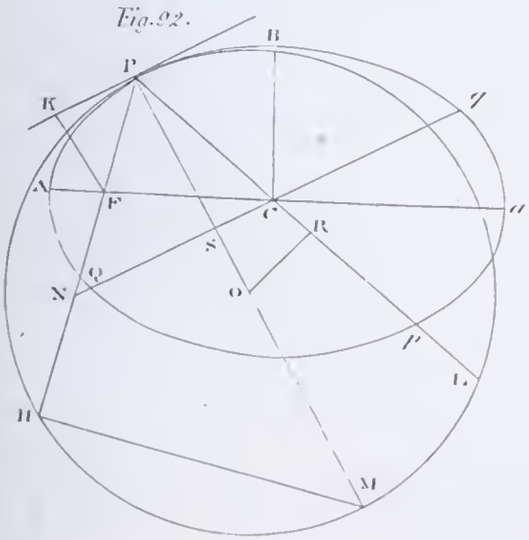
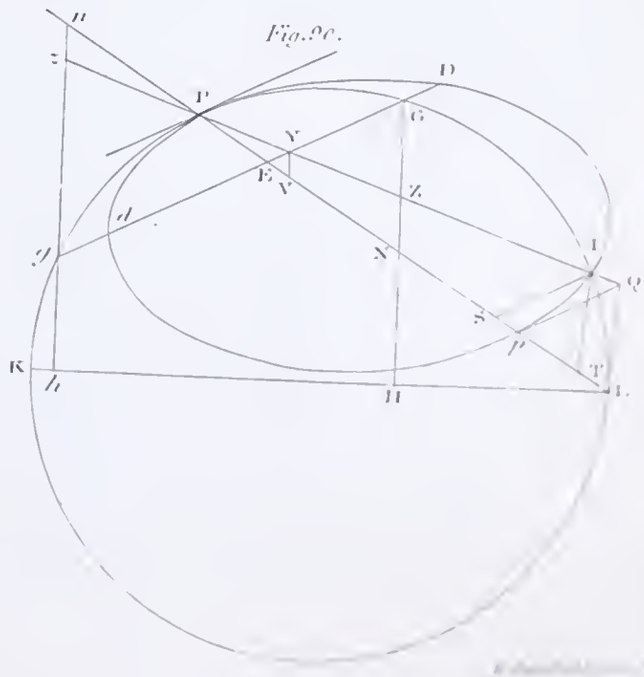


Fig. 90.



CONICHTHYODONTES, or PLECTRONITÆ, in *Natural History*, a name by which the fossil teeth of fishes are sometimes distinguished.

CONIFERA, in *Botany*, an order of plants in the *Fragmenta methodi naturalis* of Linnæus, containing the following genera, viz. cupressus, ephedra, equisetum, juniperus, pinus, taxus, thuja. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONIFEROUS TREES, such as bear hard dry seed-vessels of a conical figure; consisting of several woody parts, being mostly scaly, adhering close together, and separating when ripe.

CONIMBRICA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Lusitania, on the south side of the river Monda; from the ruins of which arose Coimbra, in its neighbourhood, a city of Portugal. W. Long. 9. 5. N. Lat. 40. 16.

CONINGSECK, a town of Suabia in Germany, and capital of a county of the same name, 20 miles north of Constance. E. Long. 9. 20. N. Lat. 47. 50.

CONJOINT, in a general sense, signifies united or connected.

CONJOINT Degrees, in *Music*, two notes which follow each other immediately in the order of the scale, as *ut* and *re*.

CONJOINT Tetrachords, two tetrachords, or fourths, where the same chord is the highest of one and the lowest of the other.

CONNISSALÆ, an old term in natural history, signifying a class of fossils, which were said to be naturally and essentially compounded, not inflammable, nor soluble in water, found in detached masses, and formed of crystalline matter debased by earth. It included sand and gritty substances.

CONJUGATE DIAMETER, or *Axis of an Ellipsis*, the shortest of the two diameters, or that bisecting the axis.

CONJUGATION, in *Grammar*, a regular distribution of the several inflections of verbs in their different voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, so as to distinguish them from one another. See GRAMMAR and LANGUAGE.

CONIUM, HEMLOCK. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONJUNCT, in a general sense, signifies conjoined, concurrent, or united.

CONJUNCT Rights, in *Scots Law*, such as are granted to two or more persons. See LAW *Index*.

CONJUNCT, or *Confidant Persons*, in *Scots Law*, such as are about the person of another, or employed by him. See LAW *Index*.

CONJUNCTION, in *Astronomy*, the meeting of two or more stars or planets in the same degree of the zodiac.

CONJUNCTION, in *Grammar*, an indeclinable word or particle, which serves to join words and sentences together, and thereby shows their relation or dependence upon one another. See GRAMMAR.

CONJURATION, magic words, characters, or ceremonies, whereby evil spirits, tempests, &c. are supposed to be raised, or driven away. The Romish priests pretend to expel devils, by preparing holy water in a particular manner, and sprinkling it over the possessed, with a number of conjurations and exorcisms.

Some authors make the difference between conjuration and witchcraft to consist in this; that the former effects its end by prayers and invocation of God's name, &c. to compel the devil to do what is desired; so that the conjuror is supposed to be at war with the devil, and that evil spirit to act merely out of constraint: whereas the latter attains its end by an immediate application to the devil himself: and the devil's complaisance is supposed to be the consequence of some compact between them, so that the devil and the witch have a good understanding together. Both these, again, differ from inchantment and sorcery; in that these latter operate secretly and slowly by spells, charms, &c. without ever calling on the devil, or having any conference with him.

CONN. See COND.

CONNAUGHT, one of the four provinces of Ireland, bounded on the east by that of Leinster, on the west by the ocean, on the north and north-west by part of the ocean and province of Ulster, and on the south and east by Munster. It is about 130 miles in length, and 84 in breadth. It has no rivers of any great note besides the Shannon. It has several convenient bays and creeks, and is fertile in many places. It had several dangerous bogs, overrun with woods, which are now in some measure cleared away. This province produces abundance of cattle, sheep, deer, hawks, and honey; but the inhabitants being lazy, it is the least cultivated of all the four provinces. It contains 1 archbishopric, 5 bishoprics, 6 counties, 7 market towns, 8 places of trade, 10 boroughs that sent members to the Irish parliament, 47,256 houses, 24 old castles, besides fortresses that have been erected of late, and 330 parishes. The principal town is Galway.

CONNARUS, CEYLON SUMACH. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONNECTICUT, a large river in New England, which gives name to one of the five colonies of that province (see the next article). It rises in a swamp on the height of land, in N. Lat. 45. 10. W. Long. 71. After a sleepy course of eight or ten miles, it tumbles over four separate falls, and turning west keeps close under the hills which form the northern boundary of the vale through which it runs. The Amonoosuck and Israel rivers, two principal branches of Connecticut river, fall into it from the east, between the latitudes 44° and 45°. Between the towns of Walpole on the east, and Westminster on the west side of the river, are the great falls. The whole river, compressed between two rocks scarcely 30 feet asunder, shoots with amazing rapidity into a broad bason below. Over these falls, a bridge 160 feet in length was built in 1784, under which the highest floods may pass without detriment. This is the first bridge that was ever erected over this noble river. Above Deerfield in Massachusets it receives Deerfield river from the west, and Miller's river from the east, after which it runs westerly in a sinuous course to Fighting-falls, and a little after tumbles over Deerfield falls, which are impassable by boats. At Windsor in Connecticut it receives Farmington river from the west, and at Hartford meets the tide. From Hartford it passes on in a crooked course, until it falls into Long Island sound between Saybrook and Lyme.

The length of this river, in a straight line, is nearly 300 miles. Its general course is several degrees west of south. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles,

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from its mouth. At its mouth is a bar of ſand which conſiderably obſtructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the ſame depth to Middleton. The diſtance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is 36 miles. Above Middleton are ſeveral ſhoals which ſtretch quite acroſs the river. Only ſix feet water is found on the ſhoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton the river is contracted to about 40 rods in breadth by two high mountains. Almoſt everywhere elſe the banks are low, and ſpread into fine extenſive meadows. In the ſpring floods, which generally happen in May, theſe meadows are covered with water. At Hartford the water ſometimes riſes 20 feet above the common ſurface of the river, and having all to paſs through the above-mentioned ſtrait, it is ſometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its uſual bed. Theſe floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river: this bar lying too far off in the ſound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whoſe banks are ſettled almoſt to its ſource, are many pleaſant, neat, well-built towns. On its weſtern bank, from its mouth northward, are the towns of Saybrook, Haddam, Middleton, Weathersfield, Hartford, Windſor, and Suffield, in Connecticut; Weſt Springfield, Northampton, Hatfield, and Deerfield, in Maſſachuſets; Guilford, Brattleborough, in which is Fort Dummer, Weſtminſter, Windſor, Hartford, Fairlee, Newbury, Brunſwick, and many others in Vermont. Croſſing the river into New Hampſhire, and travelling on the eaſtern bank, you paſs through Woodbury nearly oppoſite to Brunſwick, Northumberland, the Coos country, Lyman, Orford, Lyme, Hanover, in which is Dartmouth College, Lebanon, Corniſh, Clermont, Charleſtown, or N° 4, Cheſterfield, and many others in New Hampſhire; Sunderland, Hadley, Springfield, Long Meadow, in Maſſachuſets; and in Connecticut, Enfield, Eaſt Windſor, Eaſt Hartford, Glaſtenbury, Eaſt Haddam, and Lyme.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of 50 miles from its mouth, and the produce of the country for 200 miles above is brought thither in boats. The boats which are uſed in this buſineſs are flat-bottomed, long and narrow, for the convenience of going up ſtream, and of ſo light a make as to be portable in carts. They are taken out of the river at three different carrying-places, all of which make 15 miles.

Sturgeon, ſalmon, and ſhad, are caught in plenty in their ſeaſon, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting ſturgeon, which do not aſcend the upper falls; beſides a variety of ſmall fiſh, ſuch as pike, carp, perch, &c.

From this river are employed three brigs of 180 tons each, in the European trade; and about 60 ſail from 60 to 150 tons, in the Weſt India trade; beſides a few fiſhermen, and 40 or 50 coaſting veſſels.

CONNECTICUT, one of the five ſtates of New England in America; bounded on the north by Maſſachuſets; on the eaſt by Rhode Iſland; on the ſouth by the ſound which divides it from Long Iſland; and on the weſt by the province of New York.

The diviſional line between Connecticut and Maſſachuſets, as ſettled in 1728, was found to be about 72 miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode Iſland was ſettled in 1728, and found to be about 45 miles. The ſea coaſt, from the mouth of Paukatuk river, which forms a part of the eaſtern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct ſouthweſtwardly line to the mouth of Bryam river, is reckoned at about 90 miles. The line between Connecticut and New York runs from latitude 41. 0. to latitude 42. 2.; 72 miles. Connecticut contains about 4674 ſquare miles; equal to about 2,960,000 acres.

Rivers.

This ſtate is watered by ſeveral fine rivers, the principal of which are, *Connecticut* deſcribed in the preceding article, Houſatonik, and the Thames. One branch of the Houſatonik riſes in Laneſborough, the other in Windſor, both in Berkſhire county in Maſſachuſets. It paſſes through a number of pleaſant towns, and empties into the ſound between Stratford and Milford. It is navigable 12 miles, to Derby. A bar of ſhells, at its mouth, obſtructs its navigation for large veſſels. In this river, between Saliſbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 150 yards wide, falls about 60 feet perpendicularly, in a perfectly white ſheet. A copious miſt ariſes, in which floating rainbows are ſeen in various places at the ſame time, exhibiting a ſcene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

The Thames empties into Long Iſland ſound at New London. It is navigable 14 miles, to Norwich Landing. Here it loſes its name, and branches into Shetucket on the eaſt, and Norwich or Little River on the weſt. The city of Norwich ſtands on the tongue of land between theſe rivers. Little River, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock 10 or 12 feet in perpendicular height, extends quite acroſs the channel of the river. Over this the whole river pitches, in one entire ſheet, upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compreſſed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a conſiderable height. The channel deſcends gradually, is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon theſe the water ſwiftly tumbles, foaming with the moſt violent agitation, 15 or 20 rods, into a broad baſon which ſpreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls, the rocks are curiouſly excavated by the conſtant pouring of the water. Some of the cavities, which are all of a circular form, are five or ſix feet deep. The ſmoothneſs of the water above its deſcent, the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall, the tremendous roughneſs of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, preſent to the view of the ſpectator a ſcene indeſcribably delightful and majeſtic. On this river are ſome of the fineſt mill ſeats in New England, and thoſe immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mill, are perhaps not exceeded by any in the world. Acroſs the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expence.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabog, which has its ſource in Brimfield in Maſſachuſets; thence paſſing through Sturbridge and Dudley in Maſſachuſets, it croſſes into Connecticut, and divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Liſbon from Preſton, and then mingles with Shetucket. In

paſſing

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passing through this hilly country, it tumbles over many falls, and affords a vast number of mill seats. The source of the Shetucket is not far from that of Quinnabog. It has the name of Willamantik while passing through Stafford, and between Tolland and Willington, Coventry, and Mansfield. Below Windham it takes the name of Shetucket, and empties as above. These rivers are fed by numberless brooks from every part of the adjacent country. At the mouth of Shetucket is a bridge of timber 124 feet in length, supported at each end by pillars, and held up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

2 Harbours.

The two principal harbours are at New London and New Haven. The former opens to the south. From the light-house, which stands at the mouth of the harbour, to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in some places more. The harbour has from five to six fathoms water, a clear bottom, tough ooze, and as far as one mile above the town is entirely secure and commodious for large ships. New Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New London. It is a bay which sets up northerly from the sound about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and a half fathoms at low water, and three fathoms and four feet at common tides. The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious, but are not sufficiently used to merit a description.

3 Climate, soil, and productions.

Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. As many as one in 46 of the inhabitants of Connecticut, who were living in 1774, were upwards of 40 years old. From accurate calculation it is found, that about one in eight live to the age of 70 years and upwards; one in 13 to the age of 80 years, and one in about 30 to the age of 90.

In the maritime towns the weather is variable, according as the wind blows from the sea or land. As you advance into the country, the sea breezes have less effect upon the air, and consequently the weather is less variable. The shortest day is 8 hours and 58 minutes, and the longest 15 hours. The north-west winds, in the winter-season, are often extremely severe and piercing, occasioned by the great body of snow which lies concealed from the dissolving influence of the sun in the immense forests north and north-west. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the severity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills, and valleys; and is exceedingly well watered. Some small parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and sixth northern climates, and has a strong fertile soil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late buck-wheat, flax in large quantities, some hemp, potatoes of several kinds, pumpkins, turnips, pease, beans, &c. &c. fruits of all kinds, which are common to the climate. The soil is very well calculated for pasture and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horses. Actual calculation has evinced, that any given quantity of the best mowing land in Connecticut, produces about twice as much clear profit as the same quantity of the best wheat land in the state of New York. Many farmers, in the eastern part of the state, have lately found their advantage in raising mules, which are caried from the ports of Norwich and New London to the West India islands, and yield a handsome profit. The beef, pork, butter, and cheese, of Connecticut, are equal to any in the world.

4 Trade.

The trade of Connecticut is principally with the West India islands, and is carried on in vessels from 60 to 140 tons. The exports consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak staves, hoops, pine boards, oak planks, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, pork, &c. Horses, live cattle and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Danish, and French ports. Beef and fish are liable to such heavy duties in the French islands, as that little profit arises to the merchant who sends them to their ports. Pork and flour are prohibited. As the ordinance making free ports in the French West India islands extends to all foreigners, the price of molasses and other articles has been greatly enhanced by the English purchasers for Canada and Nova Scotia; so that the trade of Connecticut with the French West India islands is not profitable. Cotton, cocoa, indigo, and sugars, are not permitted to be brought away by Americans. The severity with which these prohibitory laws are administered is such, as that these articles cannot be smuggled.

Connecticut has a large number of coasting vessels employed in carrying the produce of the state to other states.—To Rhode island, Massachusets, and New Hampshire, they carry pork, wheat, corn, and rye. To North and South Carolinas, and Georgia, butter, cheese, salted beef, cyder, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return rice, indigo, and money. But as New York is nearer, and the state of the markets always well known, much of the produce of Connecticut, especially of the western parts is carried there; particularly pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, beef, pork, cheese, and butter in large quantities. Most of the produce of Connecticut river, from the parts of Massachusets, New Hampshire, and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to the same market. Considerable quantities of the produce of the eastern parts of the state are marketed at Boston and Providence.

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this state, before the year 1774, was then estimated at about 200,000l. lawful money annually. Since this time no accurate estimate has been made, so that it is impossible to tell whether the amount has since been increased or diminished.

In 1774, the number of shipping in Connecticut was 189; their tonnage 10,317; seafaring men 1162; besides upwards of 20 sail of coasting vessels, which employed about 90 seamen. This state is not yet fully recovered from the confusion in which it was involved by the late war; so that the number of shipping, &c. has not, at any period since 1774, been ascertained with accuracy. It is probable, however, considering the losses sustained by the war, the decay of the ship-building business, and the number of unfortunate ship-wrecks,

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wrecks, and losses by hurricanes in the West Indies, that the shipping and seamen are not now so numerous as in 1774.

The number of shipping from the port of New London employed in 1788 in the European and West India trade, was four ships, one snow, 34 brigantines, 32 schooners, and 45 sloops. The number of horses and cattle exported from the district round New London, from the 10th of January 1787, to the 10th of January 1788, was 6917; besides jack asses imported and exported, not included. From 1786 to 1787, the number was 6671; so that the last year exceeded the other 246. From March 1787 to January 1788, 1459 horses, 180 oxen, and 13 cows, were exported from the port of Middleton.

3 Manufactures.

The farmers in Connecticut and their families are mostly cloathed in plain, decent, homespun cloth. Their linens and woollens are manufactured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarser kind, they are of a stronger texture, and much more durable, than those imported from France and Great Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handsome.

In New Haven is a linen manufactory which employs nine, and one for cotton is about to be established. In East Hartford is a glass-work, a snuff and powder mill, and an iron-work and slitting mill. Iron-works are established also at Salisbury, Norwich, and other parts of the state. At Stafford is a furnace at which are made large quantities of hollow ware and other ironmongery, sufficient to supply the whole state. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, New Haven, and in Litchfield county. Nails of every size are made in almost every town and village in Connecticut; so that considerable quantities can be exported to the neighbouring states, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats of the best kinds, candles, leather, shoes, and boots, are manufactured in this state. We must not omit to mention wooden dishes and other wooden ware, which are made in vast quantities in Suffield and some few other places, and sold in almost every part of the eastern states. Oil mills, of a new and very ingenious construction, have been erected in several parts of the state.

It appears from experiments made formerly in this state, that a bushel of sun-flower seed yields a gallon of oil; and that an acre of ground planted with the seed at three feet apart, will yield between forty and fifty bushels of the seed. This oil is as mild as sweet oil, and is equally agreeable with salads, and as a medicine. It may, moreover, be used with advantage in paints, varnishes, and ointments. From its being manufactured in our own country, it may always be procured and used in a fresh state. The oil is pressed from the seed in the same manner that cold-drawn linseed oil is drawn from flax-seed, and with as little trouble. Sweet olive oils sells for six shillings a quart. Should the oil of the sun-flower sell for only two-thirds of that price, the produce of an acre of ground, supposing it to yield only 40 bushels of the seed, will be 3 l. a sum far beyond the product of an acre of ground in any kind of grain. The seed is raised with very little trouble, and grows in land of moderate fertility. It may be gathered and shelled, fit for the extraction of the oil, by women and children.

Connecticut is divided into eight counties, viz. Hartford, New Haven, New London, Fairfield, Windham, Litchfield, Middlesex, and Tolland. The counties are subdivided into upwards of 80 townships; each of which is a corporation, invested with power to hold lands, choose their own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of transgression not to exceed 20s. and to choose their own representatives to the general assembly. The townships are generally divided into two or more parishes, in each of which is one or more places of public worship.

6 Civil divisions and population.

Connecticut is the most populous, in proportion to its extent, of any of the thirteen states. It is laid out in small farms from 30 to 300 or 400 acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee-simple; and are generally cultivated as well as the nature of the soil will admit. The state is chequered with innumerable roads or highways, crossing each other in every direction. A traveller in any of these roads, even in the most unsettled parts of the state, will seldom pass more than two or three miles without finding a house or cottage, and a farm under such improvements as to afford the necessaries for the support of a family. The whole state resembles a well-cultivated garden; which, with that degree of industry that is requisite for happiness, produces the necessaries and conveniences of life in great plenty.

In 1739, the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was 130,611; in 1774, there were 197,856 souls. In 18 years, the increase was 67,245; from 1774 to 1782, the increase was but 11,294 persons. This comparatively small increase of inhabitants may be satisfactorily accounted for from the destruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the western parts of New Hampshire, and other states.

The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people, in any part of New England.

7 Character, manners, &c.

In addition to what has been already said on these particulars under New England, it may be observed, that the people of Connecticut are remarkably fond of having all their disputes, even those of the most trivial kind, settled according to law. The prevalence of this litigious spirit affords employment and support for a numerous body of lawyers. The number of actions entered annually upon the several dockets in the state, justifies the above observations. That party spirit, however, which is the bane of political happiness, has not raged with such violence in this state as in Massachusets and Rhode Island. Public proceedings have been conducted, generally, and especially of late, with much calmness and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to secure them.

The clergy, who are numerous, and, as a body, very respectable, have hitherto preserved a kind of aristocratical balance in the very democratical government of the state; which has happily operated as a check upon the overbearing spirit of republicanism. It has been lamented that the unhappy religious disputes

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putes which have too much prevailed among ſome of the clergy, and the too great attention that others have paid to their temporal concerns, to the neglect of their flocks, and an inattention to the qualifications of thoſe who have been admitted to the ſacred office, have, heretofore, conſiderably diminiſhed their influence. It is a pleaſing circumſtance that the rage for theological diſputation is abating; and greater ſtrictneſs is obſerved in the admiſſion of candidates to the miniſtry. Their influence is on the increaſe; and it is no doubt to be attributed, in part, to their increaſing influence, that an evident reformation in the manners of the people of this ſtate has taken place ſince the peace. In regard to learning and abilities, the clergy, at the preſent day, are equal to their predeceſſors at any former period.

8 Religion.

As to eccleſiaſtical government and diſcipline, each church is a ſeparate juriſdiction, and claims authority to chooſe their own miniſter, to exerciſe government, and to enjoy goſpel ordinances within itſelf. The churches, however, are not independent of each other; they are aſſociated for mutual benefit and convenience. The aſſociations have power to licenſe candidates for the miniſtry, to conſult for the general welfare, and to recommend meaſures to be adopted by the churches, but have no authority to enforce them. When diſputes ariſe in churches, councils are called, by the parties, to ſettle them; but their power is only adviſory. There are as many aſſociations in the ſtate as there are counties; and they meet twice in a year. Theſe are all combined in one general aſſociation, who meet annually.

All religions that are conſiſtent with the peace of ſociety are tolerated in Connecticut; and a ſpirit of liberality and catholiciſm is increaſing. There are very few religious ſects in this ſtate; the bulk of the people are Congregationaliſts. Beſides theſe there are Epiſcopalians and Baptiſts; and formerly there was a ſociety of Sandimanians at New-Haven; but they are now reduced to a very ſmall number. The Epiſcopalian churches are reſpectable, and are under the ſuperintendance of a biſhop. There were 29 congregations of the Baptiſts in 1784. Theſe congregations, with thoſe in the neighbouring ſtates, meet in aſſociations, by delegation, annually.

9 Chief towns.

There are a great number of very pleaſant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five incorporated towns or cities. Two of theſe, Hartford and New-Haven, are the capitals of the ſtate. The general aſſembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually. See HARTFORD and *New-HAVEN*.

10 Colleges, academies, and ſchools.

In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. Almoſt every town in the ſtate is divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict has a public ſchool kept in it a greater or leſs part of every year. Somewhat more than one third of the money ariſing from a tax on the polls and rateable eſtate of the inhabitants, is appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools, in the ſeveral towns, for the education of children and youth. The law directs that a grammar ſchool ſhall be kept in every county town through the ſtate.

There is a grammar ſchool at Hartford, and another at New-Haven, ſupported by a donation of Governor Hopkins. This venerable and benevolent gentleman, in his laſt will, dated 1657, left in the hands of Theophilus Eaton, Eſq. and three others, a legacy of 1324l. "as an encouragement, in theſe foreign plantations, of breeding up hopeful youths both at the grammar ſchool and college." In 1664, this legacy was equally divided between New-Haven and Hartford; and grammar ſchools were erected, which have been ſupported ever ſince.

At Greenfield there is a reſpectable academy, under the care and inſtruction of the Rev. Dr Dwight. At Plainfield is another, under the care of the Rev. Mr Benedict. This academy has flouriſhed for ſeveral years, and furniſhed a number of ſtudents for Yale and Dartmouth colleges. At Norwich and Windham, likewiſe are academies furniſhed with able inſtructors; each of theſe academies has 60 or 70 ſcholars.

Yale College was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook, until 1716, when it was removed and fixed at New-Haven. See *New-HAVEN*.

11 Mines, minerals and foſſils.

On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middleton, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war at the expence of the ſtate, and was productive. It is too expenſive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been diſcovered and opened in ſeveral parts of the ſtate, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron mines are numerous and productive. Steel ore has been found in the mountains between Woodbury and New Milford. Talcs of various kinds, white, brown, and chocolate coloured cryſtals, zinc or ſpeltzer, a ſemimetal, and ſeveral other foſſils and metals, have been found in Connecticut.

12 Mode of levying taxes.

All freeholders in the ſtate are required by law to give in liſts of their polls and rateable eſtate, to perſons appointed in the reſpective towns to receive them, on or before the 20th of Auguſt annually. Theſe are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and ſent to the general aſſembly annually in May.

The ſum total of the liſt of the polls and rateable eſtate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the general aſſembly in May 1787, were as follows:

Sum total of the ſingle liſt	L.1,484,901	6	4¾
Aſſeſſments	47,790	2	9
One quarter of the fourfolds	1,176	9	4
Total	L.1,533,867	18	5¾

On this ſum taxes are levied, ſo much on the pound, according to the ſum propoſed to be raiſed. A tax of two-pence on the pound would raiſe 12,782l. 4s.

The ordinary annual expences of government before the war amounted to near 4000l. ſterling, excluſive of that which was appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools. The expences have ſince increaſed.

13 Mineral ſprings.

At Stafford is a medicinal ſpring, which is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for ſcorbutic, cutaneous, and other diſorders. At Guilford is a ſpring, whoſe water, it is ſaid, when ſeparated from the fountain, will evaporate even when put into a bottle and tightly corked.

It is difficult to ſay what is the conſtitution of this ſtate.

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14 Constitution and courts of justice.

ſtate. Contented with the form of government which originated from the charter of Charles II. granted in 1662, the people have not been diſpoſed to run the hazard of framing a new conſtitution ſince the declaration of independence. They have tacitly adopted their old charter as the ground of civil government, ſo far as it is applicable to an independent people.

Agreeable to this charter, the ſupreme legiſlative authority of the ſtate is veſted in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve aſſiſtants or counſellors, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſtyled the *General Aſſembly*. The governor, deputy-governor, and aſſiſtants, are annually choſen by the freemen in the month of May. The repreſentatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are choſen by the freemen twice a-year, to attend the two annual ſeſſions, on the ſecond Thurſday of May and October. This aſſembly has power to erect judicatories, for the trial of cauſes civil and criminal, and to ordain and eſtabliſh laws for ſettling the forms and ceremonies of government. By theſe laws the general aſſembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houſes. The upper houſe is compoſed of the governor, deputy-governor, and aſſiſtants; the lower houſe, of the repreſentatives of the people. No law can paſs without the concurrence of both houſes. The judges of the ſuperior court hold their offices during the pleaſure of the general aſſembly. The judges of the county courts, and juſtices, are annually apppointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and council, without limitation of time. The governor is captain-general of the militia, the deputy-governor lieutenant-general. All other military officers are appointed by the aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the governor.

The mode of electing the governor, deputy-governor, aſſiſtants, treaſurer, and ſecretary, is as follows: The freemen in the ſeveral towns meet on the Monday next after the firſt Tueſday in April, annually, and give in their votes for the perſons they chooſe for the ſaid offices reſpectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and ſealed up by a conſtable in open meeting, the votes for each office by themſelves, with the name of the town and office written on the outſide. Theſe votes, thus ſealed, are ſent to the general aſſembly in May, and there counted by a committee from both houſes. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In chooſing aſſiſtants, twenty perſons are nominated, by the vote of each freeman, at the freemen's meeting for chooſing repreſentatives in September annually. Theſe votes are ſealed up, and ſent to the general aſſembly in October, and are there counted by a committee of both houſes, and the twenty perſons who have the moſt votes ſtand in nomination; out of which number the twelve who have the greateſt number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are in May declared aſſiſtants in the manner above mentioned. The qualifications of freemen are, maturity in years, quiet and peaceable behaviour, a civil converſation, and freehold eſtate to the value of forty ſhillings per annum, or forty pounds perſonal eſtate in the liſt, certified by the ſelect men of the town; it is neceſſary alſo that they take the oath of fidelity to the ſtate. Their names are enrolled in the town clerk's office, and they continue freemen for life, unleſs diſfranchiſed by ſentence of the ſuperior court, on conviction of miſdemeanor.

The courts are as follows: The juſtices of the peace, of whom a number are annually appointed in each town by the general aſſembly, have authority to hear and determine civil actions, where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty ſhillings, an appeal to the county is allowed. They have cognizance of ſmall offences, and may puniſh by fine not exceeding forty ſhillings, or whipping not exceeding ten ſtripes, or ſitting in the ſtocks. There are eight county courts in the ſtate, held in the ſeveral counties by one judge and four juſtices of the quorum, who have juriſdiction of all criminal caſes, ariſing within their reſpective counties, where the puniſhment does not extend to life, limb, or baniſhment. They have original juriſdiction of all civil actions which exceed the juriſdiction of a juſtice. Either party may appeal to the ſuperior court, if the demand exceeds twenty pounds, except on bonds or notes vouched by two witneſſes.

There are ſeveral courts of probate in each county, conſiſting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court, is, the probate of wills, granting adminiſtration of inteſtate eſtates, ordering diſtribution of them, and appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the ſuperior court.

The ſuperior court conſiſts of five judges. It has authority in all criminal caſes extending to life, limb or baniſhment, and other high crimes and miſdemeanors, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts, or the court of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit court, and has two ſtate ſeſſions in each county annually. The ſuperior and county courts try matters of fact by a jury, or without if the parties will agree.

There is a ſupreme court of errors, conſiſting of the deputy-governor and the twelve aſſiſtants. Their ſole buſineſs is to determine writs of error brought on judgments of the ſuperior court, where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two ſtated ſeſſions annually, viz. on the Tueſdays of the weeks preceding the ſtated ſeſſions of the general aſſembly.

The county court is a court of chancery, empowered to hear and determine caſes in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The ſuperior court has cognizance of all caſes where the demand exceeds that ſum. Error may be brought from the county to the ſuperior court, and from the ſuperior court to the ſupreme court of errors, on judgment in caſes of equity as well as of law.

The general aſſembly only have power to grant pardons and reprieves, to grant commiſſions of bankruptcy, or protect the perſons and eſtates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, ſo far as it is applicable to this country, is conſidered as the common law of this ſtate. The reports of adjudication in the court of king's bench, common pleas, and chancery, are read in the courts of this ſtate as authorities; yet the judges do not conſider them as concluſively binding,

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ing, unless founded on solid reasons which will apply in this state, or sanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts.

The feudal system of descents was never adopted in this state. All the real estate of intestates is divided equally among the children, males and females, except that the eldest son has a double portion. And all estates given in tail must be given to some person then in being, or to their immediate issue, and shall become fee-simple estates to the issue of the first donee in tail. The widow of an intestate is entitled to a third part of the personal estate for ever, and to her dower, or third part of the houses and lands belonging to the intestate at the time of his death, during her life.

15 Practice of law.

The practice of law in this state has more simplicity, but less precision, than in England. Assistants and judges are empowered to issue writs through the state, and justices through their respective counties. In these writs, the substance of the complaints or the declarations must be contained; and if neither of the parties show good reason for delay, the causes are heard and determined the same term to which the writs are returnable. Few of the fictions of law, so common in the English practice, are known in this state. The plaintiff has always his election to attach or summon the defendant. Attorneys are admitted and qualified by the county courts. Previous to their admission to the bar, they must study two years with a practising attorney in the state, if they have had a college education, and three years if they have not; their morals must be good, and their characters unblemished; and they must sustain an examination by the attorneys of the court of the county where they are admitted, and be by them recommended to the court. When admitted to the county court, they can practise without other qualifications, in any court in the state. There are upon an average about thirteen attorneys to each county, one hundred and four in the state; a very great proportion for the real exigencies of the people. Yet from the litigious spirit of the citizens, the most of them find employment and support. There is no attorney general, but there is one attorney to the state in each county.

16 History.

The present territory of Connecticut, at the time of the first arrival of the English, was possessed by the Pequot, the Mohegan, Podunk, and many other smaller tribes of Indians.

The Pequots were numerous and warlike. Their country extended along the sea coast from Paukatuk to Connecticut river. About the year 1630, this powerful tribe extended their conquests over a considerable part of Connecticut, over all Long Island, and part of Narraganset. Sassacus, who was the grand monarch of the whole country, was king of this nation. The seat of his dominions was at New London; the ancient Indian name of which was Pequot.

The Mohegans were a numerous tribe, and their territory extensive. Their ancient claim, which was surveyed and settled by commissioners from Queen Anne in 1705, comprehended all New London county, except a narrow strip of about eight miles wide, on the sea coast, almost the whole of the county of Windham, and a part of the counties of Tolland and Hartford. Uncas, distinguished for his friendship to the English, was the sachem of this tribe.

The Podunks inhabited East Hartford, and the circumjacent country. The first sachem of this tribe, of whom the English had any knowledge was Tatanimoo. He was able to bring into the field more than 200 fighting men.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his majesty in council the same year. This grant comprehended all that part of New England which lies west from Narraganset river, 120 miles on the sea-coast, from thence in latitude and breadth aforesaid to the South sea. The year following, the earl assigned the grant to Lord Say and Sele, Lord Brook, and nine others.

No English settlements were attempted in Connecticut, until the year 1633, when a number of Indian traders, having purchased of Zequasson and Natawanute, two principal sachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little river in Windsor, built a house and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of soil upon the river.

The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartfort, and built a house which they called the *Hirse of Good Hope*, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only settlement of the Dutch in Connecticut in these ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the province of New York, for a long time claimed as far east as the western bank of Connecticut river. It belongs to the professed historian to prove or disprove the justice of this claim. Douglas says, "The partition line between New York and Connecticut, as established December 1. 1664, runs from the mouth of Memoroncok river, a little west of Byram river, N. N. W. and was the ancient easterly limits of New York, until November 23. 1683, when the line was run nearly the same as it is now settled." If Douglas is right, the New York claim could not have been well founded.

In 1634, Lord Say and Sele, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who in a formal manner gave to the English their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

In 1635, the Plymouth council granted to the duke of Hamilton, all lands between Narraganset and Connecticut rivers, and back into the country as far as Massachusets south line. This covered a part of the earl of Warwick's patent, and occasioned some disputes in the colony. There were several attempts to revive the Hamilton claim, but they were never prosecuted.

In October of this year, about sixty persons from Newton, Dorchester, and Watertown, in Massachusets, came and settled at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr Hooker and his company came and settled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony to the day of his death.

The first court held in Connecticut was at Hartford, April 26. 1636.

The year 1637 was distinguished by the war with the Pequots. This warlike nation had, for some time, been troublesome neighbours. They solicited the Nar-

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raganſetts to join them in extirpating the Engliſh. They had ſurpriſed and killed ſeveral of the Engliſh upon Connecticut river. Theſe threatening appearances and actual hoſtilities induced the three colonies of Maſſachuſets, Plymouth, and Connecticut, to combine their forces, to carry the war into their country, and to attempt the entire deſtruction of the whole tribe. Myantonomo, the Narranganſett ſachem, and Uncas, ſachem of the Mohegans, ſent to the Engliſh and offered their ſervice to join with them againſt the Pequots. Forces were accordingly raiſed in all the colonies; but thoſe of Connecticut, on account of their vicinity to the enemy, were firſt in action. Captain Maſon, with 80 Engliſh and 100 Indians from Connecticut river, proceeded by water to the Narraganſetts country, where 200 of that tribe joined him. On the 24th of May, they began their march for Saſſacus fort on Pequot, now Thames river. They afterwards determined firſt to aſſault Myſtic fort, which was ſituated between them and Pequot river. On the morning of the 26th of May the attack was made. The Indians, after a midnight revel, were buried in a deep ſleep. At the moment of their approach, the ſentinel happened to be gone into a wigwam to light his pipe. The barking of a dog gave the alarm. The Indians awoke, ſeized their arrows and began their hideous yell. They were joined in their tremendous noiſe by the Indians in the Engliſh army, who were in the rear and afraid to approach. The battle was warm and bloody, and the victory complete. The fort was taken—about 70 wigwams burnt—50 or 60 of the Indians were killed—many were wounded and taken, and the reſt eſcaped. Saſſacus and his warriors at Pequot, ſtruck with terror at the news of this defeat, demoliſhed their principal fort, burnt their wigwams, and fled to the weſtward, Captain Stoughton, with 160 men from Maſſachuſets, had by this time arrived at Saybrook. He with his forces joined Captain Maſon and purſued the Indians, and overtook and ſurrounded them in a great ſwamp near Fairfield. A ſachem and 99 women and children came out and delivered themſelves up to their purſuers. Terms of peace were offered to the reſt: but after a ſhort parley they determined, that as they had lived they would die together. There were about 80 who made this reſolution. Part of theſe eſcaped by means of the darkneſs of the night. The reſt were either killed or taken. In this action the Indians had guns, which is the firſt account of their having uſed them. Saſſacus fled to the Mohawks, by whom it is reported he was murdered; but it is moſt probable that he and his company incorporated with them. Many of the Indian captives were unjuſtifiably ſent to Bermudas and ſold for ſlaves. The Pequot tribe was wholly extinguiſhed. This ſucceſsful expedition ſtruck the Indians that remained with ſuch terror, as reſtrained them from open hoſtilities for near forty years after.

The Engliſh thus obtained the country eaſt of the Dutch ſettlements, by right of conqueſt. The purſuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the ſea-coaſt from Seabrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. This favourable report induced Meſſrs Eaton and Hopkins, two very reſpectable London merchants, and Mr Davenport, a man of diſtinguiſhed piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, to think of this part of the country as the place of their ſettlement. Their friends in Maſſachuſets, ſorry to part with ſo valuable a company, diſſuaded them from their purpoſe. Influenced, however, by the promiſing proſpects which the country afforded, and flattering themſelves that they ſhould be out of the juriſdiction of a general governor, with which the country was from time to time threatened, they determined to proceed. Accordingly, in March 1638, with the conſent of their friends on Connecticut river, they ſettled at New Haven, and laid the foundation of a flouriſhing colony, of which Quinnipiak, now New Haven, was the chief town. The firſt public worſhip in this new plantation, was attended on Lord's day, April 18. 1638, under a large ſpreading oak. The Rev. Mr Davenport preached from Mat. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderneſs. Both colonies, by voluntary compact, formed themſelves into diſtinct commonwealths, and remained ſo until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, finding themſelves without the limits of any juriſdiction, formed themſelves into a body politic, and agreed upon articles of civil government. Theſe articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter which was granted in 1662. The ſubſtance of the articles, ſo far as they reſpect the holding of aſſemblies, the time and manner of electing magiſtrates and other civil officers (except that in the old confederation no perſon was to be choſen governor more than once in two years), and the extent of legiſlative powers was transferred into, and eſtabliſhed in ſaid charter.

The firſt church was gathered in New Haven this year, and conſiſted of ſeven members. Theſe were choſen by the ſettlers after Mr Davenport had preached from the words of Solomon, 'Wiſdom hath builded her houſe, ſhe hath hewed out her ſeven pillars.' Theſe men were indeed the pillars of the church, to whom the reſt were added as they became qualified. They were alſo the court to try all civil actions.

The firſt ſettlers in New Haven had all things common; all purchaſes were made in the name and for the uſe of the whole plantation; and the lands were apportioned out to each family, according to their number and original ſtock.

At their firſt election, in October 1639, Mr Theophilus Eaton was choſen governor for the firſt year. Their elections, by agreement, were to be annual; and the word of God their only rule in conducting the affairs of government in the plantation.

In 1643, the articles of confederation between the four New England colonies, mentioned under the article NEW ENGLAND, were unanimouſly adopted by the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut.

The Engliſh ſettlement on Delaware, which was under the juriſdiction of New Haven, was ſurpriſed by the Swedes, and the people put in irons, under a falſe pretence that they were entering into a conſpiracy with the Indians to extirpate the Swedes.

The general court of New Haven, this year, eſtabliſhed it as a fundamental article, not to be diſputed, That none be admitted as free burgeſſes but church members, and that none but ſuch ſhould vote at elections.

tions. They alſo ordained, That each town chooſe from among themſelves judges (church members) to be a court, to have cognizance of all civil actions not exceeding twenty pounds; and of criminal cauſes, where the puniſhment was ſitting in the ſtocks, whipping, and fining not exceeding five pounds. There was liberty of appeal from this to the court of magiſtrates. The court of magiſtrates conſiſted of all the magiſtrates throughout the colony, who were to meet twice a-year at New Haven, for the trial of all capital cauſes. Six made a quorum. The general court was to conſiſt of the governor, deputy-governor, magiſtrates, and two repreſentatives from each town. The annual election of officers of government was at this time eſtabliſhed, and has ever ſince continued.

The unſettled ſtate of the colony had hitherto prevented their eſtabliſhing a code of laws. To ſupply this defect, the general court ordered, 'That the judicial laws of God, as they were delivered to Moſes, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, ſhall be accounted of moral equity, and generally bind all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this juriſdiction in their proceedings againſt offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter.'

About this time a war broke out between the Mohegan and Narraganſett Indians. A perſonal quarrel between Myantonomo ſachem of the Narraganſetts, and Uncas ſachem of the Mohegans, was the foundation of the war. Myantonomo raiſed an army of 900 warriors, and marched towards the Mohegan country. Uncas by his ſpies received timely notice of their approach. His ſeat of reſidence was in ſome part of Norwich. He quickly collected 600 of his braveſt warriors, and told them, 'The Narraganſetts muſt not come into our town; we muſt meet them.' They accordingly marched about three miles to a large plain, where the two armies met, and halted within bow-ſhot of each other. A parley was propoſed by Uncas, and agreed to by Myantonomo. The ſachems met, and Uncas addreſſed his enemy as follows. 'You have a great many brave men: ſo have I. You and I have quarrelled; but theſe warriors, what have they done? Shall they die to avenge a private quarrel between us? No. Come like a brave man, as you pretend to be, and let us fight. If you kill me, my men ſhall be yours: if I kill you, your men ſhall be mine.' Myantonomo replied: 'My men came to fight, and they ſhall fight.' Uncas, like an experienced warrior, aware of the reſult of the conference from the ſuperior force of his enemy, had previouſly ſignified to his men, that if Myantonomo refuſed to fight him in ſingle combat, he would immediately fall, which was to be the ſignal for them to begin the attack. As ſoon therefore as Myantonomo had finiſhed his laconic ſpeech, Uncas dropped: his men inſtantly obeyed the ſignal, and poured in a ſhower of arrows upon the unſuſpecting Narraganſetts, and ruſhing on with their horrid yells and ſavage fierceneſs, put them to flight. Many were killed on the ſpot, the reſt were cloſely purſued, and ſome were precipitately driven down craggy precipices, and daſhed in pieces. At a place called, from this event, *Sachem's plain*, Uncas overtook and ſeized Myantonomo by the ſhoulder. They ſat down together; and Uncas with a hoop called in his men, and the battle ceaſed. Doubtful what to do with the royal priſoner, Uncas and his warriors, in council, determined to carry him to the governor and council at Hartford, and be adviſed by them. Thither he was accordingly conducted. The governor having adviſed with his council, told Uncas, that the Engliſh were not then at war with the Narraganſetts, and of courſe that it was not proper for them to intermeddle in the matter. Uncas was left to do with him as he pleaſed. Myantonomo was conducted back to the plain where he was taken, and put to death by Uncas himſelf. The tragic ſcene did not end with his death. Uncas, after the manner of the Indians, with his tomahawk cut off a large piece of fleſh from the ſhoulder of his ſlaughtered enemy, broiled and ate it, ſaying, with an air of ſavage triumph, 'It is the ſweeteſt meat I ever ate. It makes me have a ſtout heart.' His body was afterwards buried, and a pillar erected over it, the remains of which are viſible to this day.

The Narraganſetts were greatly enraged at the death of their prince, and reſolved to take vengeance on the Mohegans. The united colonies interpoſed to prevent a war between them, but in vain. The Narraganſetts reſolutely declared, they would continue the war until they had Uncas's head. But as Uncas had ever been a friend to the Engliſh, they joined him againſt his enemies, and were victorious. Such, however, was the enmity of the Narraganſetts to the Engliſh, that they afterwards ſent ſome of their men to Uncas, with large preſents, to induce him to join with them in a war with the colonies. Uncas replied, "Go tell your king, that I will go to Norwich, and adviſe with Major John Maſon and Mr Fitch; if they tell me to join him and fight againſt the Engliſh, I will join him." In the war that happened ſoon after, Uncas aſſiſted the Engliſh, and the Narraganſetts were ſubdued, and never after were formidable.

In conſideration of the ſucceſs and increaſe of the New England colonies, and that they had been of no charge to the nation, and in proſpect of their being in future very ſerviceable to it, the Engliſh parliament, March 10. 1643, granted them an exemption from all cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and other duties, until further order.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchaſed of Mr Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Sele, and Lord Brooke, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for 1600l.

The hiſtory of Connecticut is marked with traces of the ſame ſpirit which has been mentioned as characteriſtic of the Maſſachuſſets, in different ſtages of their hiſtory. Indeed, as Maſſachuſets was the ſtock whence Connecticut proceeded, this is to be expected.

The colonies of Connecticut and New Haven, from their firſt ſettlement, increaſed rapidly: tracts of land were purchaſed of the Indians, and new towns ſettled from Stamford to Stonington, and far back into the country, when, in 1761, Major John Maſon, as agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchaſed by particular towns, and made a public ſurrender of them to the colony, in the preſence of the general aſſembly. Having done theſe things, the colonies petitioned King Charles II. for

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for a charter, and their petition was granted. His majesty, on the 23d of April 1662, issued his letters patent under the great seal, ordaining that the colony of Connecticut should for ever hereafter be one body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchase, and fixing their boundaries as follows, viz. "All that part of his Majesty's dominions in New England, in America, bounded east by Narraganset river, commonly called *Narraganset bay*, where the river falleth into the sea; and on the north by the line of Massachusets plantation, and on the south by the sea, and in longitude as the line of the Massachusets colony, running from east to west, that is to say, from the said Narraganset bay on the east, to the South sea on the west part, with the islands thereunto belonging." This charter has ever since remained the basis of the government of Connecticut.

Such was the ignorance of the Europeans respecting the geography of America, when they first assumed the right of giving away lands which the God of nature had long before given to the Indians, that their patents extended they knew not where; many of them were of doubtful construction, and very often covered each other in part, and have produced innumerable disputes and mischiefs in the colonies, some of which are not settled to this day. Connecticut construed her charter literally, and passing over New York, which was then in possession of the subjects of a Christian prince, claimed, in latitude and breadth mentioned therein, to the South sea. Accordingly purchases were made of the Indians, on the Delaware river, west of the western bounds of New York, and within the supposed limits of Connecticut charter, and settlements were made thereon by people from, and under the jurisdiction of, Connecticut. The charter of Pennsylvania, granted to William Penn, in 1681, covered these settlements. This laid the foundation for a dispute, which for a long time was maintained with warmth on both sides. The matter was at last submitted to gentlemen chosen for the purpose, who decided the dispute in favour of Pennsylvannia. Many, however, still assert the justice of the Connecticut claim. The state of Connecticut has lately ceded to Congress all their lands west of Pennsylvania, except a reserve of 20 miles square. This cession Congress have accepted, and thereby indubitably established the right of Connecticut to the reserve.

The colony of New Haven, though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended within the limits of their charter, and, as they concluded, within their jurisdiction. But New Haven remonstrated against their claim, and refused to unite with them until they should hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commissioners had a design upon the New England charters, that these two colonies formed a union, which has ever since amicably subsisted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were revised, and the general court ordered them to be printed; and also, that "every family should buy one of the law books; such as pay in silver, to have a book for 12d. such as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book: and such as pay in pease, to pay 2s. a book, the pease at 3s. the bushel." Perhaps it is owing to this early and universal spread of law books, that the people of Connecticut are to this day so fond of the law. In 1750, the laws of Connecticut were again revised and published in a small folio volume of 258 pages. Dr Douglas observes, that they were the most natural, equitable, plain, and concise code of laws for plantations hitherto extant. There has been a revision of them since the peace, in which they were greatly and very judiciously simplified.

The years 1675 and 1676 were distinguished by the wars with Philip and his Indians, and with the Narraganfetts, by which the colony was thrown into great distress and confusion. The inroads of the enraged savages were marked with cruel murders, and with fire and devastation.

In 1684, the charters of Massachusets bay and Plymouth were taken away in consequence of Quo warrantos which had been issued against them. The charter of Connecticut would have shared the same fate had it not been for ——— Wadsworth, Esq. who, having very artfully procured it when it was on the point of being delivered up, buried it under an oak tree in Hartford, where it remained until all danger was over, and then was dug up and reassumed.

Connecticut has ever made rapid advances in population. There have been more emigrations from this than from any of the other states, and yet it is at present full of inhabitants. This increase, under the divine benediction, may be ascribed to several causes. The bulk of the inhabitants are industrious, sagacious husbandmen. Their farms furnish them with all the necessaries, most of the conveniences, and but few of the luxuries of life. They of course are generally temperate, and, if they choose, can subsist with as much independence as is consistent with happiness. The subsistence of the farmer is substantial, and does not depend on incidental circumstances, like that of most other professions. There is no necessity of serving an apprenticeship to the business, nor of a large stock of money to commence it to advantage. Farmers, who deal much in barter, have less need of money than any other class of people. The ease with which a comfortable subsistence is obtained, induces the husbandman to marry young. The cultivation of his farm makes him strong and healthful. He toils cheerfully through the day—eats the fruit of his own labour with a gladsome heart—at night devoutly thanks his bounteous God for his daily blessings—retires to rest, and his sleep is sweet. Such circumstances as these have greatly contributed to the amazing increase of inhabitants in this state.

Besides, the people live under a free government, and have no fear of a tyrant. There are no overgrown estates, with rich and ambitious landlords, to have an undue and pernicious influence in the election of civil officers. Property is equally enough divided, and must continue to be so as long as estates descend as they now do. No person is prohibited from voting, or from being elected into office, on account of his poverty. He who has the most merit, not he who has the most money, is generally chosen into public office. As instances of this, it is to be observed, that many of the citizens of Connecticut, from the humble walks of life, have arisen to the first offices in the state, and filled them with

with dignity and reputation. That base business of electioneering, which is so directly calculated to introduce wicked and designing men into office, is yet but little known in Connecticut. A man who wishes to be chosen into office, acts wisely for that end, when he keeps his desires to himself.

A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the state. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education, than in any of the states. Dr Franklin and other literary characters have honoured this state by saying, that it is the *Athens of America*.

The revolution, which so essentially affected the governments of most of the colonies, produced no very perceptible alteration in the government of Connecticut. While under the jurisdiction of Great Britain, they elected their own governors, and all subordinate civil officers, and made their own laws in the same manner and with as little controul as they now do. Connecticut has ever been a republic, and perhaps as perfect and as happy a republic as has ever existed. While other states, more monarchical in their government and manners, have been under a necessity of undertaking the difficult task of altering their old, or forming new constitutions, and of changing their monarchical for republican manners, Connecticut has uninterruptedly proceeded in her old track, both as to government and manners; and by these means has avoided those convulsions which have rent other states into violent parties.

CONNECTION, or CONNEXION, the relation or dependence of one thing upon another.

CONNECTION, or *Continuity*, in the drama, consists in the joining of the several scenes together.

The connection is said to be observed, when the scenes of an act succeed one another immediately, and are so joined as that the stage is never left empty.

CONNECTIVES, in *Grammar*, one of the four species under which, according to Mr Harris, all words may be included. They are of two kinds: and as they connect sentences or words, are called by the different names of *conjunctions* and *prepositions*. See GRAMMAR.

CONNIVENT VALVES, in *Anatomy*, those wrinkles, cellules, and vascules, which are found in the insides of the two intestines ilium and jejunum. See ANATOMY, N° 93. *et seq.*

CONNOISSEUR, a French term, of late used in English: it literally denotes a person well versed in any thing; being formed of the verb *connoître*, "to know, understand." Hence it comes to be used in our language for a critic, or person who is a thorough judge or master in any way, particularly in matters of painting and sculpture.

CONNOR, BERNARD, a learned physician, was born in the county of Kerry, in Ireland, about the year 1666. Having determined to apply himself to the study of physic, he went to France, and resided some time in the university of Montpelier. Afterwards he went to Paris; where he obtained great skill in medicine, anatomy, and chemistry. From thence he travelled to Venice, with the two sons of the high-chancellor of Poland; and then taking a tour through great part of Germany, went to Warsaw, where he was made physician to King John Sobieski. In 1695, he came to England, read a course of lectures in London and Oxford, and became member of the Royal Society and College of Physicians; afterwards, being invited to Cambridge, he read public lectures there, and made various experiments in chemistry. He has rendered himself memorable for a philosophical and medical treatise in Latin, entitled *Evangelium Medici*, i. e. "the Physician's Gospel;" tending to explain the miracles performed by Christ as natural events, upon the principles of natural philosophy. He wrote also a history of Poland; and died in 1698, aged 32.

CONNOR, a city of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, and province of Ulster. W. Long. 6. 30. N. Lat. 54. 50.

CONOCARPUS, BUTTON-WOOD. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONOID, in *Geometry*, a solid body, generated by the revolution of a conic section about its axis. See *CONIC Sections*.

CONOIDES, in *Anatomy*, a gland found in the third ventricle of the brain, called *pinealis*, from its resemblance to a pine apple. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CONON, the renowned Athenian general and admiral, flourished 394 years before Christ. See ATTICA, N° 162, 163. After his defeat by Lysander, he fled to Evagoras king of Cyprus; after which he put himself under the protection of Artaxerxes king of Persia; with whose army he delivered Athens from the oppression of strangers, and rebuilt its walls. In the 360th year of Rome, he beat the Lacedæmonians in a sea-fight near Cnidus upon the coast of Asia, deprived them of the sovereign rule they had on sea ever since the taking of Athens, and had some other considerable advantage over them: but falling into the hands of Teribazus a Persian, who envied his glory, he was put to death.

CONOPS, in *Zoology*; a genus of insects belonging to the order diptera. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

CONOVIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Ordovices, in Britain. From its ruins arose, at the distance of four miles, *Aberconwey*, the mouth of the Conwey, in Caernarvonshire; and on the spot where *Conovium* stood is an hamlet, called *Caerhean*, the old town (Camden).

CONQUEST, in civil jurisprudence, is the acquisition of property in common by a number of persons.

In some countries they confound acquisition with conquest; but, according to the most general acceptation, acquisition is the gaining of unappropriated goods before the establishment of a community: whereas by the term *conquest*, is ordinarily intended whatever is acquired by a number of persons in community; or by some one for all the others. As it is more especially in the union of persons by marriage that a community of property takes place; so it is in reference to them that we frequently use the word *conquest*. There are nevertheless conquests also among other persons who are in a tacit community or society; such as obtain by particular local customs. According to this sense of the word, it has been contended by several, that William I. claimed this kingdom; that

Conquest, Conrad.

is, not by right of arms, but by right of conquest or acquest; under promise of succession made by Edward the Confessor, and a contract entered into by Harold to support his pretensions to that succession; and by old writers, *conquestus*, *acquisitio*, and *perquisitio*, are frequently used as synonymous terms.

CONQUEST, in the law of nations, is the acquisition of sovereignty by force of arms, by some foreign prince; who reduces the vanquished under his empire. The right of conquest is derived from the laws of war; and when a people is subjected, the conduct of the conqueror is regulated by four kinds of law. First, the law of nature, which dictates whatever tends to self-preservation; secondly, our reason, which teaches us to use others as we would be treated ourselves; thirdly, the laws of political society, to which nature has not assigned any precise boundary; lastly, the law which is derived from the particular circumstances attending the conquest. Thus, a state conquered by another will be treated in one of the four methods following: Either the conqueror will continue it under its own laws, and will only claim the exercise of civil and ecclesiastical sovereignty; or he will impose a new form of government; or he will destroy the frame of their society, and incorporate the inhabitants with others; or he will exterminate them.

CONRAD II. elected emperor of Germany in 1004. He was obliged to take the field against most of the German dukes who had revolted from him; and he put Ernest duke of Suabia under the ban of the empire. This being one of the earliest instances of such a proscription, the formula is inserted here for its singularity. "We declare thy wife a widow, thy children orphans; and we send thee, in the name of the devil, to the four corners of the world." It was in the reign of this prince that the German fiefs became hereditary. He died in 1039.

CONRAD III. emperor of Germany in 1138. The duke of Bavaria opposed his election; and being put under the ban of the empire, and deprived of his duchy, he could not survive his disgrace. The margrave of Austria was ordered by the emperor to take possession of Bavaria; but Welst, uncle to the deceased duke attacked him, and was defeated near the castle of Winsburgh; the battle fought upon this occasion is famous in history, as having given rise to the party names of *Guelphs* and *Gibbelines*, afterwards assumed in Italy. The parole of the day with the Bavarians was *Welsti*, from the name of their general; that of the Imperialists *Werblingen* from a small village where Frederic duke of Suabia, their commander, had been nursed: by degrees these names served to distinguish the two parties; and the Italians, who could not accustom themselves to such rough words, formed from them their Guelphs and Gibbelines. He died in 1152.

CONRAD of Lichtenau, or Abbas Uspergensis, was author of an Universal Chronology from the creation to 1229, continued by an anonymous writer to Cha. V. He collected a fine library, and died about the year 1240.

Conrad || Consanguinity.

CONRADIN, or CONRAD junior, son of Conrad IV. was acknowledged emperor by the Gibbelines, who received him in triumph at Rome: but Pope Alexander IV. had published a crusade against this orphan; and Urban VII. his successor, gave the empire to Charles of Anjou, brother to Louis IX. king of France; and the unfortunate youth, though powerfully supported even by the Turks, lost a battle, in which he was taken prisoner, and was beheaded, by order of his base opponent, publicly at Naples in 1229, in the 18th year of his age. In him ended the race of the dukes of Suabia, which had produced several kings and emperors.

CONSANGUINITY, or KINDRED, is defined by the writers on these subjects to be, *vinculum personarum ab eodem stipite descendentium;* "the connexion or relation of persons descended from the same stock or common ancestor." This consanguinity is either lineal or collateral.

Lineal consanguinity is that which subsists between persons of whom one is descended in a direct line from the other; as between John Stiles (the *propositus* in the table of consanguinity) and his father, grandfather, great grandfather, and so upwards in the direct ascending line; or between John Stiles and his son, grandson, great grandson, and so downwards in the direct descending line. Every generation in this direct lineal consanguinity, constitutes a different degree, reckoning either upwards or downwards: the father of John Stiles is related to him in the first degree, and so likewise is his son; his grandsire and grandson, in the second; his great grandsire and great-grandson in the third. This is the only natural way of reckoning the degrees in the direct line; and therefore universally obtains, as well in the civil and canon, as in the common law.

The doctrine of lineal consanguinity is sufficiently plain and obvious; but it is, at the first view, astonishing to consider the number of lineal ancestors which every man has, within no very great number of degrees: and so many different bloods is a man said to contain in his veins, as he hath lineal ancestors. Of these he hath two in the first ascending degree; his own parents: he hath four in the second; the parents of his father and the parents of his mother: he hath eight in the third, the parents of his two grandfathers, and of his two grandmothers; and by the same rule of progression, he hath 128 in the seventh; 1024 in the tenth; and at the 20th degree, or at the distance of 20 generations, every man hath above a million of ancestors, as common arithmetic will demonstrate (A). This lineal consanguinity, we may observe, falls strictly within the definition of *vinculum personarum ab eodem stipite descendentium;* since lineal relations are such as descend one from the other, and both of course from the same common ancestors.

Collateral kindred answers to the same description: collateral

(A This will seem surprising to those who are unacquainted with the increasing power of progressive numbers; but it is palpably evident from the following table of a geometrical progression, in which the first term is 2, and the denominator also 2; or, to speak more intelligibly, it is evident, for that each of us has two ancestors

Confanguinity.

collateral relations agreeing with the lineal in this, that they defcend from the fame ftock or anceftor; but differing in this, that they do not defcend the one from the other. Collateral kinfmen, then, are fuch as lineally fpring from one and the fame anceftor, who is the *ftirpe*, or "root," the *ftipes*, "trunk," or common ftock, from whence thefe relations are branched out. As if John Stiles hath two fons, who have each a numerous iffue; both thefe iffues are lineally defcended from John Stiles as their common anceftor, and they are collateral kinfmen to each other, becaufe they are all defcended from this common anceftor, and all have a portion of his blood in their veins, which denominates them *confanguineous*.

We muft be careful to remember, that the very being of collateral confanguinity confifts in this defcent from one and the fame common anceftor. Thus Titius and his brother are related; why? becaufe both are derived from one father: Titius and his firft coufin are related; why? becaufe both defcend from the fame grandfather; and his fecond coufin's claim to confanguinity is this, that they are both derived from one and the fame great-grandfather. In fhort, as many anceftors as a man has, fo many common ftocks he has from which collateral kinfmen may be derived. And as we are taught by holy writ, that there is one couple of common anceftors belonging to us all, from whom the whole race of mankind is defcended, the obvious and undeniable confequence is, that all men are in fome degree related to one another. For, indeed, if we only fuppofe each couple of our anceftors to have left, one with another, two children; and each of thofe children to have left, on an average, two more (and without fuch a fuppofition the human fpecies muft be daily diminifhing); we fhall find that all of us have now fubfifting near 270 millions of kindred, in the 15th degree, at the fame diftance from the feveral common anceftors as we ourfelves are; befides thofe that are one or two degrees nearer to our father from the common ftock, who may amount to as many more (B). And if this calculation fhould appear incompatible with the number of inhabitants on the earth, it is becaufe, by intermarriages among the feveral defcendants from the fame anceftor, a hundred or a thoufand modes of confanguinity may be confolidated in one perfon; or he may be related to us a hundred or a thoufand different ways.

The method of computing thefe degrees in the canon law, which we have adopted, is as follows. We begin at the common anceftor, and reckon downwards; and in whatfoever degree the two perfons, or the moft remote of them, is diftant from the common anceftor, that is the degree in which they are related to each other. Thus, Titius and his brother are related in the firft degree; for from the father to each of them is counted only one; Titius and his nephew are related in the fecond degree; for the nephew is two degrees removed from the common anceftor, viz. his own grandfather, the father of Titius: or (to give a more illuftrious inftance from the Englifh annals) King

ceftors in the firft degree, the number of whom is doubled at every remove; becaufe each of our anceftors has alfo two immediate anceftors of his own.

1	2
2	4
3	8
4	16
5	32
6	64
7	128
8	256
9	512
10	1024
11	2048
12	4096
13	8192
14	16384
15	32768
16	65536
17	131072
18	262144
19	524288
20	1048576

A fhorter way of finding the number of anceftors at any given degree, is by fquaring the number of anceftors at half that number of degrees. Thus 16, the number of anceftors at 4 degrees, is the fquare of 4, the number of anceftors at 2; 256 is the fquare of 16; 65536 of 256; and the number of anceftors at 40 degrees would be the fquare of 1,048,576, or upwards of a million of millions.

(B) This will fwell more confiderably than the former calculation: for here, though the firft term is but 1, the denominator is 4; that is, there is *one* kinfman (a brother) in the firft degree, who makes, together with the *propofitus*, the two defcendants from the firft couple of anceftors; and in every other degree, the number of kindred muft be the *quadruple* of thofe in the degree which immediately precedes it. For fince each couple of anceftors

Conſanguinity.

King Henry VII. who ſlew Richard III. in the battle of Boſworth, was related to that prince in the fifth degree. Let the *propoſitus*, therefore, in the table of conſanguinity, repreſent King Richard III. and the claſs marked E, King Henry VII. Now their common ſtock or anceſtor was King Edward III. the *abavus* in the ſame table: from him to Edmund duke of York, the *proavus*, is one degree; to Richard earl of Cambridge, the *avus*, two; to Richard duke of York, the *pater*, three; to King Richard III. the *propoſitus*, four; and from King Edward III. to John of Gaunt (A) is one degree; to John earl of Somerſet (B) two; to John duke of Somerſet (C) three; to Margaret counteſs of Richmond (D) four; to King Henry VII. (E) five. Which laſt-mentioned prince, being the farthest removed from the common ſtock, gives the denomination to the degree of kindred in the canon and municipal law. Though according to the computation of the civilians (who count upwards from either of the perſons related, to the common ſtock, and then downwards again to the other; reckoning a degree for each perſon both aſcending and deſcending) theſe two princes were related in the ninth degree: for from King Richard III. to Richard duke of York is one degree; to Richard earl of Cambridge two; to Edmund duke of York three; to King Edward III. the common anceſtor, four; to John of Gaunt five; to John earl of Somerſet ſix; to John duke of Somerſet ſeven; to Margaret counteſs of Richmond eight; to King Henry VII. nine. See the Table of Conſanguinity (Plate CLXIV.), wherein all the degrees of collateral kindred to the *propoſitus* are computed, as far as the tenth of the civilians and the ſeventh of the canoniſts inclusive; the former being diſtinguiſhed by the numeral letters, the latter by the common ciphers.

Conſanguinity, Conſcience.

CONSANGUINITY and *Affinity*, degrees of, forbidden in marriage. See MARRIAGE and LAW *Index*.

CONSANGUINITY and *Affinity*, an objection againſt a judge or a witneſs. See LAW *Index*.

CONSCIENCE, a ſecret teſtimony of the ſoul, whereby it gives its approbation to things that are naturally good, and condemns thoſe that are evil. See MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

A man of integrity will never liſten to any reaſon, or give way to any meaſure, or be miſled by any inducement, againſt conſcience.—The inhabitants of a great town offered Marſhal de Turenne 100,000 crowns, upon condition he would take another road, and not march his troops their way. He anſwered them, "As your town is not in the road I intend to march, I cannot accept the money you offer me."—The earl of Derby, in the reign of Edward III. making a deſcent

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anceſtors has two deſcendants who increaſe in a duplicate ratio, it will follow, that the ratio in which all the deſcendants increaſe downwards, muſt be double to that in which the anceſtors increaſe upwards: but we have ſeen, that the anceſtors increaſe in a duplicate ratio: therefore, the deſcendants muſt increaſe in a double duplicate; that is, in quadruple ratio.

Collateral Degrees.	*Number of Kindred.*
1	1
2	4
3	16
4	64
5	256
6	1024
7	4096
8	16384
9	65536
10	262144
11	1048576
12	4194304
13	16777216
14	67108864
15	268435456
16	1073741824
17	4294967296
18	17179869184
19	68719476736
20	274877906944

This calculation may alſo be formed by a more compendious proceſs, viz. by ſquaring the couples, or half the number of anceſtors, at any given degree; which will furniſh us with the number of kindred we have in the ſame degree, at equal diſtance with ourſelves from the common ſtock, beſides thoſe at unequal diſtances. Thus in the tenth lineal degree, the number of anceſtors is 1024; its half, or the couples, amounts to 512; the number of kindred in the tenth collateral degree amounts therefore to 262144, or the ſquare of 512. And, if we will be at the trouble to recollect the ſtate of the ſeveral families within our own knowledge, and obſerve how far they agree with this account; that is, whether, on an average, every man has not one brother or ſiſter, four firſt-couſins, ſixteen ſecond couſins, and ſo on, we ſhall find, that the preſent calculation is very far from being overcharged.

ſcent in Guienne, carried by ſtorm the town of Bergerac, and gave it up to be plundered. A Welch knight happened by chance to light upon the receiver's office. He found there ſuch a quantity of money that he thought himſelf obliged to acquaint his general with it, imagining that ſo great a booty naturally belonged to him. But he was agreeably ſurpriſed when the earl told him, with a pleaſant countenance, that he wiſhed him joy of his good fortune; and that he did not make the keeping of his word to depend upon the great or little value of the thing he had promiſed.—In the ſiege of Faliſci by Camillus general of the Romans, the ſchoolmaſter of the town, who had the children of the ſenators under his care, led them abroad under the pretext of recreation, and carried them to the Roman camp, ſaying to Camillus, that by this artifice he had delivered Faliſci into his hands. Camillus, abhorring this treachery, obſerved, "That there were laws for war as well as for peace; and that the Romans were taught to make war with integrity not leſs than with courage." He ordered the ſchoolmaſter to be ſtripped, his hands to be bound behind his back, and to be delivered to the boys to be laſhed back into the town. The Falerians, formerly obſtinate in reſiſtance, ſtruck with an act of juſtice ſo illuſtrious, delivered themſelves up to the Romans; convinced that they would be far better to have the Romans for their allies than their enemies.

It is a ſaying, That no man ever offended his own conſcience, but firſt or laſt it was revenged upon him. The power of conſcience indeed has been remarked in all ages, and the examples of it upon record are innumerable. The following is related by Mr Fordyce, in his *Dialogues on Education**, as a real occurrence which happened in a neighbouring ſtate not many years ago. A jeweller, a man of good character and conſiderable wealth, having occaſion in the way of his buſineſs to travel at ſome diſtance from the place of his abode, took along with him a ſervant, in order to take care of his portmanteau. He had with him ſome of his beſt jewels, and a large ſum of money, to which his ſervant was likewiſe privy. The maſter having occaſion to diſmount on the road, the ſervant watching his opportunity, took a piſtol from his maſter's ſaddle and ſhot him dead on the ſpot; then rifled him of his jewels and money, and hanging a large ſtone to his neck, he threw him into the neareſt canal. With this booty he made off to a diſtant part of the country, where he had reaſon to believe that neither he nor his maſter was known. There he began to trade in a very low way at firſt, that his obſcurity might ſcreen him from obſervation, and in the courſe of a good many years ſeemed to riſe, by the natural progreſs of buſineſs, into wealth and conſideration; ſo that his good fortune appeared at once the effect and reward of induſtry and virtue. Of theſe he counterfeited the appearance ſo well, that he grew into great credit, married into a good family, and by laying out his hidden ſtores diſcreetly, as he ſaw occaſion, and joining to all an univerſal affability, he was admitted to a ſhare of the government of the town, and roſe from one poſt to another, till at length he was choſen chief magiſtrate. In this office he maintained a fair character, and continued to fill it with no ſmall applauſe, both as a governor and a judge; till one day as he ſat on the bench with ſome of his brethren, a criminal was brought before him who was accuſed of murdering his maſter. The evidence came out full, the jury brought in their verdict that the priſoner was guilty, and the whole aſſembly waited the ſentence of the preſident of the court (which he happened to be that day) with great ſuſpenſe. Meanwhile he appeared to be in unuſual diſorder and agitation of mind, and his colour changed often; at length he aroſe from his ſeat, and coming down from the bench, placed himſelf juſt by the unfortunate man at the bar. "You ſee before you (ſaid he, addreſſing himſelf to thoſe who had ſat on the bench with him), a ſtriking inſtance of the juſt rewards of heaven, which this day, after 30 years concealment, preſents to you a greater criminal than the man juſt now found guilty." Then he made an ample confeſſion of his guilt, and of all its aggravations. "Nor can I feel, (continued he) any relief from the agonies of an awakened conſcience, but by requiring that juſtice be forthwith done againſt me in the moſt public and ſolemn manner." We may eaſily ſuppoſe the amazement of all the aſſembly, and eſpecially of his fellow-judges. However, they proceeded, upon this confeſſion, to paſs ſentence upon him, and he died with all the ſymptoms of a penitent mind.

* Vol. ii. p. 401.

Courts of CONSCIENCE, are courts for recovery of ſmall debts, conſtituted by act of parliament in London, Weſtminſter, &c. and other populous and trading diſtricts.

CONSCIOUSNESS. Metaphyſicians, in lieu of the word *conſcience*, which ſeems appropriated to theological or moral matters, ordinarily uſe that of *conſciouſneſs*; whereby they mean an inner ſentiment of a thing, whereof one may have a clear and diſtinct notion. In this ſenſe they ſay that we do not know our own ſoul, nor are aſſured of the exiſtence of our own thoughts, otherwiſe than by ſelf-conſciouſneſs. See METAPHYSICS.

CONSCRIPT, in Roman antiquity, an appellation given to the ſenators of Rome, who were called *conſcript fathers*, on account of their names being all entered in one regiſter.

CONSECRATION, the act of devoting any thing to the ſervice and worſhip of God. The Moſaical law ordained, that all the firſt-born, both of man and beaſt, ſhould be ſanctified or conſecrated to God. We find alſo that Joſhua conſecrated the Gibeonites, as Solomon and David did the Nethinims, to the ſervice of the temple; and that the Hebrews ſometimes conſecrated their fields and cattle to the Lord, after which they were no longer in their power.

Among the ancient Chriſtians, the conſecration of churches was performed with a great deal of pious ſolemnity. In what manner it was done for the three firſt ages, is uncertain; the authentic accounts reaching no higher than the fourth, when, in the peaceable reign of Conſtantine, churches were everywhere built, and dedicated with great ſolemnity. Some think the conſecration conſiſted in ſetting up the ſign of the croſs, or in placing a communion table in the church; and others, that no more was done than preaching a panegyrical ſermon in commemoration of the founder, and that then they proceeded to prayers, one of which was compoſed on purpoſe for the church to be conſecrated.

crated. The Romanists have a great deal of pious foppery in the ceremonies of consecration; which they bestow on almost every thing, bells, candles, books, water, oil, ashes, palms, swords, banners, pictures, crosses, agnus dei's, roses, children's clouts, &c.

In England, churches have been always consecrated with particular ceremonies, the form of which was left to the discretion of the bishop. That observed by Bishop Laud, in consecrating St Catherine Creed church, in London, gave great offence.

CONSECRATION, is particularly used for the benediction of the elements in the eucharist.

CONSECRATION, among medalists, is the ceremony of the apotheosis of an emperor, or his translation into heaven and reception among the gods. On medals the consecration is thus represented: on one side is the emperor's head, crowned with laurel, sometimes veiled; and the inscription gives him the title of *divus*: on the reverse is a temple, a bustum, an altar, or an eagle taking its flight towards heaven, either from off the altar, or from a cippus: at other times the emperor is seen in the air, borne up by the eagle; the inscription always, *consecratio*. These are the usual symbols: yet on the reverse of that of Antoninus is the Antonine column. In the apotheosis of empresses, instead of an eagle there is a peacock. As to the honours rendered these princes after death, they were explained by the words *consecratio*, *pater*, *divus*, and *deus*. Sometimes around the temple or altar are put, *memoria felix*, or *memoriæ æternæ*: for princesses, *æternitas* and *sideribus recepta*: on the one side of the head, *dea*, or Θεα.

CONSENT, in a general sense, denotes much the same with ASSENT.

CONSENT of Parts, in the animal economy, an agreement or sympathy, whereby when one part is immediately affected, another at a distance becomes affected in the same manner.

This mutual accord or consent is supposed to be effected by the commerce of the nerves, and their artful distribution and ramification throughout the body. The effect is so sensible as even to come under the physician's cognizance: thus, the stone in the bladder, by vellicating the fibres there, will pain and draw them so much into spasms, as to affect the coats of the bowels, in the same manner, by the intermediation of nervous threads, and make a colic there; and also extend their twitches sometimes as far as the stomach, and occasion grievous vomitings; the remedy, therefore, in such cases, is to regard the part originally affected, how remote and grievous soever may be the consequences and symptoms in other places.

The fifth conjugation of nerves branched to the parts of the eye, the ear, those of the mouth, cheeks, præcordia, and parts adjacent, &c. is supposed by naturalists to be the instrument of that particular and extraordinary consent between those parts. Hence it is, that a savoury thing seen or smelled excites the appetite, and affects the glands and parts of the mouth; that a shameful thing seen or heard affects the cheeks with blushes: on the contrary, if it pleases, it affects the præcordia, and excites the muscles of the mouth and face to laughter; if it grieve, it affects the glands of the eyes, so as to occasion tears, and the muscles of the face, putting them into an aspect of crying. Dr Willis, quoted by Mr Derham, imputes the pleasure of kissing, and its effects, to this pair of nerves; which being branched both to the lips and the genital parts, when the former are affected an irritation is occasioned in the latter. See SYMPATHY.

CONSENTES, the name which the Romans gave to the 12 superior gods, the *Dii majorum gentium*. The word signifies as much as *consentientes*; that is, who consented to the deliberations of Jupiter's council. They were twelve in number, whose names Ennius has briefly expressed in these lines,

Juno, Vesta, Minerva, Ceres, Diana, Venus, Mars, Mercurius, Jovi, Neptunus, Vulcanus, Apollo.

CONSEQUENCE, in *Logic*, the conclusion or what results from reason or argument. See CONCLUSION.

The consequence is that other proposition in which the extremes or premises of a syllogism are joined, or separated; and is gained from what was asserted in the premises.

This word, in a more restrained sense, is used for the relation or connection between two propositions, whereof one is inferred from the other.

CONSEQUENT, something deduced or gathered from a former argumentation. But, in a more precise sense, it is used for the proposition which contains the conclusion, considered in itself, without any regard to the antecedent: in which sense the consequent may be true, though the consequence be false. See the preceding article.

CONSERVATOR, an officer ordained for the security and preservation of the privileges of some cities and communities, having a commission to judge of and determine the differences among them.

In most catholic universities there are two conservators; the conservator of royal privileges, or those granted by kings; and the conservator of apostolical privileges, or those granted by the pope. The first takes cognizance of personal and mixed causes between the regents, students, &c. and the latter of spiritual matters between ecclesiastics.

Anciently there were appointed conservators of treaties of peace between princes; which conservators became judges of the infractions made on a treaty, and were charged with procuring satisfaction to be made. These were usually the feudatories of the several powers. In lieu of conservators, princes now have recourse to other indifferent princes to guarantee their treaties.

CONSERVATOR of Scots Privileges, at Campvere, was an officer belonging to the royal boroughs of Scotland, who took care of the mercantile affairs of Scotland, agreeable to the staple contract between them and the States-General.

CONSERVATOR of the Peace, in the ancient English customs, was a person who had an especial charge, by virtue of his office, to see the king's peace kept. Till the erection of justices of the peace by King Edward III. there were several persons who by common law were interested in keeping the same: some having that charge as incident to other offices; and others simply, or of itself, called *custodes*, or *conservators of the peace*. The chamberlain of Chester is still a conservator

Conservator || Consistentes.

servator in that county; and petty constables are, by the common law, conservators, &c. in the first sense, within their own jurisdiction: so are also the coroner and the sheriff within their own county. The king is the principal conservator of the peace within all his dominions: the lord chancellor, lord treasurer, lord high steward, lord marshal, lord high constable, all the justices of the court of king's bench, by their office, and the master of the rolls, by prescription, are general conservators of the peace through the whole kingdom, and may commit breakers of the peace, and bind them in recognisances to keep it.

CONSERVATOR of the Truce, and Safe Conducts, was an officer appointed in every sea port, under the king's letters patent. His charge was to inquire of all offences committed against the king's truce, and safe conducts upon the main sea, out of the franchises of the cinque-ports, as the admirals were wont to do, and such other things as are declared anno 3 Hen. V. cap. 6.

CONSERVATORIOS, are musical schools established for the instruction of children in the profession of music. There are four of these at Venice, designed for the education of girls, and three at Naples, for the education of boys. It has been suggested that the operation of castration was performed in the conservatorios; but the practice is absolutely prohibited; and the young castrati are brought from Lucia in Puglia: but before that operation is performed, their voices are tried in a conservatorio. The scholars of the Venetian conservatorios have been chiefly celebrated for taste and neatness of execution; and those of Naples have had the reputation of being the first *contrapuntists*, or composers, in Europe.

CONSERVATORY, a term sometimes used for a green-house or ice-house.

CONSERVE, in *Pharmacy*, a form of medicine contrived to preserve the flowers, herbs, roots, or fruits of several simples, as near as possible, to what they are when fresh gathered. See PHARMACY.

CONSIGNMENT, in *Law*, the depositing any sum of money, bills, papers, or commodities, in good hands; either by appointment of a court of justice, in order to be delivered to the persons to whom they are adjudged; or voluntarily, in order to their being remitted to the persons they belong to, or sent to the places they are designed for.

CONSIGNMENT of Goods, in *Commerce*, is the delivering or making them over to another; thus, goods are said to be consigned to a factor, when they are sent to him to be sold, &c.; or when a factor sends back goods to his principal, they are said to be consigned to him.

CONSISTENCE, in *Physics*, that state of a body wherein its component particles are so connected or entangled among themselves, as not to separate or recede from each other. It differs from continuity in this, that it implies a regard to motion or rest, which continuity does not, it being sufficient to denominate a thing continuous that its parts are contiguous to each other.

CONSISTENTES, in church-history, a kind of penitents who were allowed to assist at prayers, but who could not be admitted to receive the sacrament.

Consistory.

CONSISTORY (*Consistorium*), signifies as much as *prætorium*, a tribunal: it is commonly used for a council-house of ecclesiastical persons, or place of justice in the spiritual court; a session or assembly of prelates. And every archbishop and bishop of every diocese hath a consistory court held before his chancellor or commissary in his cathedral church, or other convenient place of his diocese, for ecclesiastical causes. The bishop's chancellor is the judge of this court, supposed to be skilled in the civil and canon law; and in places of the diocese far remote from the bishop's consistory, the bishop appoints a commissary to judge in all causes within a certain district, and a register to enter his decrees, &c.

CONSISTORY, at Rome, denotes the college of cardinals, or the pope's senate and council, before whom judiciary causes are pleaded. Du Cange derives the word from *consistorium*; i. e. *locus ubi consistitur*; used chiefly for a vestibule, gallery, or anti-chamber, where the courtiers wait for admission: and so called *à consistente multitudine*.

The consistory is the first court, or tribunal of Rome: it never meets but when the pope pleases to convoke it: the pope presides in it in person, mounted on a magnificent throne, and habited in his *pontificalia*; on the right are the cardinal-bishops and priests, and on the left the cardinal-deacons. The place where it is held, is a large hall in the apostolical palace, where princes and ambassadors of kings are received. The other prelates, prothonotaries, auditors of the rota, and other officers, are seated on the steps of the throne: the courtiers sit on the ground; ambassadors on the right, and consistorial and fiscal advocates behind the cardinals.

Besides the public consistory, there is also a private one, held in a retired chamber, called the *chamber of papegay*; the pope's throne here being only raised two steps high. Nobody is here admitted but the cardinals, whose opinions are collected, and called *sentences*. Here are first proposed and passed all bulls for bishopricks, abbeys, &c. Hence bishopricks and abbeys are said to be consistorial benefices; in regard they must be proposed in the consistory, the annates be paid to the pope, and his bulls taken. Anciently they were elective; but by the concordat, which abolishes elections, they are appointed to be collated by the pope alone, on the nomination of the prince.

CONSISTORY was also the name of a court under Constantine, where he sat in person, and heard causes: the members of this court were called *comites*.

CONSISTORY is also used among the reformed, for a council or assembly of ministers and elders, to regulate their affairs, discipline, &c.

CONSISTORY, or *Court Christian*, in the English laws, is a council of ecclesiastical persons, or the place of justice in an ecclesiastical or spiritual court. Every archbishop and bishop has a consistory court, held before his chancellor or commissary, either in his cathedral, in some chapel, aisle, or portico, belonging thereto; or in some other convenient place of his diocese, for ecclesiastical causes. The spiritual court was anciently, in the time of the Saxons, joined with the county or hundred court; and the original of the consistory court, as divided from those courts, is found in a law of the conqueror,

conqueror, quoted by Lord Coke. From this court there lies an appeal to the archbishop of each province respectively.

CONSOLATION, one of the places in rhetoric, wherein the orator endeavours to abate and moderate the grief or concern of another.

CONSOLE, in *Architecture*, an ornament cut upon the key of an arch, which has a projecture, and on occasion serves to support little corniches, figures, busts, and vases.

CONSOLIDATION, in *Law*, the combining and uniting two benefices into one. The term is borrowed from the civil law; where it properly signifies an union of the possession, or occupation, with the property. Thus, if a man have by legacy *usum fructum fundi*, and afterwards buy the property, or fee-simple, of the heir; this is called a consolidation.

CONSOLIDATION, in *Medicine*, the action of uniting broken bones, or the lips of wounds, by means of *consolidating remedies*, as they are called; which cleansing with a moderate heat and force, taking corruption out of the wounds, and preserving the temperature of the parts, cause the nourishment to be fitly applied to the part affected.

Among the many instances of the consolidating power of blood and raw flesh, we have a very remarkable one in Bartholine's Medical Observations. A man being condemned to have his nose cut off by the hand of the common executioner, the friends, who were to be present, provided a new loaf of warm bread, which was cut in the middle, and the nose received in it as it fell from the face: the nose was after this nicely placed on the face again; and being sewed on, the whole in time consolidated, and left no other marks of the ignominy than the scar round the whole nose, and the traces of the stitches.

CONSONANCE, in *Music*. See INTERVAL.

CONSONANT, a letter that cannot be sounded without some single or double vowel before or after it; as *b*, *c*, *d*, &c.

CONSORT, *Queen* CONSORT. See QUEEN.

CONSPIRACY, in *Law*, signifies an agreement between two or more, falsely to indict, or procure to be indicted, an innocent person, of felony.

CONSPIRATORS are, by statute, defined to be such as bind themselves by oath, covenant, or other alliance, to assist one another falsely and maliciously to indict persons, or falsely to maintain pleas.

Conspirators in treason, are those that plot against the king and the government.

CONSTABLE, according to some, is a Saxon word, compounded of *coning*, "king," and *staple* which signifies the "stay or support of the king." But as we borrowed the name as well as the office of *Constable* from the French, Sir William Blackstone is rather inclined to deduce it, with Sir Henry Spelman and Dr Cowel, from that language; wherein it is plainly derived from the Latin *comes stabuli*, an officer well known in the empire; so called, because, like the great constable of France, as well as the lord high constable of England, he was to regulate all matters of chivalry, tilts, tournaments, and feats of arms, which were performed on horseback.—The

Lord High CONSTABLE *of England* is the seventh great officer of the crown; and he, with the earl marshal of England, were formerly judges of the court of chivalry, called in King Henry IV.'s time *Curia Militaris*, and now the court of honour. It is the fountain of the martial law, and anciently was held in the king's hall. The power of the lord high constable was formerly so great, and of which so improper a use was made, that so early as the 13th of King Richard II. a statute passed for regulating and abridging the same, together with the power of the earl marshal of England; and by this statute, no plea could be tried by them or their courts, that could be tried by the common law of the realm. The office of constable existed before the conquest. After the conquest, the office went with inheritance, and by the tenure of the manors of Harlefield, Newman, and Whitenhurst, in Gloucestershire, by grand serjeanty in the family of the Bohuns earl of Hereford and Essex, and afterwards in the line of Stafford as heirs-general to them; but in 1521, this great office became forfeited to the king in the person of Edward Stafford duke of Buckingham, who was that year attainted for high treason; and in consideration of its extensive power, dignity, and large authority, both in time of war and peace, it has never been granted to any person, otherwise than *hac vice*, and that to attend at a coronation, or trial by combat. In France, the same office was also suppressed about a century after by an edict of Louis XIII.; though it has been exercised, in the command of the MARSHALS, by the first officer in the army.

Lord high constable of Scotland was an office of great antiquity and dignity. The first upon record is Hugo de Morvelle in the reign of David I. He had two grand prerogatives, viz. First, The keeping of the king's sword, which the king, at his promotion, when he swears fealty, delivers to him naked. Hence the badge of the constable is a naked sword.—Second, The absolute and unlimited command of the king's armies while in the field, in the absence of the king; but this command does not extend to castles and garrisons. He was likewise judge of all crimes committed within two leagues of the king's house, which precinct was called the *Chalmer of Peace*: though his jurisdiction came at last to be exercised only as to crimes during the time of parliament, which some extended likewise to all general conventions. This office was conferred heritably upon the noble family of Errol, by King Robert Bruce; and with them it still remains, being expressly reserved by the treaty of union.

Inferior CONSTABLES. From the great office of high constable is derived that inferior order, since called the *constables of hundreds and franchises*; these were first ordained in the 13th year of Edward I. by the statute of Winchester; which, for the conservation of the peace, and view of armour, appointed that two constables should be chosen in every hundred and franchise. These are what we now call *constabularii capitales*, or *high constables*; because continuance of time, and increase of people, &c. have occasioned others of like nature, but inferior authority, in every town, called *petty constables*, or *sub-constabularii*, first instituted about the reign of Edward III.

The former, or modern *high constables*, are appointed at the court-leets of the franchise or hundred over which they preside; or, in default of that, by the justices at their quarter-sessions; and are removeable by

by the ſame authority that appoints them. The *petty conſtables* have two offices united in them, the one ancient, and the other modern. Their ancient office is that of head borough, tithing-man, or borſholder; which is as ancient as the time of King Alfred: their more modern office is that of conſtable merely; which was appointed ſo lately as the reign of Edward III. in order to aſſiſt the high conſtable. And in general the ancient head-boroughs, tithing-men, and borſholders, were made uſe of to ſerve as petty conſtables, though not ſo generally, but that in many places they ſtill continue diſtinct officers from the conſtables. They are all choſen by the jury at the court-leet; or, if no court-leet be held, are appointed by two juſtices of the peace.

The general duty of all conſtables, both high and petty, as well as of the other officers, is to keep the king's peace in their ſeveral diſtricts; and to that purpoſe they are armed with very large powers of arreſting and impriſoning, of breaking open houſes, and the like: of the extent of which powers, conſidering what manner of men are for the moſt part upon theſe offices, it is perhaps very well that they are generally kept in ignorance. One of their principal duties ariſing from the ſtatute of Wincheſter, which appoints them, is to keep watch and ward in their reſpective juriſdictions. Ward, guard, or *cuſtodia*, is chiefly intended of the day-time, in order to apprehend rioters, and robbers on the highways; the manner of doing which is left to the diſcretion of the juſtices of the peace and the conſtable: the hundred being, however, liable, for all the robberies committed therein by day-light, for having kept negligent guard. Watch is properly applicable to the night only (being called among the Saxons *wach't* or *waeth*); and it begins when ward ends, and ends when that begins: for, by the ſtatute of Wincheſter, in walled towns the gates ſhall be cloſed from ſun-ſetting to ſun-riſing: and watch ſhall be kept in every borough and town, eſpecially in the ſummer ſeaſon, to apprehend all rogues, vagabonds, and night-walkers, and make them give an account of themſelves. The conſtable may appoint watchmen at his diſcretion, regulated by the cuſtom of the place; and theſe, being his deputies, have, for the time being, the authority of their principal.

There are alſo conſtables denominated from particular places, as conſtable of the Tower, of Dover caſtle, of Windſor caſtle, of the caſtle of Caernarvon and many other of the caſtles of Wales; whoſe office is the ſame with that of the caſtellani, or governors of caſtles.

CONSTABLES of London. The city of London is divided into 26 wards, and the wards into precincts, in each of which is a conſtable. They are nominated by the inhabitants of each precinct on St Thomas's day, and confirmed, or otherwiſe, at the court of wardmote. After confirmation, they are ſworn into their offices at a court of aldermen, on the next Monday after Twelfth day. Such as are choſen into the office, are obliged to place the king's arms, and the arms of the city, over their doors; and if they reſide in alleys, at the ends of ſuch alleys toward the ſtreets, to ſignify that a conſtable lives there, and that they may be the more eaſily found when wanted.

CONSTABLES to Juſtices of the Peace, in Scotland, are the proper officers for executing their orders. They have powers to ſuppreſs tumults, and to apprehend delinquents and thoſe who can give no good account of themſelves, and carry them to the next juſtice.

CONSTANCE, a ſtrong town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, with a biſhop's ſee, whoſe biſhop is a prince of the empire. It has a handſome bridge, and ſeveral fine ſtructures, as well ſacred as profane. It carries on a great trade, and is well fortified: and though it pretends to be an imperial town, the Auſtrians keep a garriſon here. It is famous for a council held here in 1514, when there were three popes; but they were all depoſed, and Martin V. was elected in their room. This council cauſed Jerome of Prague and John Huſs to be burnt, though the emperor Sigiſmund had given them a ſafe-conduct; in purſuance of this maxim, "that no faith is to be kept with heretics." They likewiſe condemned the doctrine of Wickliffe, and ordered his bones to be burned 40 years after he was dead. However, the inhabitants now are Proteſtants. It is ſeated on a lake of the ſame name. E. Long. 9. 10. N. Lat. 47. 38.

CONSTANCE, one of the moſt conſiderable and beautiful lakes of Switzerland, which ſeparates it from Suabia, except that part where the city of Conſtance is ſeated on its ſide. It is divided into three parts; the upper or largeſt part is called Boden ſee, the middle Bodmer ſee, and the lower part Zeller ſee. The firſt is 37 miles long, and its greateſt breadth 15 miles. It is deeper in ſummer than in winter.

CONSTANCY, in a general ſenſe, denotes immutability, or invariableneſs. In ethics, or when applied to the human mind, the term implies reſolution or ſteadineſs, particularly under ſufferings and the trials of adverſity.

It was the ſaying of a heathen philoſopher, That there cannot be imagined upon earth a ſpectacle more worthy the regard of the Creator intent on his works, than a brave man ſuperior to his ſufferings. Nothing indeed can be more noble or honourable than to have courage enough to execute the commands of reaſon and conſcience; to maintain the dignity of our nature, and the ſtation aſſigned us; and to be proof againſt poverty, pain, and death itſelf, ſo far as not to do any thing that is ſcandalous or ſinful to avoid them. To be thus, is to be great above title or fortune. This argues the ſoul of a heavenly extraction, and is worthy the offſpring of the Deity.

Of this virtue the following example, related in Engliſh hiſtory, is here ſelected, as ſuperior perhaps, all circumſtances conſidered, to any other upon record.

Sir William Aſkew of Kelſay, in Lincolnſhire, had ſeveral daughters. His ſecond, named *Anne*, had received a genteel education; which, with an agreeable figure and good underſtanding, rendered her a very proper perſon to be at the head of a family. Her father, regardleſs of his daughter's inclination and happineſs, obliged her to marry a gentleman who had nothing to recommend him but his fortune, and who was a moſt bigotted Papiſt. No ſooner was he convinced of his wife's regard for the doctrines of the reformation from popery, than, by the inſtigation of his priests,

Constancy. priests, he violently drove her from his house, though she had born him two children, and her conduct was unexceptionable. Abandoned by her husband, she came up to London, in order to procure a divorce, and to make herself known to that part of the court who either professed or were favourers of Protestantism; but as Henry VIII. with consent of parliament, had just enacted the law of the six articles, commonly called the *bloody statute*, she was cruelly betrayed by her own husband; and, upon his information, taken into custody, and examined concerning her faith. The act above mentioned denounced death against all those who should deny the doctrine of *transubstantiation*; or that the bread and wine made use of in the sacrament was not converted after consecration into the *real* body and blood of Christ; or, maintain the necessity of receiving the sacrament in both kinds; or affirm, that it was lawful for priests to marry; that the vows of celibacy might be broken; that private masses were of no avail; and that auricular confession to a priest was not necessary to salvation. Upon these articles she was examined by the inquisitor, a priest, the lord-mayor of London, and the bishop's chancellor; and to all their queries gave proper and pertinent answers; but not being such as they approved, she was sent back to prison, where she remained eleven days to ruminate alone on her alarming situation, and was denied the small consolation of a friendly visit. The king's council being at Greenwich, she was once more examined by Chancellor Wriothesley, Gardiner bishop of Winchester, Dr Cox, and Dr Robinson; but not being able to convince her of supposed errors, she was sent to the Tower. Mr Strype, from an authentic paper, gives us the following short account of her examination, which may not, perhaps, be unentertaining or useless to the reader: "Sir Martin Bowes (lord mayor) sitting with the council, as most meet for his wisdom, and seeing her stand upon life and death, I pray you, quoth he, my lords, give me leave to talk to this woman? Leave was granted. *Lord Mayor*. Thou foolish woman, sayest thou that the priest cannot make the holy body of Christ? *A. Askew*. I say so, my lord: for I have read that God made man; but that man made God I never read; nor I suppose ever shall read it. *Lord Mayor*. No! Thou foolish woman, after the words of consecration, is it not the Lord's body? *A. Askew*. No: it is but consecrated bread, or sacramental bread. *Lord Mayor*. What if a mouse eat it after consecration; what shall become of this mouse? what sayest thou, thou foolish woman? *A. Askew*. What shall become of her, say you, my lord? *Lord Mayor*. I say, that the mouse is damned. *A. Askew*. Alack, poor mouse!" Perceiving that some could not keep in their laughing, the council proceeded to the butchery and slaughter that they intended before they came there. It was strongly suspected that Mrs Askew was favoured by some ladies of high rank; and that she carried on a religious correspondence with the queen; so that the chancellor Wriothesley, hoping that he might discover something that would afford matter of impeachment against that princess, the earl of Hertford, or his countess, who all favoured reformation, ordered her to be put to the rack: but her fortitude in suffering, and her resolution not to betray her friends, was proof against that diabolical invention. Not a groan, not a word, could be extorted from her. The chancellor, provoked with what he called her obstinacy, augmented her tortures with his own hands, and with unheard-of violence: but her courage and constancy were invincible; and these barbarians gained nothing by their cruelties but everlasting disgrace and infamy. As soon as she was taken from the rack, she fainted away; but being recovered, she was condemned to the flames. Her bones were dislocated in such a manner, that they were forced to carry her in a chair to the place of execution. While she was at the stake, letters were brought her from the lord chancellor, offering her the king's pardon if she would recant. But she refused to look at them; telling the messenger, that "she came not thither to deny her Lord and Master," The same letters were also tendered to three other persons condemned to the same fate; and who, animated by her example, refused to accept them. Whereupon the lord-mayor commanded the fire to be kindled; and with savage ignorance cried out, *Fiat justitia*. "Let justice take its course." The faggots being lighted, she commended her soul, with the utmost composure, into the hands of her Maker; and, like the great founder of the religion she professed, expired, *praying for her murderers*, July 16. 1546, about the 25th year of her age.

CONSTANTIA, a district at the Cape of Good Hope, consisting of two farms, which produce the well-known wine so much prized in Europe, and known by the name of *Cape* or *Constantia* wine. This place is situated at the distance of a mile and a half from Alphen, in a bending formed by and nearly under the ridge of hills, which comes from Meuisen-mountain, and just where it strikes off towards Houtbay. One of these farms is called *Little Constantia*. Here the white Constantia wine is made. The other produces the red. According to M. de la Cail's account, not more than 60 siggars of red and 90 of the white Constantia wine are made, each siggar being reckoned at 600 French pints, or about 150 Swedish cans; so that the whole produce amounts to 22,500 cans. As the company are used to keep one-third of this for themselves, the remainder is always bespoke by the Europeans long before it is made. At the Cape this wine is seldom seen at table, partly because it is dear, and partly because it is the produce of the country. The red Constantia wine sells for about 60 rixdollars the half awin; but the white is usually to be purchased at a more reasonable rate. The genuine Constantia wine is undeniably a very racy and delicate dessert wine, and has something peculiarly agreeable in the flavour of it. That its superiority, however, is not owing to any thing peculiar in the manner of procuring it, seems extremely probable; for then, without doubt, a great deal more of it would be made. In fact, Dr Sparmann informs us, that the genuine wine can only be produced from particular soils. The districts that lie next to these yield merely the common Cape wine, notwithstanding that they have been planted with vine stocks taken from this, as well as with some brought from the banks of the Rhine, whence it is supposed that the true Constantia sort originally comes; nay, even though all the vineyards about Constantia seem to have the same soil. We have instances at the Cape, as well as in

in Europe, that good grapes ſometimes produce a bad wine; while, on the other hand, bad grapes will yield a good ſort of wine: therefore, towards making wine of a certain quality, beſides finer materials, there muſt be certain conditions and circumſtances, which, by a diligent and rational inveſtigation, might probably be explored to the great benefit of mankind.

Such as are appriſed in what quantities Conſtantia wine is conſumed in Europe, will perhaps think the above calculation of the produce too limited. This, however, Dr Sparmann aſſures us, is by no means the caſe; the overplus being the produce of avarice, which, goaded on by the deſire of gain, will always hit upon ſome method of ſatisfying the demands of luxury and ſenſuality. The votaries of theſe, accuſtomed to be put off with empty ſounds, do not ſeldom drink with the higheſt reliſh an imaginary Conſtantia, with which, however, this liquor has nothing in common beſides the mere name. It is therefore adviſable, even at the Cape itſelf, to take care, that whilſt one has a genuine ſample given one to taſte, one is not made to pay for a made-up red Conſtantia, which otherwiſe is in general ſold for half the price. The rich quality of this wine is, according to Barrow, owing partly to the ſituation and ſoil, and partly to the care in the manufacture; for ripe fruit only is uſed, and always entirely freed from the ſtalks.

CONSTANTINA, a ſtrong and conſiderable town of Africa, in the kingdom of Algiers, and capital of a territory of the ſame name. It is the largeſt and ſtrongeſt place in all the eaſtern parts; and it is ſeated on the top of a great rock. There is no way to it but by ſteps cut out of the rock; and the uſual way of puniſhing criminals here is to throw them down the cliff. Here are a great many Roman antiquities, particularly a triumphal arch. E. Long. 7. 12. N. Lat. 37. 4.

CONSTANTINA, a town of Spain, in Andaluſia, and capital of a ſmall territory of the ſame name, with a caſtle ſeated on a mountain. W. Long. 5. 35. N. Lat. 37. 40.

CONSTANTINE, a kingdom of Barbary of that name, in Africa. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the ſouth by Bildulgerid, and on the weſt by the river Sufegmar, which ſeparates it from the kingdom of Bugia. The country is the New Numidia of the ancients, and had its own king; but it is now a province of Algiers.

CONSTANTINE the Great, the firſt emperor of the Romans who embraced Chriſtianity. His father, Conſtantius Chlorus, rendered himſelf famous by his victorious expeditions to Germany and Britain: upon the abdication of Dioclesian, he ſhared the Roman empire with Galerius Maximinus in 305, and was at that time at York, where he died in 306; having firſt cauſed his ſon Conſtantine the Great to be proclaimed emperor by his army, and the Engliſh. Galerius at firſt refuſed to admit Conſtantine to his father's ſhare in the imperial throne; but after having loſt ſeveral battles, he conſented in 308. Maxentius, who ſucceeded Galerius, oppoſed him: but was defeated, and drowned himſelf in the Tyber. The ſenate then declared Conſtantine chief or firſt Auguſtus, and Licinius his ſecond aſſociate in the empire, in 312. Theſe princes publiſhed an edict, in their joint names, in favour of the Chriſtians; but ſoon after Licinius, jealous of Conſtantine's renown, conceived an implacable hatred againſt him, and renewed the perſecutions againſt the Chriſtians. Thus brought on a rupture between the emperors, and a battle, in which Conſtantine was victorious. A ſhort peace enſued: but Licinius having ſhamefully violated the treaty, the war was renewed; when Conſtantine totally defeating him, he fled to Nicomedia, where he was taken priſoner and ſtrangled in 323. Conſtantine, now become ſole maſter of the weſtern and eaſtern empires, immediately formed the plan of eſtabliſhing Chriſtianity as the religion of the ſtate; for which purpoſe, he convoked ſeveral eccleſiaſtical councils: but finding he was likely to meet with great oppoſition from the Pagan intereſt at Rome, he conceived the deſign of founding a new city, to be the capital of his Chriſtian empire; ſee CONSTANTINOPLE. The glory Conſtantine had acquired by eſtabliſhing the Chriſtian religion, was tarniſhed by the part he took in the perſecutions carried on by the Arians, towards the cloſe of his reign, againſt their Chriſtian brethren who differed from them: ſeduced by Euſebius of Nicomedia, he baniſhed ſeveral eminent prelates; ſoon after which, he died in 337, the 66th year of his age, and 31ſt of his reign.

As to the character of Conſtantine, he was chaſte, pious, laborious, and indefatigable; a great general, ſucceſsful in war, and deſerving his ſucceſs by his ſhining valour and by the brightneſs of his genius; a protector of arts, and an encourager of them by his beneficence. If we compare him with Auguſtus, we ſhall find that he ruined idolatry, by the ſame precautions and the ſame addreſs that the other uſed to deſtroy liberty. Like Auguſtus, he laid the foundation of a new empire; but poſſeſſed of leſs political ſkill, he could not give it the ſame ſtability: he weakened the body of the ſtate by adding to it, in ſome meaſure, a ſecond head in the foundation of Conſtantinople; and tranſporting the centre of motion and ſtrength too near the eaſtern extremity, he left without heat, and almoſt without life, the weſtern parts, which ſoon became a prey to the barbarians. The Pagans were too much his enemies to do him juſtice. Eutropius ſays, that in the former part of his reign he was equal to the moſt accompliſhed princes, and in the latter to the meaneſt. The younger Victor, who makes him to have reigned more than 31 years, pretends, that in the firſt 10 years he was a hero; in the 12 ſucceeding ones a robber; and in the 10 laſt a ſpendthrift. It is eaſy to perceive, with reſpect to theſe two reproaches of Victor's, that the one relates to the riches which Conſtantine took from idolatry, and the other to thoſe with which he loaded the church.

CONSTANTINE, emperor of the Eaſt in 912, left the care of the empire to his wife Helena, who loaded the people with taxes, and ſold all the offices in church and ſtate to the higheſt bidders; while the emperor employed himſelf in reading, writing, and the fine arts, till he became as good an architect and painter as he was a bad prince: he wrote ſeveral biographical and geographical works, which would have done honour to his name, if he had not neglected his duty to compoſe them. He died in 959.

Constantine, Constantinople.

CONSTANTINE, *Dracoſes*, the ſon of Emmanuel Paleologus, was placed on the throne by Sultan Amurath in 1448. But Mahomet II. his ſucceſſor, reſolving to dethrone him, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople by ſea and land, and took it by aſſault in 1453, after it had held out 58 days. The unfortunate emperor ſeeing the Turks enter the breaches, threw himſelf into the midſt of the enemy, and was cut to pieces; the children of the imperial houſe were maſſacred by the ſoldiers; and the women reſerved to gratify the luſt of the conqueror; and thus terminated the dynaſty of the Conſtantines, 1123 years after its eſtabliſhment at Conſtantinople.

CONSTANTINE, *Robert*, a learned phyſician, born at Caen, taught polite literature in that city; and acquired great reputation by his ſkill in the Greek language, in hiſtory, and in medicine. He died in 1603 aged 103. He wrote a dictionary in Greek and Latin, and other works, which are eſteemed.

1 Removing the imperial ſeat to this city the cauſe of the decline of the weſtern empire.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the modern name of the city of BYZANTIUM in Thrace. It was enlarged and beautified by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, in the year 330. At the ſame time he transferred thither the ſeat of the empire; and this removal is generally thought to have been one of the principal cauſes of the ſudden decline of the weſtern empire after this period.

2 Conſtantine defeats the Goths,

In the year 332, the Sarmatians implored Conſtantine's aſſiſtance againſt the Goths, who had made an irruption into their territories, and deſtroyed every thing with fire and ſword. The emperor readily granted their requeſt, and gained a complete victory. Near 100,000 of the enemy periſhed, either in the battle, or after it with hunger and cold. In conſequence of this overthrow, the Goths were obliged to ſue for peace; but the ungrateful Sarmatians no ſooner found themſelves delivered from their enemies, than they turned their arms againſt their benefactor, and ravaged the provinces of Mæſia and Thrace. The emperor, receiving intelligence of this treachery, returned with incredible expedition, cut great numbers of them in pieces, and obliged the reſt to ſubmit to what terms he was pleaſed to impoſe.

3 and the Sarmatians.

4 Is highly reſpected.

Conſtantine ſeems to have been a prince very highly reſpected, even by far diſtant nations. In 333, according to Euſebius, ambaſſadors arrived at Conſtantinople from the Blemyes, Indians, Ethiopians, and Perſians, courting his friendſhip. They were received in a moſt obliging manner; and learning from the ambaſſadors of Sapor king of Perſia, that there were great numbers of Chriſtians in their maſter's dominions, Conſtantine wrote a letter in their behalf to the Perſian monarch.

Next year, the Sarmatians being again attacked by the Goths, found themſelves obliged to ſet at liberty and arm their ſlaves againſt them. By this means they indeed overcame the Goths: but the victorious ſlaves turning their arms againſt their maſters, drove them out of the country. This misfortune obliged them, to the number of 300,000, to apply for relief to the Roman emperor, who incorporated with his legions ſuch as were capable of ſervice; and gave ſettlements to the reſt in Thrace, Scythia, Macedon, and Italy. This was the laſt remarkable action of Conſtantine the Great. He died on May 15. 337, having divided the empire among his children and nephews, in the following manner. Conſtantine his eldeſt ſon, had Gaul, Spain, and Britain: Conſtantius, the ſecond, had Aſia, Syria, and Egypt; and Conſtans, the youngeſt, Illyricum, Italy, and Africa. To his nephew Dalmatius, he gave Thrace, Macedon, and Achaia; and to King Annibalianus, his other nephew, Armenia Minor, Pontus, Cappadocia, and the city of Cæſarea, which he deſired might be the capital of his kingdom.

5 He takes a number of Sarmatians into his army.

Conſtantinopolitan hiſtory.

6 His death, and diviſion of the empire.

After the death of Conſtantine, the army and ſenate proclaimed his three ſons emperors, without taking any notice of his two nephews, who were ſoon after murdered, with Julius Conſtantius the late emperor's brother, and all their friends and adherents. Thus the family of Conſtantine was at once reduced to his three ſons, and two nephews Gallus and Julian, the ſons of Julius Conſtantius; and of theſe the former owed his life to a malady, from which no one thought he could recover; and the latter to his infancy, being then at moſt about ſeven years of age. The three brothers divided among themſelves the dominions of the deceaſed princes; but did not long agree together. In 340, Conſtantine having in vain ſolicited Conſtans to yield part of Italy to him, raiſed a conſiderable army; and under pretence of marching to the aſſiſtance of his brother Conſtantius, who was then at war with the Perſians, made himſelf maſter of ſeveral places in Italy. Hereupon Conſtans detached part of his army againſt him; and Conſtantine, being drawn into an ambuſcade near Aquileia, was cut off with his whole forces. His body was thrown into the river Anſa; but being afterwards diſcovered, was ſent to Conſtantinople, and interred there near the tomb of his father.

7 All his relations murdered except his three ſons and two nephews.

8 Conſtantine invades the dominions of Conſtans.

9 Is defeated, and killed.

By the defeat and death of his brother, Conſtans remained ſole maſter of all the weſtern part of the empire, in the quiet poſſeſſion of which he continued till the year 350. This year Magnentius, the ſon of one Magnus, a native of Germany, finding Conſtans deſpiſed by the army on account of his indolence and inactivity, reſolved to murder him, and ſet up for himſelf. Having found means to gain over the chief officers of the army to his deſigns, he ſeized on the imperial palace at Autun, and diſtributed among the populace what ſums he found there; which induced not only the city, but the neighbouring country, to eſpouſe his cauſe. But Conſtans being informed of what had paſſed, and finding himſelf unable to reſiſt the uſurper, fled towards Spain. He was overtaken, however, by Gaiſo, whom Magnentius had ſent after him with a choſen body of troops, and deſpatched with many wounds, at Helena, a ſmall village ſituated near the foot of the Pyrenees.

10 Conſtans ſole maſter of the weſt.

11 Magnentius revolts againſt him.

12 Conſtans murdered.

Thus Conſtantius acquired a right to the whole Roman empire; though one-half of it was ſeized by Magnentius after the murder of Conſtans. The former had been engaged in a war with the Perſians, in which little advantage was gained on either ſide; but the Perſians now giving no more diſturbance, the emperor marched againſt the uſurpers in the weſt. Beſides Magnentius, there were at that time two other pretenders to the weſtern empire. Veteranio, general of the foot in Pannonia, had, on the firſt news of the death of Conſtans, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed emperor by the legions under his command. He was

13 Three pretenders to the empire.

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a native of Upper Mæsia, and advanced in years when he usurped the sovereignty; but so illiterate, that he then first learned to read. The third pretender was Flavius Popilius Nepotianus, son of Eutropia, the sister of Constantine the Great. Having assembled a company of gladiators and men of desperate fortunes, he assumed the purple on the 3d of June 350, and in that attire presented himself before the gates of Rome. The prefect Anicetus, who commanded there for Magnentius, sallied out against him with a body of Romans, who were soon driven back into the city. Soon after Nepotianus made himself master of the city itself, which he filled with blood and slaughter. Magnentius being informed of what had happened, sent against this new competitor his chief favourite and prime minister Marcellinus. Nepotianus received him with great resolution; a bloody battle ensued between the soldiers of Magnentius and the Romans who had espoused the cause of Nepotianus; but the latter being betrayed by a senator, named Heraclitus, his men were put to flight, and he himself killed, after having enjoyed the sovereignty only 28 days. Marcellinus ordered his head to be carried on the point of a lance through the principal streets of the city; put to death all those who had declared for him; and under pretence of preventing disturbances, commanded a general massacre of all the relations of Constantine. Soon after, Magnentius himself came to Rome, to make the necessary preparations for resisting Constantius, who was exerting himself to the utmost in order to revenge the death of his brother. In the city he behaved most tyrannically, putting to death many persons of distinction, in order to seize their estates; and obliged the rest to contribute half of what they were worth towards the expence of the war. Having by this means raised great sums, he assembled a mighty army composed of Romans, Germans, Gauls, Franks, Britons, Spaniards, &c. At the same time, however, dreading the uncertain issues of war, he dispatched ambassadors to Constantius with proposals of accommodation. Constantius set out from Antioch about the beginning of autumn; and passing through Constantinople, arrived at Heraclea, where he was met by the deputies from Magnentius, and others from Veteranio, who had agreed to support each other in case the emperor would hearken to no terms. The deputies of Magnentius proposed in his name a match between him and Constantia, or rather Constantina, the sister of Constantius, and widow of Annibalianus; offering, at the same time, to Constantius the sister of Magnentius. At first the emperor would hearken to no terms; but afterwards, that he might not have to oppose two enemies at once, concluded a separate treaty with Veteranio, by which he agreed to take him for his partner in the empire. But when Veteranio ascended the tribunal along with Constantius, the soldiers pulled him down from thence, crying out, That they would acknowledge no other emperor than Constantius alone. On this Veteranio threw himself at the emperor's feet, and implored his mercy. Constantius received him with great kindness, and sent him to Prusa in Bithynia, where he allowed him a maintenance suitable to his quality.

14 Nepotianus makes himself master of Rome.

15 He is defeated and killed.

16 Tyranny of Magnentius.

17 Sends proposals of peace to Constantius.

18 Gallus sent against the Persians.

Constantius, now master of all Illyricum, and of the army commanded by Veteranio, resolved to march against Magnentius without delay. In the mean time, however, on advice that the Persians were preparing to invade the eastern provinces, he married his sister Constantina to his cousin-german Gallus; created him Cæsar on the 15th of March; and allotted him for his share not only all the East, but likewise Thrace and Constantinople. About the same time Magnentius gave the title of Cæsar to his brother Decentius, whom he dispatched into Gaul to defend that country against the barbarians who had invaded it; for Constantius had not only stirred up the Franks and Saxons to break into that province, by promising to relinquish to them all the places they should conquer, but had sent them large supplies of men and arms for that purpose. On this encouragement the barbarians invaded Gaul with a mighty army, overthrew Decentius in a pitched battle, committed everywhere dreadful ravages, and reduced the country to a most deplorable situation. In the mean time Magnentius having assembled a numerous army, left Italy, and crossing the Alps, advanced into the plains of Pannonia, where Constantius, whose main strength consisted in cavalry, was waiting for him. Magnentius hearing that his competitor was encamped at a small distance, invited him by a messenger to the extensive plains of *Scifcia* on the Save, there to decide which of them had the best title to the empire. This challenge was by Constantius received with great joy; but as his troops marched towards Scifcia in disorder, they fell into an ambuscade, and were put to flight with great slaughter. With this success, Magnentius was so elated, that he rejected all terms of peace, which were now offered by Constantius; but after some time, a general engagement ensued at Mursa, in which Magnentius was entirely defeated, with the loss of 24,000 men. Constantius, though victor, is said to have lost 30,000, which seems improbable. All authors, however, agree, that the battle at Mursa proved fatal to the western empire, and greatly contributed to its speedy decline.

19 Constantius stirs up the Franks to invade Gaul.

20 Is defeated by Magnentius.

21 Magnentius defeated at Mursa.

22 This battle fatal to the empire.

After his defeat at Mursa, Magnentius retired into Italy, where he recruited his shattered forces as well as he could. But the beginning of the following year, 352, Constantius, having assembled his troops, surprised and took a strong castle on the Julian Alps, belonging to Magnentius, without the loss of a man. After this the emperor advanced in order to force the rest; upon which Magnentius was struck with such terror, that he immediately abandoned Aquileia, and ordered the troops that guarded the other passes of the Alps to follow him. Thus Constantius entering Italy without opposition, made himself master of Aquileia. From thence he advanced to Pavia, where Magnentius gained a considerable advantage over him. Notwithstanding this loss, however, Constantius reduced the whole country bordering on the Po, and Magnentius's men deserted to him in whole troops, delivering up to him the places they had garrisoned; by which the tyrant was so disheartened, that he left Italy, and retired with all his forces into Gaul. Soon after this, Africa, Sicily, and Spain, declared for Constantius; upon which Magnentius sent a senator, and after him some bishops, to treat of a peace: but the emperor treated the senator as a spy, and sent back the bishops without any answer. Magnentius now finding his affairs desperate,

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desperate, and that there were no hopes of pardon, recruited his army in the best manner he could, and dispatched an assassin into the east to murder Gallus Cæsar; hoping that his death would oblige the emperor to withdraw his forces from Gaul, and march in person to the defence of the eastern provinces, which were threatened by the Persians. The assassin gained over some of Gallus's guards; but the plot being discovered before it could be put in execution, they were all seized and executed as traitors.

23 Magnentius attempts to get Gallus murdered.

24 Magnentius defeated a second time; kills all his family and himself.

In 353, the war against Magnentius was carried on with more vigour than ever, and at last happily ended by a battle fought in the Higher Dauphiny. Magnentius, being defeated, took shelter in Lyons; but the few soldiers who attended him, despairing of any further success, resolved to purchase the emperor's favour by delivering up to him his rival, the author of so calamitous a war. Accordingly they surrounded the house where he lodged; upon which the tyrant, in despair, slew with his own hand his mother, his brother Desiderius whom he had created Cæsar, and such of his friends and relations as were with him: and then fixing his sword in a wall, threw himself upon it, in order to avoid a more shameful death which he had reason to apprehend.

After the death of Magnentius, his brother Decentius Cæsar, who was marching to his assistance, and had already reached Sens, finding himself surrounded on all sides by the emperor's forces, chose rather to strangle himself than fall alive into the hands of his enemies. Thus Constantius was left sole master of the Roman empire. His panegyrists tell us, that after his victory he behaved with the greatest humanity, forgiving and receiving into favour his greatest enemies; but other historians differ considerably from them, and tell us that Constantius now became haughty, imperious, and cruel, of which many instances are given.

25 Constantius sole master of the empire.

26 Many grievous calamities.

This year the empire was subjected to very grievous calamities. Gaul was ravaged by the barbarians beyond the Rhine, and the disbanded troops of Magnentius. At Rome, the populace rose on account of a scarcity of provisions. In Asia, the Isaurian robbers overran Lycaonia and Pamphylia; and even laid siege to Seleucia, a city of great strength; which, however, they were not able to make themselves masters of. At the same time the Saracens committed dreadful ravages in Mesopotamia, the Persians also invaded the province of Anthemusia on the Euphrates. But the eastern provinces were not so much harassed by the barbarians as by Gallus Cæsar himself, who ought to have protected them. That prince was naturally of a cruel, haughty, and tyrannical disposition; but being elated with his successes against the Persians, he at last behaved more like a tyrant and a madman than a governor. His natural cruelty is said to have been heightened by the instigations of his wife Constantina, who is by Ammianus styled the *Megæra*, or "fury of her sex:" and he adds, that her ambition was equal to her cruelty. Thus all the provinces and cities in the east were filled with blood and slaughter. No man, however innocent, was sure to live or enjoy his estate a whole day; for Gallus's temper being equally suspicious and cruel, those who had any private enemies took care to accuse them of crimes against the state, and with Gallus it was the same thing to be accused and condemned. At last the emperor being informed from all quarters of the evil conduct of his brother-in-law, and being at the same time told that he aspired to the sovereignty, resolved upon his ruin. For this end he wrote letters to Gallus and Constantina, inviting them both into Italy. Though they had both sufficient reason to fear the worst, yet they durst not venture to disobey the emperor's express command. Constantina, who was well acquainted with her brother's temper, and hoped to pacify him by her artful insinuations, set out first, leaving Gallus at Antioch: but she had scarce entered the province of Bithynia, when she was seized with a fever which put an end to her life. Gallus now despairing of being able to appease his sovereign, thought of openly revolting; but most of his friends deserted him on account of his inconstant and cruel temper, so that he was at last obliged to submit to the pleasure of Constantius. He advanced, therefore, according to his orders: but at Petavium was arrested, and stripped of all the ensigns of his dignity. From thence he was carried to Fianona, now *Fianone*, in Dalmatia, where he was examined by two of his most inveterate enemies. He confessed most of the crimes laid to his charge; but urged as an excuse the evil counsels of his wife Constantina. The emperor, provoked at this plea which reflected on his sister, and instigated by the enemies of Gallus, signed a warrant for his execution, which was performed accordingly.

27 Tyranny of Gallus.

28 He is put to death.

29 War with the Germans.

All this time the emperor had been engaged in a war with the Germans: he had marched against them in person: and though he gained an advantage, the barbarians thought proper to make peace with him. This, however, was but short lived. No sooner was the Roman army withdrawn, than they began to make new inroads into the empire. Against them Constantius despatched Arbetio with the flower of the army; but he fell into an ambuscade, and was put to flight with the loss of a great number of men. This loss, however, was soon retrieved by the valour of Arinthæus, who became famous in the reign of Valens, and of two other officers, who falling upon the Germans, without waiting the orders of their general, put them to flight, and obliged them to leave the Roman territories

The tranquillity of the empire, which ensued on this repulse of the Germans, was soon interrupted by a pretended conspiracy, by which in the end a true one was produced. Sylvanus, a leading man among the Franks, commanded in Gaul, and had there performed great exploits against the barbarians. He had been raised to this post by Arbetio; but only with a design to remove him from the emperor's presence, in order to accomplish his ruin, which he did in the following manner: One *Dynames*, keeper of the emperor's mules, leaving Gaul, begged of Sylvanus letters of recommendation to his friends at court; which being granted, the traitor erased all but the subscription. He then inserted directions to the friends of Sylvanus for the carrying on a conspiracy; and delivering these forged letters to the prefect Lampidius, they were by him shown to the emperor. Thus Sylvanus was forced to revolt, and cause himself to be proclaimed emperor by the troops under his command.

30 Sylvanus betrayed by Arbetio.

31 He is forced to revolt.

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In the mean time, however, Dynames having thought proper to forge another letter, the fraud was discovered, and an inquiry set on foot, which brought to light the whole matter. Sylvanus was now declared innocent, and letters sent to him by the emperor confirming him in his post; but these were scarce gone, when certain news arrived at the court of Sylvanus having revolted, and caused himself be proclaimed emperor. Constantius, thunderstruck at this news, dispatched against him Ursicinus, an officer of great integrity, as well as valour and experience in war; who forgetting his former character, pretended to be Sylvanus's friend, and thus found means to cut him off by treachery.

32 Is murdered

33 Gaul ravaged by the barbarians.

The barbarians, who had been hitherto kept quiet by the brave Sylvanus, no sooner heard of his death, than they broke into Gaul with greater fury than ever. They took and pillaged above forty cities, and among the rest Cologne, which they levelled with the ground. At the same time the Quadi and Sarmatians entering Pannonia, destroyed every thing with fire and sword. The Persians also, taking advantage of the absence of Ursinicus, overran, without opposition, Armenia and Mesopotamia; Prosper and Mausonianus, who had succeeded that brave commander in the government of the east, being more intent upon pillaging than defending the provinces committed to their care. Constantius not thinking it advisable to leave Italy himself, resolved at last to raise his cousin Julian, the brother of Gallus, to the dignity of Cæsar. Julian seems to have been a man of very extraordinary talents; for though before this time he had been entirely buried in obscurity, and conversed only with books, no sooner was he put at the head of an army than he behaved with the same bravery, conduct, and experience, as if he had been all his life bred up to the art of war. He was appointed governor of Gaul; but before he set out, Constantius gave him in marriage his sister Helena, and made him many valuable presents. At the same time, however, the jealous emperor greatly limited his authority; gave him written instructions how to behave; ordered the generals who served under him to watch all his actions no less than those of the enemy; and strictly enjoined Julian himself not to give any largesses to the soldiery.

34 Julian created Cæsar.

Julian set out from Milan on the first of December 355, the emperor himself accompanying him as far as Pavia, from whence he pursued his journey to the Alps, attended only by 360 soldiers. On his arrival at Turin he was first acquainted with the loss of Cologne, which had been kept concealed from the emperor. He arrived at Vienne before the end of the year, and was received by the people of that city and the neighbourhood with extraordinary joy.

35 He sets out for Gaul.

In 356, the barbarians besieged *Autun*; to relieve which place, Julian marched with what forces he could raise. When he came there, he found the siege raised: on which he went in pursuit of the barbarians to Auxerre, crossing with no small danger thick woods and forests, from Auxerre to *Troies*. On his march he was surrounded on all sides by the barbarians, who moved about the country in great bodies; but he put them to flight with a handful of men, cut great numbers of them in pieces, and took some prisoners. From Troies he hastened to Rheims, where the main body of the army, commanded by Marcellus, waited his arrival. Leaving Rheims, he took his route towards Decempagi, now *Dieuze*, on the Seille in Lorrain, with a design to oppose the Germans who were busy in ravaging that province. But the enemy attacking his rear unexpectedly, would have cut off two legions, had not the rest of the army, alarmed at the sudden noise, turned back to their assistance. A few days afterwards he defeated the Germans, though with great loss to his own army; the victory, however, opened him a way to Cologne. This city he found abandoned by the barbarians. They had neglected to fortify it: but Julian commanded the ancient fortifications to be repaired with all possible expedition, and the houses to be rebuilt; after which he retired to Sens, and there took up his winter-quarters. This year also Constantius entered Germany on the side of Rhætia, laid waste the country far and wide; and obliged the barbarians to sue for peace, which was readily granted. The same year he enacted two laws; by one of which it was declared capital to sacrifice, or pay any kind of worship, to idols; the other, granting the effects of condemned persons to belong to their children and relations within the third degree, except in cases of magic and treason; but this last one he revoked two years after.

36 Defeats the barbarians.

37 Repairs the fortifications of Cologne.

38 Idolatry declared capital by Constantius.

In the beginning of the year 357, the barbarians besieged Julian a whole month in Sens; Marcellus, the commander in chief, never once offering to assist him. Julian, however, so valiantly defended himself with the few forces he had, that the barbarians at last retired. After this, Constantius declared Julian commander in chief of all the forces in Gaul; appointing under him one *Severus*, an officer of great experience, and of a quite different disposition from Marcellus. On his arrival in Gaul, Julian received him with great joy, raised new troops, and supplied them with arms which he luckily found in an old arsenal. The emperor, resolving at all events to put a stop to the terrible devastations committed by the barbarous nations, chiefly by the Alemans, wrote to Julian to march directly against them. At the same time he sent Barbatio, who had been appointed general in place of Sylvanus, with a body of 25 or 30,000 men, out of Italy, in order to inclose the enemy between two armies. The Leti, however, a German nation, passing between the armies, advanced as far as Lyons, hoping to surprise that wealthy city; but meeting with a warmer reception than they expected, contented themselves with ravaging the country all round it. On the first notice of this expedition, Julian detached strong parties to guard the passages through which he knew the barbarians must return. Thus they were all cut off except those who marched near the camp of Barbatio; who was so far from cutting off their retreat, that he complained by a letter to Constantius of some officers for attempting it. These officers, among whom was Valentinian afterwards emperor of the west, were, by the orders of Constantius, cashiered for their disobedience. The other barbarians either fortified themselves in the countries which they had seized, stopping up all the avenues with huge trees, or took shelter in the islands formed by the Rhine. Julian resolved first to attack the latter; and with this view demanded some boats of Barbatio: but he, instead of complying

39 The Leti cut off by Julian.

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complying with his just request, immediately burnt all his boats, as he did on another occasion the provisions which had been sent to both armies, after he had plentifully supplied his own. Julian, not in the least disheartened with his unaccountable conduct, persuaded some of the most resolute of his men to wade over to one of the islands. Here they killed all the Germans who had taken shelter in it. They then seized their boats, and pursued the slaughter in several other islands, till the enemy abandoned them all, and retired to their respective countries with their wives and what booty they could carry. On their departure, Barbatio attempted to lay a bridge of boats over the Rhine; but the enemy, apprised of his intention, threw a great number of huge trees into the river, which being carried by the stream against the boats, sunk several of them, and parted the rest. The Roman general then thought proper to retire, but the barbarians falling unexpectedly upon him in his retreat, cut great numbers of his men in pieces, took most of his baggage, laid waste the neighbouring country, and returned in triumph loaded with booty. Elated with this success, they assembled in great numbers under the command of *Chnodomarius*, a prince of great renown among them, and six other kings. They encamped in the neighbourhood of Strasburg. Here they were encountered by Julian; who put them to flight, with the loss of 6000 or 8000 of their men slain in the field, and a vastly greater number drowned in the river; while Julian himself lost only 243 private men and four tribunes. In this action Chnodomarius was taken, and sent to Rome, where he soon after died.

40 He forces the barbarians to abandon the islands of the Rhine.

41 Entirely defeats them at Strasburg.

After the battle, Julian advanced with all his army to Mayence, where he built a bridge over the Rhine and entered Germany, having with difficulty prevailed upon his army to follow him. Here he ravaged the country till the time of the autumnal equinox, when being prevented by snow from advancing any further, he began to repair the fort of Trajan, by some supposed to be the castle of Cromburgh, about three or four leagues from Frankfort. The barbarians were now so much alarmed, that they sent deputies to treat of a peace; but this Julian refused to grant them upon any terms. He consented, however, to a truce for seven months, upon their promising to store with provisions the fort he was building in their country. This year Constantius made some remarkable laws. By one he punished with confiscation such as renounced the Christian for the Jewish religion; and by another, addressed to Felix bishop of Rome, he exempted all merchandising ecclesiastics, with their wives, children, and domestics, from every imposition ordinary and extraordinary: supposing the gains they made to be applied by them to the relief of the poor.

42 He enters Germany and concludes a truce with the barbarians.

43 Remarkable laws of Constantius.

In 358, as soon as the season was fit for action, Julian took the field against the Franks, with a design to conquer them before the truce he had concluded with the Alemans was expired. The Franks were at that time divided into several tribes, the most powerful of which were the Salii and Chamavi. The first of these sent deputies, intreating that he would suffer them to remain as friends to the empire in the country they possessed. But Julian, without paying any regard to this deputation, entered their country, and obliged them to submit; after which he allotted them lands in Gaul, incorporating great numbers of them into his cavalry. He next marched against the Chamavi, whom he defeated and obliged to retire beyond the Rhine. Afterwards he rebuilt three forts on the river Meuse, which had been destroyed by the barbarians; but wanting provisions in a country so often ravaged, he ordered 600 or 800 vessels to be built in Britain for the conveying corn from thence into Gaul. Julian continued in the country of the Chamavi till the expiration of his truce with the Alemans; and then laying a bridge of boats over the Rhine, he entered their country, putting all to fire and sword. At last two of their kings came in person to him to sue for peace: which Julian granted, upon their promising to set at liberty the captives they had taken; to supply a certain quantity of corn when required; and to furnish wood, iron, and carriages, for repairing the cities they had ruined. The prisoners whom he at this time released, amounted to upwards of 20,000.

44 Julian conquers the Franks.

45 Grants a peace to the Germans.

Soon after the vernal equinox of this year, 358, Constantius marched in person against the Quadi and Sarmatians, whose country lay beyond the Danube. Having crossed that river on a bridge of boats, he laid waste the territory of the Sarmatians; who thereupon came in great numbers, together with the Quadi, pretending to sue for peace. Their true design was to surprise the Romans; but the latter suspecting it, fell upon them sword in hand, and cut them all in pieces. This obliged the rest to sue for peace in good earnest, which was granted on the delivery of hostages. The emperor then marched against the *Limigantes*, that is, the slaves who, in 334, had driven the Sarmatians out of their country, and seized it for themselves *. They used the same artifice as the Sarmatians and Quadi had done, coming in great numbers under pretence of submitting, but prepared to fall upon him unexpectedly if opportunity offered. The emperor, observing their surly looks, and distrusting them, caused his troops surround them insensibly while he was speaking. The Limigantes then displeased with the conditions he offered them, laid their hands on their swords: on which they were attacked by the Roman soldiers. Finding it impossible to make their escape, they made with great fury towards the tribunal, but were repulsed by the guards forming themselves into a wedge, and every one of them cut in pieces. After this, the emperor ravaged their country to such a degree, that they were in the end obliged to submit to the only condition he thought proper to allow them, which was to quit their country, and retire to a more distant place. The country was then restored to the Sarmatians, who were its original possessors.

46 Expedition of Constantius against some German nations.

* See No. 5

47 He expels the Limigantes.

This year is also remarkable for a very haughty embassy from Sapor king of Persia. The ambassador, named *Narses*, brought a letter, in which the Persian monarch styled himself "king of kings, brother of the sun and moon," &c. He acquainted the emperor, that he might lawfully insist on having all the countries beyond the river Strymon in Macedon delivered up to him; but lest his demands should seem unreasonable, he would be contented with Armenia and Mesopotamia, which had been most unjustly taken from his grandfather Narses. He added, that unless justice was done him, he was resolved to assert his right

48 Haughty embassy from Sapor king of Persia.

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right by force of arms. This letter was presented to Constantius wrapped up in a piece of white silk; but he, without entering into any negociation with the ambassador, wrote a letter to Sapor, in which he told him, that as he had maintained the Roman dominions in their full extent, when he was possessed only of the east, he could not suffer them to be curtailed now when he was master of the whole empire. In a few days, however, he sent another letter, with rich presents; being very desirous at least to put off the war till he had secured the northern provinces against the incursions of the barbarians, that he might then employ all the forces of the empire against so formidable an enemy. This embassy proved unsuccessful, as did also another which was sent soon after. The last ambassadors were imprisoned as spies, but afterwards dismissed unhurt. By a law of Constantius dated in 358, all magicians, augurs, astrologers, and pretenders to the art of divination, were declared enemies to mankind; and such of them as were found in the court either of the emperor or of Julian, he commanded to be put to the torture, and specified what torments they were to undergo.

49 A law against magicians, &c.

In 359, Julian continued his endeavours for relieving the province of Gaul, which had suffered so much from the incursions of the barbarians. He erected magazines in different places, visited the cities which had suffered most, and gave orders for repairing their walls and fortifications properly. He then crossed the Rhine, and pursued the war in Germany with great success, insomuch that the barbarians submitted to such terms as he pleased to impose. In the mean time, the emperor, having received intelligence that the Limigantes had quitted the country in which he had placed them, hastened to the banks of the Danube, in order to prevent their entering Pannonia. On his arrival he sent deputies, desiring to know what had induced them to abandon the country which had been allotted them. The Limigantes answered, in appearance with the greatest submission imaginable, that they were willing to live as true subjects of the empire in any other place; but that the country he had allotted them was quite uninhabitable, as they could demonstrate if they were but allowed to cross the river, and lay their complaints before him. This request was granted; but while he ascended his tribunal, the barbarians unexpectedly fell upon his guards sword in hand, killed several of them, and the emperor with difficulty saved himself by flight. The rest of the troops, however, soon took the alarm, and surrounding the Limigantes, cut them all off to a man. This year Constantius instituted a court of inquisition against all those who consulted heathen oracles. Paulus Catena, a noted and cruel informer, was despatched into the east to prosecute them; and Modestus, then count of the east, and equally remarkable for his cruelty, was appointed judge. His tribunal was erected at Scythopolis in Palestine, whither persons of both sexes, and of every rank and condition, were daily dragged in crowds from all parts, and either confined in dungeons, or torn in pieces in a most cruel and barbarous manner by racks, or publicly executed.

50 Treachery of the Limigantes.

51 They are all cut off.

52 The heathens cruelly persecuted.

53 The Persians begin hostilities.

In 359, Sapor king of Persia began hostilities, being encouraged thereto by the absence of Ursicinus, whom the emperor had recalled, and appointed in his room one Sabinianus, a person very unfit for such an office. During this campaign, however, he made very little progress; having only taken two Roman forts, and destroyed the city of Amida, the siege of which is said to have cost him 30,000 men. On the first news of the Persian invasion, Constantius had thought proper to send Ursicinus into the east; but his enemies prevented him from receiving the supplies necessary for carrying on the war; so that he found it impossible to take any effectual means for stopping the progress of the Persians. On his return, he was unexpectedly charged with the loss of Amida, and all the disasters that had happened during the campaign. Two judges were appointed to inquire into his conduct; but they, being creatures of his enemies, left the matter doubtful. On this Ursicinus was so much exasperated, that he appealed to the emperor, and in the heat of passion let fall some unguarded expressions, which being immediately carried to the emperor, the general was deprived of all his employments.

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54 Constantius marches in person against them

Constantius resolved to march next year in person against the Persians; but in the mean time dreading to encounter so formidable an enemy, he applied himself wholly to the assembling of a mighty army, by which he might be able fully to cope with them. For this purpose he wrote to Julian to send him part of his forces, without considering that by so doing he left the province of Gaul exposed to the ravages of the barbarians. Julian resolved immediately to comply with the emperor's orders; but at the same time to abdicate the dignity of Cæsar, that he might not be blamed for the loss of the province. Accordingly he suffered the best soldiers to be draughted out of his army. They were, however, very unwilling to leave him, and at last proclaimed him emperor. Whether this was done absolutely against Julian's consent or not is uncertain; but he wrote to the emperor, and persuaded the whole army also to send a letter along with his, in which they acquainted Constantius with what had happened, and entreated him to acknowledge Julian as his partner in the empire. But this was positively refused by Constantius, who began to prepare for war. Julian then, designing to be before-hand with the emperor, caused his troops to take an oath of allegiance to himself, and with surprising expedition made himself master of the whole country of Illyricum, and the important pass separating that country from Thrace. Constantius was thunderstruck with this news; but hearing that the Persians had retired, he marched with all his force against his competitor. On his arrival at Tarsus in Cilicia, he was seized with a feverish distemper, occasioned chiefly by the uneasiness and perplexity of his mind. He pursued his march, however, to Mopsucrene, a place on the borders of Cilicia, at the foot of Mount Taurus. Here he was obliged to stop, by the violence of his disorder, which increased every day, and at last carried him off on the 13th of November 361, in the 45th year of his age.

55 Julian proclaimed emperor.

56 Constantius marches against him, [illegible]

By the death of Constantius, Julian [illegible] master of the whole Roman empire without a rival. He had been educated in the Christian religion, but secretly apostatized from it long before, and [illegible] he saw himself master of Illyricum, openly avowed his apostasy, and caused the temples of the gods to be opened

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opened. When the messengers arrived at Naissus in Illyricum, where he then was, to acquaint him with his being sole master of the empire, they found him consulting the entrails of victims concerning the event of his journey. As the omens were uncertain, he was at that time very much embarrassed and perplexed; but the arrival of the messengers put an end to all his fears, and he immediately set out for Constantinople. At Heraclea he was met by almost all the inhabitants of this metropolis, into which he made his public entry on the 11th of December 361, being attended by the whole senate in a body, by all the magistrates, and by the nobility magnificently dressed, every one testifying the utmost joy at seeing such a promising young prince raised to the empire without bloodshed. He was again declared emperor by the senate of Constantinople; and as soon as that ceremony was over, he caused the obsequies of Constantius to be performed with great pomp.

58 Condemns some of the late emperor's ministers.

The first care of Julian was to inquire into the conduct of the late emperor's ministers. Several of these having been found guilty of enormous crimes, were condemned and executed; particularly the noted informer Paulus Catena, and another named *Apodamus*, were sentenced to be burnt alive. Along with these, however, was put to death one Ursula, a man of unexceptionable character, and to whom Julian himself was highly indebted. He had been supplied with money by Ursula, unknown to the emperor, at the time when he was sent into Gaul with the title of Cæsar, but without the money necessary for the support of that dignity. For what reason he was now put to death, historians do not acquaint us. Julian himself tells us, that he was executed without his knowledge.

59 Reforms the court.

The emperor next set about reforming the court. As the vast number of offices was in his time become an intolerable burden, he discharged all those whom he thought useless. He reduced, among the rest, the officers called *agentes in rebus*, from 10,000 to 17; and discharged thousands of cooks, barbers, &c. who by their large salaries drained the exchequer. The *curiosi*, whose office it was to inform the emperor of what had passed in the different provinces, were all discharged, and that employment entirely suppressed. Thus he was enabled to ease the people of the heavy taxes with which they were loaded: and this he did by abating a fifth part of all taxes and imposts throughout the kingdom.

60 Recals the philosophers, magicians, &c.

As to religious matters, Julian, as before observed, was a Pagan, and immediately on his accession to the throne restored the heathen religion. He invited to court the philosophers, magicians, &c. from all parts; nevertheless, he did not raise any persecution against the Christians. On the contrary, he recalled from banishment all the orthodox bishops who had been sent into exile during the former reign; but with a design, as is observed both by the Christian and Pagan writers, to raise disturbances and sow dissensions in the church.

61 Marches against the Persians.

As the Persians were now preparing to carry on the war with vigour, Julian found himself under a necessity of marching against them in person. But before he set out, he enriched the city of Constantinople with many valuable gifts. He formed a large harbour to shelter the ships from the south wind, built a magnificent porch leading to it, and in another porch a stately library, in which he lodged all his books. In the month of May, A. D. 362, he set out for Antioch; and on the first of January renewed in that city the sacrifices to Jupiter for the safety of the empire, which had been so long omitted. During his stay in this city, he continued his preparations for the Persian war, erecting magazines, making new levies, and above all consulting the oracles, aruspices, magicians, &c. The oracles of Delphi, Delos, and Dodona, assured him of victory. The aruspices, indeed, and most of his courtiers and officers, did all that lay in their power to divert him from his intended expedition; but the deceitful answers of the oracles and magicians, and the desire of adding the Persian monarch to the many kings he had already seen humbled at his feet, prevailed over all other considerations. Many nations sent deputies to him, offering their assistance; but these offers he rejected, telling them that the Romans were to assist their allies, but stood in no need of any assistance from them. He likewise rejected, and in a very disobliging manner, the offers of the Saracens; answering them, when they complained of his stopping the pension paid them by other emperors, that a warlike prince had steel, but no gold; which they resenting, joined the Persians, and continued faithful to them to the last. However, he wrote to Arsaces king of Armenia, enjoining him to keep his troops in readiness to execute the orders he should soon transmit to him.

62 Crosses the Euphrates.

Having made the necessary preparations for so important an enterprise, Julian sent orders to his troops to cross the Euphrates, designing to enter the enemy's country before they had the least notice of his march; for which purpose he had placed guards on all the roads. From Antioch he proceeded to Litarba, a place about 15 leagues distant, which he reached the same day. From thence he went to Beræa, where he halted a day, and exhorted the council to restore the worship of the gods: but this exhortation, it seems, was complied with but by few. From Beræa he proceeded to Batnæ; and was better pleased with the inhabitants of the latter, because they had, before his arrival, restored the worship of the gods. There he offered sacrifices; and having immolated a great number of victims, he pursued the next day his journey to Hierapolis, the capital of the province of Euphratesiana, which he reached on the 9th of March. Here he lodged in the house of one for whom he had a particular esteem, chiefly because neither Constantius nor Gallus, who had both lodged in his house, had been able to make him renounce the worship of his idols. As he entered this city, 50 of his soldiers were killed by the fall of a porch. He left Hierapolis on the 13th of March; and having passed the Euphrates on a bridge of boats, came to Batnæ a small city of Osrhoene, about 10 leagues from Hierapolis; and here 50 more of his soldiers were killed by the fall of a stack of straw. From Batnæ he proceeded to Carrhæ; where, in the famous temple of the moon, it is said he sacrificed a woman to that planet.

63 Invades Persia.

While Julian continued in this city, he received advice that a party of the enemies horse had broke into the Roman territories. On this he resolved to leave an army in Mesopotamia, to guard the frontiers of the empire

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empire on that ſide, while he advanced on the other into the heart of the Perſian dominions. This army conſiſted, according to ſome, of 20,000, according to others, of 30,000 choſen troops. It was commanded by Procopius, and Sebaſtian a famous Manichean who had been governor of Egypt, and had perſecuted there, with the utmoſt cruelty, the orthodox Chriſtians. Theſe two were to join, if poſſible, Arſaces king of Armenia, to lay waſte the fruitful plains of Media, and meet the emperor in Aſſyria. To Arſaces Julian himſelf wrote, but in the moſt diſobliging manner imaginable, threatening to treat him as a rebel if he did not execute, with the utmoſt punctuality, the orders given him: and at the concluſion told him, that the God he adored would not be able to ſcreen him from his indignation.

There were two roads leading from Carrhæ to Perſia; the one to the left by Niſibis; the other to the right through the province of Aſſyria, along the banks of the Euphrates. Julian choſe the latter, but cauſed magazines to be erected on both roads; and, after having viewed his army, ſet out on the 25th of March. He paſſed the Abora, which ſeparated the Roman and Perſian dominions, near its conflux with the Euphrates; after which he broke down the bridge, that his troops might not be tempted to deſert, ſeeing they could not return home. As he proceeded on his march, a ſoldier and two horſes were ſtruck dead by a flaſh of lightning; and a lion of an extraordinary ſize preſenting himſelf to the army, was in a moment diſpatched by the ſoldiers with a ſhower of darts. Theſe omens occaſioned great diſputes between the philoſophers and aruſpices: the latter looking upon them as inauſpicious, adviſed the emperor to return; but the former refuted their arguments with others more agreeable to Julian's temper.

64 Lays waſte Aſſyria.

Having paſſed the Abora, Julian entered Aſſyria, which he found very populous, and abounding with all the neceſſaries of life; but he laid it waſte far and near, deſtroying the magazines and proviſions which he could not carry along with him; and thus he put it out of his power to return the ſame way he came; a ſtep which was judged very impolitic. As he met with no army in the field to oppoſe him, he advanced to the walls of Cteſiphon, the metropolis of the Perſian empire: having reduced all the ſtrong holds that lay in his way. Here, having cauſed the canal to be cleared, which was formerly dug by Trajan between theſe two rivers, he conveyed his fleet from the former to the latter. On the banks of the Tigris he was oppoſed by the enemy. But Julian paſſed that river in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts, and drove them into the city with the loſs of a great number of their men, he himſelf, in the mean time loſing only 70 or 75.

65 Advances to Cteſiphon.

66 Begins his retreat, but is diſtreſſed for want of proviſions

Julian had now advanced ſo far into the enemy's country, that he found it neceſſary to think of a retreat, as it was impoſſible for him to winter in Perſia. For this reaſon he made no attempt on Cteſiphon, but began to march back along the banks of the Tigris, ſoon after he had paſſed that river. In the mean time the king of Perſia was aſſembling a formidable army, with a deſign to fall upon the Romans in their march; but being deſirous of putting an end to ſo deſtructive a war, he ſent very advantageous propoſals of peace to Julian. Theſe the Roman emperor very imprudently rejected; and ſoon after, deceived by treacherous guides, he quitted the river, and entered into an unknown country totally laid waſte by the enemy; and where he was continually haraſſed by ſtrong parties, who in a manner ſurrounded his army, and attacked him ſometimes in the front, and ſometimes in the rear. A ſtill worſe ſtep he was perſuaded to take by the treacherous guides already mentioned: and this was to burn his fleet, leſt it ſhould fall into the hands of the enemy. As ſoon as the fleet was ſet on fire, the whole army cried out, that the emperor was betrayed, and that the guides were traitors employed by the enemy. Julian ordered them immediately to be put to the rack, upon which they confeſſed the treaſon; but it was too late. The fleet was already in flames; they could by no means be extinguiſhed; and no part was ſaved except 12 veſſels, which were deſigned to be made uſe of in the building of bridges, and for this purpoſe were conveyed over land in waggons.

The emperor thus finding himſelf in a ſtrange country, and his army greatly diſpirited, called a council of his chief officers, in which it was reſolved to proceed to Corduene, which lay ſouth of Armenia, and belonged to the Romans. With this view they had not proceeded far, when they were met by the king of Perſia, at the head of a very numerous army, attended by his two ſons, and all the principal nobility of the kingdom. Several ſharp encounters happened, in which, though the Perſians were always defeated, yet the Romans reaped no advantages from their victories, but were reduced to the laſt extremity for want of proviſions. In one of theſe ſkirmiſhes, when the Romans were ſuddenly attacked, the emperor, eager to repulſe the enemy, haſtened to the field of battle without his armour, when he received a mortal wound by a dart, which, through his arm and ſide, pierced his very liver. Of this wound he died the ſame night, the 26th of June 363, in the 32d year of his age, after having reigned ſcarce 20 months from the time he became ſole maſter of the Roman empire.

67 Is mortally wounded in a ſudden attack by the Perſians.

As Julian had declined naming any ſucceſſor, the choice of a new emperor devolved on the army. They unanimouſly choſe Jovian, a very able commander, whoſe father had lately reſigned the poſt of *comes domeſticorum*, in order to lead a retired life. The valour and experience of Jovian, however, were not ſufficient to extricate the Roman army from the difficulties in which they had been plunged by the imprudence of his predeceſſor. The famine raged in the camp to ſuch a degree, that not a ſingle man would have been left alive, had not the Perſians unexpectedly ſent propoſals of peace. Theſe were now received with the utmoſt joy. A peace was concluded for 30 years; the terms of which were, that Jovian ſhould reſtore to the Perſians the fine provinces which had been taken from them in the reign of Diocleſian, with ſeveral caſtles, and the cities of Niſibis and Singara. After the concluſion of the treaty, Jovian purſued his march without moleſtation. When he arrived at Antioch, he revoked all the laws that had been made in the former reign againſt Chriſtianity and in favour of Paganiſm. He eſpouſed alſo the cauſe of the orthodox Chriſtians againſt the Arians; and he called all thoſe who had been formerly baniſhed, particularly Athanaſius,

65 Jovian raiſed to the empire.

69 Concludes a peace with the Perſians.

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ſius, to whom he wrote a very obliging letter, with his own hand. It is generally believed alſo that Athanaſius, at the deſire of Jovian, now compoſed the creed which ſtill goes by his name, and is ſubſcribed by all the biſhops in Europe. But this emperor did not live to make any great alterations, or even to viſit his capital as emperor; for in his way to Conſtantinople he was found dead in his bed, on the 16th or 17th of February 364, after he had lived 33 years, and reigned ſeven months and 40 days.

70 His death.

71 Valentinian choſen emperor, chooſes Valens for his partner.

After the death of Jovian, Valentinian was choſen emperor. Immediately on his acceſſion, the ſoldiers mutinied, and with great clamour required him to chooſe a partner in the ſovereignty. Though he did not inſtantly comply with this demand, yet in a few days he choſe his brother Valens for his partner; and, as the empire was threatened on all ſides with an invaſion of the barbarous nations, he thought proper to divide it. This famous partition was made at Mediana in Dacia. Valens had for his ſhare the whole of Aſia, Egypt, and Thrace; and Valentinian all the Weſt; that is, Illyricum, Italy, Gaul, Spain, Britain, and Africa.

72 Procopius revolts.

After this partition, Valens returned to Conſtantinople; where the beginning of his reign was diſturbed by the revolt of Procopius, a relation of Julian. On the death of that emperor, he had fled into Taurica Cherſoneſus for fear of Jovian; but not truſting the barbarians who inhabited that country, he returned in diſguiſe into the Roman territories, where having gained over an eunuch of great wealth, by name *Eugenius*, lately diſgraced by Valens, and ſome officers who commanded the troops ſent againſt the Goths, he got himſelf proclaimed emperor. At firſt he was joined only by the loweſt of the people, but at length he was acknowledged by the whole city of Conſtantinople. On the news of this revolt, Valens would have abdicated the ſovereignty, had he not been prevented by the importunities of his friends. He therefore diſpatched ſome troops againſt the uſurper; but theſe were gained over, and Procopius continued for ſome time to gain ground. It is probable he would finally have ſucceeded, had he not become ſo much elated with his good fortune that he grew tyrannical and

73 Is defeated and put to death.

insupportable to his own party. In conſequence of this alteration in his diſpoſition, he was firſt abandoned by ſome of his principal officers; and ſoon after defeated in battle, taken priſoner, and put to death.

74 War with the Goths.

This revolt produced a war betwixt Valens and the Goths. The latter, having been ſolicited by Procopius, had ſent 3000 men to his aſſiſtance. On hearing the news of the uſurper's death, they marched back; but Valens detached againſt them a body of troops, who took them all priſoners notwithſtanding the vigorous reſiſtance they made. Athanaric, king of the Goths, expoſtulated on this proceeding with Valens; but that emperor proving obſtinate, both parties prepared for war. In 367 and 369, Valens gained great advantages over his enemies; and obliged them to ſue for peace, which was concluded upon terms very advantageous to the Romans. The reſt of his reign contains nothing remarkable, except the cruelty with which Valens perſecuted the orthodox clergy. The latter ſent 80 of their number to him, in order to lay their complaints before him; but he, inſtead of giving them any relief, determined to put them all to death. But the perſon who was ordered to execute this ſentence, fearing leſt the public execution of ſo many eccleſiaſtics might raiſe diſturbances, ordered them all to be put on board a ſhip, pretending that the emperor had ordered them only to be ſent into baniſhment; but when the veſſel was at ſome diſtance from the land, the mariners ſet fire to it, and made their own eſcape in the boat. The ſhip was driven by a ſtrong wind into a harbour, where it was conſumed and all that were in it. A perſecution was alſo commenced againſt magicians, or thoſe who had books of magic in their cuſtody. This occaſioned the deſtruction of many innocent perſons; for books of this kind were often conveyed into libraries, unknown to the owners of them, and this was certainly followed by death and confiſcation of goods. Hereupon perſons of all ranks were ſeized with ſuch terror that they burnt their libraries, leſt books of magic ſhould have been ſecretly conveyed in amongſt the others. In 378, the Goths, whom Valens had admitted into Thrace, advanced from that province to Macedon and Theſſaly, where they committed dreadful ravages. They afterwards blocked up the city of Conſtantinople, plundered the ſuburbs, and at laſt totally defeated and killed the emperor himſelf. The day after the battle, hearing that an immenſe treaſure was lodged in Adrianople, the barbarians laid ſiege to that place: but being quite ſtrangers to the art of beſieging towns, they were repulſed with great ſlaughter; upon which they dropped that enterpriſe, and returned before Conſtantinople. But here great numbers of them were cut in pieces by the Saracens, whom Maria their queen had ſent to the aſſiſtance of the Romans; ſo that they were obliged to abandon this deſign likewiſe, and retire from the neighbourhood of that city.

75 Eighty orthodox eccleſiaſtics put to death.

76 Magicians perſecuted.

77 Valens defeated and killed by the Goths.

78 Gratian takes Theodoſius for his partner.

By the death of Valens the empire once more fell into the hands of a ſingle perſon. This was Gratian, who had held the empire of the Weſt, after the death of Valentinian. He repulſed many barbarous nations who threatened the empire at that time with diſſolution; but finding himſelf preſſed on all ſides, he ſoon reſolved to take a colleague, in order to eaſe him of ſome part of the burden. Accordingly on the 19th of January 379, he declared Theodoſius his partner in the empire, and committed to his care all the provinces which had been governed by Valens.

Theodoſius is greatly extolled by the hiſtorians of thoſe ages on account of his extraordinary valour and piety; and for theſe qualifications has been honoured with the ſurname of *the Great*. From the many perſecuting laws, however, made in his time, it would ſeem that his piety was at leaſt very much miſguided; and that if he was naturally of a humane and compaſſionate diſpoſition, ſuperſtition and paſſion had often totally obſcured it. He certainly was a man of great conduct and experience in war; and indeed the preſent ſtate of the empire called for an exertion of all his abilities. The provinces of Dacia, Thrace, and Illyricum, were already loſt; the Goths, Taifali, Alans, and Huns, were maſters of the greateſt part of theſe provinces, and had ravaged and laid waſte the reſt. The Iberians, Armenians, and Perſians were likewiſe up in arms, and ready to take advantage of the diſtracted ſtate of the empire. The few ſoldiers who had

79 Miſerable ſtate of the empire on his acceſſion.

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had ſurvived the late defeat, kept within the ſtrong holds of Thrace, without daring ſo much as to look abroad, much leſs face the victorious enemy, who moved about the country in great bodies. But notwithſtanding this critical ſituation, the hiſtorians of thoſe times give us no account of the tranſactions of the year 379. Many great battles indeed are ſaid to have been fought, and as many victories obtained by Theodoſius; but the accounts of theſe are ſo confuſed and contradictory, that no ſtreſs can be laid upon them.

In the month of February 380, Theodoſius was ſeized with a dangerous malady, ſo that Gratian found himſelf obliged to carry on the war alone. This emperor, apprehending that the neighbouring barbarians might break into ſome of the provinces, concluded a peace with the Goths, which was confirmed by Theodoſius on his recovery. The treaty was very advantageous to the barbarians; but they diſregarding all their engagements, no ſooner heard that Gratian had left Illyricum, than they paſſed the Danube, and breaking into Thrace and Pannonia, advanced as far as Macedon, deſtroying all with fire and ſword. Theodoſius, however, drawing together his forces, marched againſt them; and, according to the moſt reſpectable authorities, gained a complete victory; though Zoſimus relates, that he was utterly defeated.

80 The Goths defeated by Theodoſius.

The following year, Athanaric, the moſt powerful of all the Gothic princes, being driven out by a faction at home, recurred to Theodoſius, by whom he was received with great tokens of friendſhip. The emperor himſelf went out to meet him, and attended him with his numerous retinue into the city. The Gothic prince died the ſame year; and Theodoſius cauſed him to be buried after the Roman manner with ſuch pomp and ſolemnity, that the Goths, who attended him in his flight, returned home with a reſolution never to moleſt the Romans any more. Nay, out of gratitude to the emperor, they took upon them to guard the banks of the Danube, and prevent the empire from being invaded on that ſide.

81 Gratian murdered by Maximus.

In 383, one Maximus revolted againſt Gratian in Britain; and in the end, having got the unhappy emperor into his power, cauſed him to be put to death, and aſſumed the empire of the Weſt himſelf. Gratian had divided his dominions with his brother Valentinian, whom he allowed to reign in Italy and Weſt Illyricum, reſerving the reſt to himſelf. Maximus, therefore, immediately after his uſurpation, ſent deputies to Theodoſius, aſſuring him that he had no deſigns on the dominions of Valentinian. As Theodoſius at that time found himſelf in danger from the barbarians, he not only forbore to attack Maximus after this declaration, but even acknowledged him for his partner in the empire. It was not long, however, before the ambition of the uſurper prompted him to break his promiſe. In 387, he paſſed the Alps on a ſudden; and meeting with no oppoſition, marched to Milan where Valentinian uſually reſided. The young prince fled firſt to Aquileia; and from thence to Theſſalonica, to implore the protection of Theodoſius. The latter, in anſwer to Valentinian's letter, informed him, that he was not at all ſurpriſed at the progreſs Maximus had made, becauſe the uſurper had protected, and Valentinian had perſecuted, the orthodox Chriſtians. At laſt he prevailed on the young prince to renounce the Arian hereſy which he had hitherto maintained; after which Theodoſius promiſed to aſſiſt him with all the forces of the Eaſt. At firſt, however, he ſent meſſengers to Maximus, earneſtly exhorting him to reſtore the provinces he had taken from Valentinian, and content himſelf with Gaul, Spain, and Britain. But the uſurper would hearken to no terms. This very year he beſieged and took Aquileia, Quaderna, Bononia, Mutina, Rhegium, Placentia, and many other cities in Italy. The following year he was ackowledged in Rome, and in all the provinces of Africa. Theodoſius, therefore, finding a war inevitable, ſpent the remaining months of this and the beginning of the following year in making the neceſſary preparations. His army conſiſted chiefly of Goths, Huns, Alans, and other barbarians, whom he was glad to take into the ſervice in order to prevent their raiſing diſturbances on the frontiers. He defeated Maximus in two battles, took him priſoner, and put him to death. The uſurper had left his ſon Victor, whom he created Auguſtus, in Gaul, to awe the inhabitants in his abſence. Againſt him the emperor deſpatched Arbogaſtes, who took him priſoner after having diſperſed the troops that attended him, and put him to death. The victory was uſed afterwards by Theodoſius with great clemency and moderation.

82 Who invades the dominions of Valentinian.

83 His ſucceſs.

84 Defeated and put to death by Theodoſius.

In 389, Theodoſius took a journey to Rome; and, according to Prudentius, at this time converted the ſenate and people from idolatry to Chriſtianity. The next year was remarkable for the deſtruction of the celebrated temple of Serapis in Alexandria; which, according to the deſcription of Ammianus Marcellinus, ſurpaſſed all others in the world, that of Jupiter Capitolinus alone excepted. The reaſon of its being now deſtroyed was as follows. Theophilus, biſhop of Alexandria, having begged and obtained of the emperor an old temple, formerly conſecrated to Bacchus, but then ruined and forſaken, with a deſign to convert it into a church, the workmen found among the rubbiſh ſeveral obſcene figures, which the biſhop, to ridicule the ſuperſtition of the Heathens, cauſed to be expoſed to public view. This provoked the Pagans to ſuch a degree, that they flew to arms; and falling unexpectedly upon the Chriſtians, cut great numbers of them in pieces. The latter, however, ſoon took arms in their own defence; and being ſupported by the few ſoldiers who were quartered in the city, began to repel force by force. Thus a civil war was kindled, and no day paſſed without ſome encounter. The Pagans uſed to retire to the temple of Serapis; and thence ſallying out unexpectedly ſeized on ſuch Chriſtians as they met, and dragging them into the temple, either forced them by the moſt exquiſite torments to ſacrifice to their idol, or, if they refuſed, racked them to death. As ſoon as they expected to be attacked by the emperor's troops, they choſe a philoſopher named *Olympus* for their leader, with a deſign to defend themſelves to the laſt extremity. The emperor, however, would not ſuffer any puniſhment to be inflicted upon them for the lives of thoſe they had taken away, but readily forgave them; however, he ordered all the temples of Alexandria to be immediately pulled down, and commanded the biſhop to ſee his orders put in execution. The Pagans no ſooner heard that the emperor

85 The temples in Alexandria, and throughout all Egypt deſtroyed

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emperor was acquainted with their proceedings than they abandoned the temple, which was in a ſhort time deſtroyed by Theophilus; nothing being left except the foundations, which could not be removed on account of the extraordinary weight and ſize of the ſtones. Not ſatisfied with the deſtruction of the Alexandrian temples, the zealous biſhop encouraged the people to pull down all the other temples, oratories, chapels, and places ſet apart for the worſhip of the Heathen gods throughout Egypt, and the ſtatues of the gods themſelves to be either burnt or melted down. Of the innumerable ſtatues which at that time were to be found in Egypt, he is ſaid to have ſpared but one, viz. that of an ape, in order to expoſe the Pagan religion to ridicule. On his return to Conſtantinople, Theodoſius ordered ſuch temples as were yet ſtanding to be thrown down, and the Arians to be everywhere driven out of the cities.

86 Valentinian murdered by Arbogaſtes, who raiſes Eugenius to the empire.

In 392, Valentinian, emperor of the Weſt, was treacherouſly murdered by Arbogaſtes his general; who, though he might afterwards have eaſily ſeized on the ſovereignty himſelf, choſe to confer it upon one Eugenius, and to reign in his name. This new uſurper, though a Chriſtian, was greatly favoured by the Pagans, who were well appriſed that he only bore the title of emperor, while the whole power lodged in Arbogaſtes, who pretended to be greatly attached to their religion. The aruſpices began to appear anew, and informed him that he was deſtined to the empire of the whole world; that he would ſoon gain a complete victory over Theodoſius, who was as much hated as Eugenius was beloved by the gods, &c. But though Eugenius ſeemed to favour the Pagans, yet in the very beginning of his reign he wrote to St Ambroſe. The holy man did not anſwer his letter till he was preſſed by ſome friends to recommend them to the new prince; and then he wrote to this infamous uſurper with all the reſpect due to an emperor. Soon after his acceſſion to the empire, Eugenius ſent deputies to Theodoſius; and they are ſaid to have been received by him in a very obliging manner. He did not, however, intend to enter into any alliance with this uſurper, but immediately began his military preparations. In 394, he ſet out from Conſtantinople, and was at Adrianople on the 15th of June that year. He bent his march through Dacia, and the other provinces between Thrace and the Julian Alps, with a deſign to force the paſſes of theſe mountains, and break into Italy before the army of Eugenius was in a condition to oppoſe him. On his arrival at the Alps, he found theſe paſſes guarded by Flavianus prefect of Italy, at the head of a conſiderable body of Roman troops. Theſe were utterly defeated by Theodoſius, who thereupon croſſed the Alps and advanced into Italy. He was ſoon met by Eugenius; and a bloody battle enſued, without any deciſive advantage on either ſide. The next day the emperor led his troops in perſon againſt the enemy, utterly defeated them, and took their camp. Eugenius was taken priſoner by his own men, and brought to Theodoſius, who reproached him with the murder of Valentinian, with the calamities he had brought on the empire by his unjuſt uſurpation, and with putting his confidence in Hercules, and not in the true God; for on his chief ſtandard he had diſplayed the image of that fabulous hero. Eugenius begged earneſtly for his life: but while he lay proſtrate at the emperor's feet, his own ſoldiers cut off his head, and carrying it about on the point of a ſpear, ſhowed it to thoſe in the camp who had not yet ſubmitted to Theodoſius. At this they were all thunderſtruck: but being informed that Theodoſius was ready to receive them into favour, they threw down their arms and ſubmitted. After this, Arbogaſtes, deſpairing of pardon, fled to the mountains; but being informed that diligent ſearch was made for him, he laid violent hands on himſelf. His children, and thoſe of Eugenius, took ſanctuary in churches; but the emperor not only pardoned, but took the opportunity of converting them to Chriſtianity, reſtored them to their paternal eſtates, and raiſed them to conſiderable employments in the ſtate. Soon after this, Theodoſius appointed his ſon Honorius emperor of the weſt, aſſigning him for his ſhare Italy, Gaul, Spain, Africa, and Weſt Illyricum. The next year, as he prepared for his return to Conſtantinople, he was ſeized with a dropſy, owing to the great fatigues he had undergone during the war. As ſoon as he perceived himſelf to be in danger, he made his will; by which he bequeathed the empire of the eaſt to Arcadius, and confirmed Honorius in the poſſeſſion of the weſt. He likewiſe confirmed the pardon which he had granted to all thoſe who had borne arms againſt him, and remitted a tribute which had proved very burdenſome to the people; and charged his two ſons to ſee theſe points of his will executed. He died at Milan on the 17th of January 395, in the 16th year of his reign and 50th of his age.

87 Eugenius defeated, taken priſoner, and put to death.

88 Arbogaſtes lays violent hands on himſelf.

89 Theodoſius dies.

90 Empire uſurped by Baſiliſcus.

From the time of Theodoſius to the time when the Roman empire in the weſt was totally deſtroyed by the Goths, we find but very little remarkable in the hiſtory of Conſtantinople. At this time the eaſtern empire was uſurped by Baſiliſcus, who had driven out Zeno the lawful emperor; being aſſiſted in his conſpiracy by the empreſs Verina his ſiſter. Zeno fled into Iſauria, whither he was purſued by Illus and Trecondes, two of the uſurper's generals; who having eaſily defeated the few troops he had with him, forced the unhappy prince to ſhut himſelf up in a caſtle, which they immediately inveſted. But in a ſhort time Baſiliſcus having diſobliged the people by his cruelty, avarice, and other bad qualities, for which he was no leſs remarkable than his predeceſſor had been, his generals joined with Zeno, whom they reſtored to the throne. After his reſtoration, Zeno having got Baſiliſcus into his power, confined him in a caſtle of Cappadocia, together with his wife Zenonides, where they both periſhed with hunger and cold. This happened in the year 467, after Baſiliſcus had reigned about 20 months. During the time of this uſurpation a dreadful fire happened at Conſtantinople, which conſumed great part of the city, with the library containing 120,000 volumes; among which were the works of Homer, written, as is ſaid, on the great gut of a dragon 120 feet long.

91 Is ſtarved to death.

92 Great fire at Conſtantinople.

The misfortunes which Zeno had undergone did not work any reformation upon him. He ſtill continued the ſame vicious courſes which had given occaſion to the uſurpation of Baſiliſcus. Other conſpiracies were formed againſt him, but he had the good fortune to eſcape them. He engaged in a war with the

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the Oſtrogoths, in which he proved unſucceſsful, and was obliged to yield the provinces of Lower Dacia and Mœsia to them. In a ſhort time, however, Theodoric their king made an irruption into Thrace, and advanced within 15 miles of Conſtantinople, with a deſign to beſiege that capital: but the following year, 485, they retired in order to attack Odoacer king of Italy; of which country Theodoric was proclaimed king in 493. The emperor Zeno died in the year 491, in the 65th year of his age, and 17th of his reign.

93 Decline of the Roman empire, to what owing.

The Roman empire had now for a long time been on the decline: the ancient valour and military diſcipline, which had for ſuch a long time rendered the Romans ſuperior to other nations, had greatly degenerated; ſo that they were now by no means ſo powerful as formerly. The tumults and diſorders which had happened in the empire from time to time by the many uſurpations, had contributed alſo to weaken it very much. But what proved of the greateſt detriment was the allowing vaſt ſwarms of barbarians to ſettle in the different provinces, and to ſerve in the Roman empire in ſeparate and independent bodies. This had proved the immediate cauſe of the diſſolution of the weſtern empire; but as it affected the eaſtern parts leſs, the Conſtantinopolitan empire continued for upwards of 900 years after the weſtern one was totally diſſolved. The weak and imprudent adminiſtration of Zeno, and Anaſtaſius who ſucceeded him, had reduced the eaſtern empire ſtill more; and it might poſſibly have expired in a ſhort time after the weſtern one, had not the wiſe and vigorous conduct of Juſtin, and his partner Juſtinian, revived in ſome meaſure the ancient martial ſpirit which had originally raiſed the Roman empire to its higheſt pitch of grandeur.

94 It revives under Juſtin and Juſtinian.

Juſtin aſcended the throne in 518. In 521 he engaged in a war with the Perſians, who had all along been very formidable enemies to the Roman name. Againſt them he employed the famous Beliſarius; but of him we hear nothing remarkable till after the acceſſion of Juſtinian. This prince was the nephew of Juſtin, and was by him taken as his partner in the empire in 527; and the ſame year Juſtin died, in the 77th year of his age and 9th of his reign. Juſtinian being now ſole maſter of the empire, bent his whole force againſt the Perſians. The latter proved ſucceſsful in the firſt engagement; but were ſoon after utterly defeated by Beliſarius on the frontiers of Perſia, and likewiſe by another general named *Dorotheus* in Armenia. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the firſt five years of Juſtinian's reign. In the ſixth year a peace was concluded upon the following terms: 1. That the Roman emperor ſhould pay to Coſrhoes, the king of Perſia, 1000 pounds weight of gold. 2. That both princes ſhould reſtore the places they had taken during the wars. 3. That the commander of the Roman forces ſhould no longer reſide at Daras on the Perſian frontiers, but at a place called *Conſtantina* in Meſopotamia, as he had formerly done. 4. That the Iberians, who had ſided with the Romans, ſhould be at liberty either to return to their own country or to remain at Conſtantinople. This peace, concluded in 532, was ſtyled *eternal*; but in the event proved of very ſhort duration.

95 Juſtinian's war with the Perſians.

About this time happened at Conſtantinople the greateſt tumult mentioned in hiſtory. It began among the different factions in the circus; but ended in an open rebellion. The multitude, highly diſſatisfied with the conduct of John the *prefectus prætorio*, and of Trebonianus then queſtor, forced Hypatius, nephew to the emperor Anaſtaſius, to accept the empire, and proclaimed him with great ſolemnity in the forum. As the two above-mentioned miniſters were greatly abhorred by the populace on account of their avarice, Juſtinian immediately diſcharged them, hoping by that means to appeaſe the tumult: but this was ſo far from anſwering the purpoſe, that the multitude only grew the more outrageous upon it; and moſt of the ſenators joining them, the emperor was ſo much alarmed, that he had thoughts of abandoning the city and making his eſcape by ſea. In this dilemma the empreſs Theodora encouraged and perſuaded him rather to part with his life than the kingdom; and he at laſt reſolved to defend himſelf to the utmoſt, with the few ſenators who had not yet abandoned him. In the mean time, the rebels having attempted in vain to force the gates of the palace, carried Hypatius in triumph to the circus; where, while he was beholding the ſports from the imperial throne, amidſt the ſhouts and acclamations of the people, Beliſarius, who had been recalled from Perſia, entered the city with a conſiderable body of troops. Being then appriſed of the uſurpation of Hypatius, he marched ſtraight to the circus; fell ſword in hand upon the diſarmed multitude; and with the aſſiſtance of a band of Heruli, headed by Mundus governor of Illyricum, cut about 30,000 of them in pieces. Hypatius the uſurper, and Pompeius another of the nephews of Anaſtaſius, were taken priſoners and carried to the emperor, by whoſe orders they were both beheaded, and their bodies caſt into the ſea. Their eſtates were confiſcated, and likewiſe the eſtates of ſuch ſenators as had joined with them; but the emperor cauſed great part of their lands and effects to be afterwards reſtored, together with their honours and dignities, to their children.

96 Great tumult in Conſtantinople.

Juſtinian having now no other enemy to contend with, turned his arms againſt the Vandals in Africa, and the Goths in Italy; both which provinces he recovered out of the hands of the barbarians*. But before his general Beliſarius had time to eſtabliſh fully the Roman power in Italy, he was recalled in order to carry on the war againſt Coſrhoes king of Perſia, who, in defiance of the treaty formerly concluded in 532, entered the Roman dominions at the head of a powerful army. The ſame year, however, a peace was concluded between the two nations upon the following conditions: 1. That the Romans ſhould, within two months, pay to the Perſian king 5000 pounds weight of gold, and an annual penſion of 500. 2. That the Perſians ſhould relinquiſh all claim to the fortreſs of Daras, and maintain a body of troops to guard the Caſpian gates, and prevent the barbarians from breaking into the empire. 3. That upon payment of the above-mentioned ſum, Coſrhoes ſhould immediately withdraw his troops from the Roman dominions. The treaty being ſigned, and the ſtipulated ſum paid, Coſrhoes began to march back again; but by the way plundered ſeveral cities as if the war had ſtill continued. Hereupon Juſtinian reſolved to purſue the war with the utmoſt vigour; and for that purpoſe deſpatched

* See *Barbary* and *Goths*.

97 Another war with the Perſians.

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patched Belisarius into the east. But soon after he was obliged to recal him in order to oppose the Goths, who had gained great advantages in Italy after his departure. The Persian war was then carried on with indifferent success till the year 558, when a peace was concluded upon the emperor again paying an immense sum to the enemy. The same year the Huns, passing the Danube in the depth of winter, marched in two bodies directly for Constantinople; and laying waste the countries through which they passed, came, without meeting the least opposition, within 150 furlongs of the city. But Belisarius marching out against them with a handful of men, put them to flight; the emperor, however, to prevent them from invading the empire anew, agreed to pay them an annual tribute, upon their promising to defend the empire against all other barbarians, and to serve in the Roman armies when required. This was the last exploit performed by Belisarius, who on his return to Constantinople was disgraced, stripped of all his employments, and confined to his house, on pretence of a conspiracy against the emperor *. In the year 565 a real conspiracy was formed against Justinian, which he happily escaped, and the conspirators were executed; but the emperor did not long survive it, being carried off by a natural death in 566, in the 39th year of his reign.

98 Peace concluded.

* See *Belisarius.*

During the reign of Justinian, the majesty of the Roman empire seemed to revive. He recovered the provinces of Italy and Africa out of the hands of the barbarians, by whom they had been held for a number of years; but after his death they were soon lost, and the empire tended fast to dissolution. In 569 Italy was conquered by the Lombards, who held it for the space of 200 years. Some amends, however, was made for the loss by the acquisition of *Persarmenia;* the inhabitants of which, being persecuted by the Persians on account of the Christian religion which they professed, revolted to the Romans. This produced a war between the two nations, who continued to weaken each other, till at last the Persian monarchy was utterly overthrown, and that of the Romans greatly reduced by the Saracens †. These new enemies attacked the Romans in the year 632, and pursued their conquests with incredible rapidity. In the space of four years they reduced the provinces of Egypt, Syria, and Palestine. In 648 they were also masters of Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Africa, Cyprus, Aradus, and Rhodes; and having defeated the Roman fleet, commanded by the emperor Constans in person, they concluded a peace on condition of keeping the vast extent of territory they had seized, and paying for it 1000 nummi a-year.

99 Decline of the empire after Justinian.

† See *Arabia.*

An expedition against the Lombards was about this time undertaken, but with very little success, a body of 20,000 Romans being almost entirely cut off by one of the Lombard generals. In 671 the Saracens ravaged several provinces, made a descent in Sicily, took and plundered the city of Syracuse, and overran the whole island, destroying every thing with fire and sword. In like manner they laid waste Cilicia; and having passed the winter at Smyrna, they entered Thrace in the winter of the year 672, and laid siege to Constantinople itself. Here, however, they were repulsed with great loss: but next spring they renewed their attempt, in which they met with the same bad success; many of their ships being burnt by the *sea-fire*, as it was called, because it burnt under water; and in their return home their fleet was wrecked off the Scyllæan promontory. At last a peace was concluded for 30 years, on condition that the Saracens should retain all the provinces they had seized; and that they should pay the emperor and his successors 3000 pounds weight of gold, 50 slaves, and as many choice horses.

100 Unsuccessful expedition against the Lombards.

101 Constantinople besieged by the Saracens.

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This peace was scarce concluded, when the empire was invaded by a new enemy, who proved very troublesome for a long time. These were the Bulgarians: who breaking into Thrace, defeated the Roman army sent against them, and ravaged the country far and wide. The emperor consented to pay them an annual pension, rather than continue a doubtful war; and allowed them to settle in Lower Mœsia, which from them was afterwards called *Bulgaria.* In 687, they were attacked by Justinian II. who entered their country without provocation, or regarding the treaties formerly concluded with them. But they falling suddenly upon him, drove him out of their country, and obliged him to restore the towns and captives he had taken. In 697, this emperor was deposed; and in his exile fled to Trebelis king of the Bulgarians, by whom he was kindly entertained, and by whose means he was restored to his throne; but soon forgetting this favour, he invaded the country of the Bulgarians, with a design to wrest from them those provinces which he had yielded to them. He was attended in this expedition by no better success than his ingratitude deserved, his army being utterly defeated, and he himself obliged to make his escape in a light vessel to Constantinople. The Bulgarians continued their inroads and ravages at different times, generally defeating the Romans who ventured to oppose them, till the year 800, the seventh of the reign of Nicephorus, when they surprised the city of Sardica in Mœsia, and put the whole garrison, consisting of 6000 men, to the sword. The emperor marched against them with a considerable army: but the enemy retired at his approach; and he, instead of pursuing them, returned to Constantinople. Two years after he entered Bulgaria at the head of a powerful army, destroying every thing with fire and sword. The king offered to conclude a peace with him upon honourable terms; but Nicephorus, rejecting his proposals, continued to waste the country, destroying the cities, and putting all the inhabitants, without distinction of sex or age, to the sword. The king was so much affected with these cruelties which were exercised on his subjects, that he sent a second embassy to Nicephorus, offering to conclude a peace with him upon any terms, provided he would quit his country. But Nicephorus dismissing the ambassadors with scorn, the Bulgarian monarch attacked unexpectedly the Roman camp, forced it, and cut off almost the whole army, with the emperor himself, and a great number of patricians. His successor Michael likewise engaged in a war with the Bulgarians; but being utterly defeated, he was so grieved that he resigned the empire. After this the Bulgarians continued to be very formidable enemies to the empire, till the year 979, when they were attacked by Basilius II. The Bulgarians were at that time governed by a king named *Samuel;* who having ravaged the Roman territories,

102 Empire invaded by the Bulgarians.

103 They defeat Justinian II.

104 Their country cruelly ravaged by Nicephorus.

105 Who is cut off with his whole army.

106 Their country invaded by Basilius II.

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tories, as was the common practice of his nation, Basilius sent against him one Nicephorus Uranus at the head of a powerful army. Uranus, leaving his baggage at Lariſſa, reached by long marches the Sperchius, and encamped with his whole army over against the enemy, who lay on the oppoſite bank. As the river was greatly ſwelled with the heavy rains that had lately fallen, Samuel, not imagining the Romans would attempt to paſs it, ſuffered his troops to roam in large parties about the country in queſt of booty. But Uranus having at length found out a place where the river was fordable, paſſed it in the dead of the night without being perceived. He then fell upon the Bulgarians who were left in the camp, and lay for the moſt part aſleep; cut great numbers of them in pieces; took a great number of priſoners, with all their baggage; and made himſelf maſter of their camp. Samuel and his ſon were dangerouſly wounded; and would have been taken, had they not all that day concealed themſelves among the dead. The next night they ſtole away to the mountains of Ætolia, and from thence made their eſcape into Bulgaria. The following year the emperor entered Bulgaria at the head of a numerous and well-diſciplined army; defeated Samuel in a pitched battle, and took ſeveral ſtrong cities. The emperor himſelf, however, at laſt, narrowly eſcaped being cut off with his whole army; being unexpectedly attacked by the Bulgarians in a narrow paſs. From this danger he was relieved by the arrival of Nicephorus Xiphias, governor of Philippopolis, with a conſiderable body of troops; who falling upon the enemies rear, put them to flight. Baſilius purſued them cloſe; and having taken an incredible number of captives, cauſed their eyes to be pulled out, leaving to every hundred a guide with one eye, that he might conduct them to Samuel. This ſhocking ſpectacle ſo affected the unhappy king, that he fell into a deep ſwoon, and died two days after. The Roman emperor purſued his conqueſts, and in the ſpace of two years made himſelf maſter of moſt of the enemies ſtrong holds. He defeated alſo the ſucceſſor of Samuel in ſeveral engagements; and having at laſt killed him in battle, the Bulgarians ſubmitted themſelves without reſerve. The vaſt treaſures of their princes were by Baſilius diſtributed among his ſoldiers by way of donative. Soon after, the widow of the late king, with her ſix daughters and three of her ſons, ſurrendered themſelves to the Roman emperor, by whom they were received with the utmoſt civility and reſpect. This obliging behaviour encouraged the three other ſons of the late king, and moſt of the princes of the blood, who had taken ſhelter in the mountains, to ſubmit, and throw themſelves on the emperor's mercy.

107 His monſtrous cruelty.

108 The country ſubdued.

109 Ibatzes alone holds out.

Ibatzes, however, a perſon nearly allied to the royal family, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a very eminent manner during the whole courſe of the war, refuſed to ſubmit, and fled to a ſteep and craggy mountain, with a deſign to defend himſelf there to the laſt extremity. Baſilius endeavoured to cauſe him ſubmit by fair means, but he equally deſpiſed both threats and promiſes. At the laſt Euſtathius Daphnomelus, whom Baſilius had lately appointed governor of Achridus, the chief city of Bulgaria, undertook to ſecure him by a moſt deſperate and improbable ſcheme. Without communicating his deſign to any, he repaired, with two perſons in whom he could confide, to the mountain on which Ibatzes had fortified himſelf. He hoped to paſs undiſcovered among the many ſtrangers who flocked thither to celebrate the approaching feaſt of the Virgin Mary, for whom Ibatzes had a particular veneration. In this he found himſelf miſtaken; for he was known by the guards, and carried before the prince. To him he pretended to have ſomething of importance to communicate; but as ſoon as Ibatzes had retired with him into a remote place, Daphnomelus threw himſelf ſuddenly upon him, and with the aſſiſtance of the two men whom he had brought with him, pulled out both his eyes, and got ſafe to an abandoned caſtle on the top of the hill. Here they were immediately ſurrounded by the troops of Ibatzes; but Daphnomelus exhorting them now to ſubmit to the emperor, by whom he aſſured them they would be well received, they congratulated Daphnomelus on his ſucceſs, and ſuffered him to conduct the unhappy Ibatzes a priſoner to Baſilius. The emperor was no leſs ſurpriſed than pleaſed at the ſucceſs of the bold attempt; and rewarded Daphnomelus with the government of Dyrrhachium, and all the rich moveables of his priſoner. After this, having accompliſhed the entire reduction of Bulgaria, he returned to Conſtantinople with an incredible number of captives, where he was received by the ſenate and people with all poſſible demonſtrations of joy.

110 He is taken by a ſtratagem.

111 The empire invaded by the Turks.

112 Account of them.

All this time the Saracens had at intervals invaded the Roman dominions, and even attempted to make themſelves maſters of Conſtantinople. Their internal diviſions, however, rendered them now much leſs formidable enemies than they had formerly been; ſo that ſome provinces were even recovered for a time out of their hands, though the weak and diſtracted ſtate of the empire rendered it impoſſible to preſerve ſuch conqueſts. But in 1041, the empire was invaded by an enemy, not very powerful at that time indeed, but who by degrees gathered ſtrength ſufficient to overthrow both the Roman and Saracen empires. Theſe were the Turks; who having quitted their ancient habitations in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucaſus, and paſſed the Caſpian ſtraits, ſettled in Armenia Major, about the year 844. There they continued an unknown and deſpicable people, till the inteſtine wars of the Saracens gave them an opportunity of aggrandizing themſelves. About the year 1030, Mohammed the ſon of Sambrael ſultan of Perſia, not finding himſelf a match for Piſaris ſultan of Babylon, with whom he was at war, had recourſe to the Turks, who ſent him 3000 men under the command of Tangrolipix, a leading man among them. By their aſſiſtance Mohammed defeated his adverſary; but when the Turks deſired leave to return home, he refuſed to part with them. Upon this they withdrew without his conſent to a neighbouring deſert; and being there joined by ſeveral diſcontented Perſians, began to make frequent inroads into the ſultan's territories. Againſt them Mohammed immediately diſpatched an army of 20,000 men; who being ſurpriſed in the night, were utterly defeated by Trangolipix. The fame of this victory drew multitudes to him from all parts; ſo that in a ſhort time Tangrolipix ſaw himſelf at the head of 50,000 men. Upon this Mohammed marched againſt them in perſon,

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son, but was thrown from his horse in the beginning of the engagement, and killed by the fall; upon which his men threw down their arms, and submitted to Tangrolipix.

After this victory the Turkish general made war upon the sultan of Babylon; whom he at length slew, and annexed his dominions to his own. He then sent his nephew, named *Cutlu-Moses*, against the Arabians; but by them he was defeated, and forced to fly towards Media. Through this province he was denied a passage by Stephen the Roman governor; upon which Cutlu-Moses was obliged to force a passage by encountering the Roman army. These he put to flight, took the governor himself prisoner, and without any further opposition reached the confines of Persia, where he sold Stephen for a slave. Returning from thence to Tangrolipix, he excused, in the best manner he could, his defeat by the Arabians; but at the same time acquainted him with his victory over the Romans in Media, encouraging him to invade that fertile country, which he said might be easily conquered, as it was inhabited by none but *women*, meaning the Romans. At that time Tangrolipix, did not hearken to his advice, but marched against the Arabians at the head of a numerous army. He was, however, attended with no better success than his nephew had been; and therefore began to reflect on what he had told him. Soon after he sent Asan his brother's son with an army of 20,000 men to reduce Media. Pursuant to his orders, the young prince entered that country, and committed everywhere dreadful ravages; but being in the end drawn into an ambush by the Roman generals, he was cut off with his whole army. Tangrolipix, no way discouraged by this misfortune, sent a new army into Media near 100,000 strong; who, after having ravaged the country without opposition, laid siege to Artza a place of great trade, and therefore reckoned the most wealthy in those parts. Not being able to reduce it by any other means, they set it on fire; and thus in a short time it was utterly destroyed: the buildings being reduced to ashes, and 150,000 of the inhabitants perished either by the flames or the sword. After this Abraham Halim, half-brother to Tangrolipix, hearing that the Romans, reinforced with a body of troops under the command of Liparites governor of Iberia, had taken the field, marched against them, and offered them battle; which they not declining, the two armies engaged with incredible fury. The victory continued long doubtful; but at length inclined to the Romans; who nevertheless did not think proper to pursue the fugitives, as their general Liparites was taken prisoner. The emperor, greatly concerned for the captivity of Liparites, dispatched ambassadors with rich presents, and a large sum of money to redeem him, and at the same time to conclude an alliance with Tangrolipix. The sultan received the presents; but generously returned them together with the money to Liparites, whom he set at liberty without any ransom; only requiring him at his departure, never more to bear arms against the Turks. Not long after, Tangrolipix sent a person of great authority among the Turks, with the character of ambassador, to Constantinople; who having arrogantly exhorted the emperor to submit to his master, and acknowledge himself his tributary, was ignominiously driven out of the city.

113 They defeat the Romans.

114 A Turkish army entirely cut off.

115 They again invade the empire.

116 An obstinate engagement.

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Tangrolipix, highly affronted at the reception his ambassador had met with, entered Iberia while the emperor Constantine Monomachus was engaged in a war with the Patzinacæ, a Scythian nation. Having ravaged that country, he returned from thence to Media, and laid siege to Mantzichierta, a place defended by a numerous garrison, and fortified by a triple wall and deep ditches. However, as it was situated in an open plain country, he hoped to be master of it in a short time. But finding the besieged determined to defend themselves to the last extremity, he resolved to raise the siege, after he had continued it 30 days. One of his officers, however, named *Alcan*, prevailed on him to continue it but one day longer, and to commit the management of the attacks to him. This being granted, Alcan disposed his men with such skill, and so encouraged them by his example, that, notwithstanding the vigorous opposition they met with, the place would have probably been taken, had not Alcan been slain as he was mounting the wall. The besieged, knowing him by the richness of his armour, drew him by the hair into the city, and cutting off his head threw it over the wall among the enemy; which so disheartened them, that they gave over the assault and retired. The next spring Tangrolipix returned, and ravaged Iberia with the utmost cruelty, sparing neither sex nor age. But on the approach of the Roman army he retired to Tauris, leaving 30,000 men behind him to infest the frontiers of the empire. This they did with great success, the borders being through the avarice of Monomachus unguarded. Till the time of this emperor, the provinces bordering on the countries of the barbarians had maintained, at their own charge, forces to defend them; and were on that account exempted from paying tribute; but as Monomachus exacted from them the same sums that were paid by others, they were no longer in a condition to defend themselves.

117 The Turks besiege Mantzichierta.

118 The siege raised.

119 The empress Eudocia forced to swear that she will never marry.

In 1062 died the emperor Constantine Ducas, having left the empire to his three sons, Michael, Andronicus, and Constantine; but as they were all very young, he appointed the empress Eudocia, regent during their minority, after having required of her an oath never to marry; which oath was with great solemnity lodged in the hands of the patriarch. He likewise obliged the senators solemnly to swear that they would acknowledge none for their sovereign but his three sons. No sooner, however, was he dead, than the Turks, hearing that the empire was governed by a woman, broke into Mesopotamia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, destroying all with fire and sword. The empress was no way in a condition to oppose them, the greater part of the army having been disbanded in her husband's life-time, and the troops that were still on foot being undisciplined, and altogether unfit for service. The concern which this gave the empress was aggravated by the seditious speeches of a discontented party at home, who repeated on all occasions that the present state of affairs required a man of courage and address at the helm, instead of a weak and helpless woman; and as they imagined the empress would never think of marrying, in consequence of the oath she had

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had taken, they hoped by these speeches to induce the people to revolt, and choose a new emperor. This Eudocia was aware of; and therefore determined to prevent the evils that threatened herself and her family, by marrying some person of merit who was capable of defeating her enemies both at home and abroad. At this time one Romanus Diogenes, a person of a most beautiful aspect, extraordinary parts, and illustrious birth, being accused of aspiring to the empire, tried and convicted, was brought forth to receive sentence of death. But the empress, touched with compassion at his appearance, gently upbraided him with his ambition, set him at liberty, and soon after appointed him commander in chief of all her forces. In this station he acquitted himself so well, that the empress resolved to marry him if she could but recover the writing in which her oath was contained out of the hands of the patriarch. In order to this, she applied to a favourite eunuch; who going to the patriarch, told him that the empress was so taken with his nephew named *Bardas*, that she was determined to marry and raise him to the empire, provided the patriarch absolved her from the oath she had taken, and convinced the senate of the lawfulness of her marriage. The patriarch, dazzled with the prospect of his nephew's promotion, readily undertook to perform both. He first obtained the consent of the senate, by representing to them the dangerous state of the empire, and exclaiming against the rash oath which the jealousy of the late emperor had extorted from the empress. He then publicly discharged her from it; restored the writing to her; and exhorted her to marry some deserving object, who being entrusted with an absolute authority, might be capable of defending the empire. The empress, thus discharged from her oath, married a few days after Romanus Diogenes; who was thereupon proclaimed emperor, to the great disappointment of the patriarch.

120 The empress determines to break her oath.

121 She recovers the writing in which it was contained,

122 and marries Romanus Diogenes.

As the new emperor was a man of great activity and experience in war, he no sooner saw himself vested with the sovereign power, than he took upon him the command of the army, and passed over into Asia with the few forces he could assemble, recruiting and inuring them on his march to military discipline, which had been utterly neglected in the preceding reigns. On his arrival in that continent, he was informed that the Turks had surprised and plundered the city of Neocæsarea, and were retiring with their booty. On this news he hastened after them at the head of a chosen body of light-armed troops, and came up with them on the third day. As the Turks were marching in disorder, without the least apprehension of an enemy, Romanus cut great numbers of them in pieces, and easily recovered the booty; after which he pursued his march to Aleppo, which he retook from them, together with Hierapolis, where he built a strong castle.

123 He passes over into Asia.

124 He defeats the Turks.

125 Gains a second victory.

As he was returning to join the forces he had left behind him, he was met by a numerous body of Turks, who attempted to cut off his retreat. At first he pretended to decline an engagement through fear; but attacked them afterwards with such vigour when they least expected it, that he put them to flight at the first onset, and might have gained a complete victory had he thought proper to pursue them. After this, several towns submitted to him; but the season being now far spent, the emperor returned to Constantinople. The following year he passed over into Asia early in the spring; and being informed that the Turks had sacked the rich city of Iconium, besides gaining other considerable advantages, he marched in person against them. But the Turks, not thinking it advisable to wait his coming, retired in great haste. The Armenians, however, encouraged by the approach of the emperor's army, fell upon the enemy in the plains of Tarsus, put them to flight, and stripped them both of their baggage and the booty they had taken. The spring following the emperor once more entered Asia at the head of a considerable army which he had raised, and with incredible pains disciplined during the winter. When the two armies drew near to each other, Axan, the Turkish sultan, and son of the famous Tangrolipix, sent proposals to Romanus for a lasting and honourable peace. These were imprudently rejected, and a desperate engagement ensued, when, in spite of the utmost efforts of the emperor, his army was routed, and he himself wounded and taken prisoner. When this news was brought to Axan, he could scarcely believe it; but being convinced by the appearance of the royal captive in his presence, he tenderly embraced him, and addressed him in an affectionate manner: "Grieve not (said he), most noble emperor, at your misfortune; for such is the chance of war, sometimes overwhelming one, and sometimes another; you shall have no occasion to complain of your captivity; for I will not use you as my prisoner, but as an emperor." The Turk was as good as his word. He lodged the emperor in a royal pavilion; assigned him attendants with an equipage suitable to his quality; and discharged such prisoners as he desired. After he had for some days entertained his royal captive with extraordinary magnificence, a perpetual peace was concluded betwixt them, and the emperor dismissed with the greatest marks of honour imaginable. He then set out with the Turkish ambassador for Constantinople, where the peace was to be ratified; but by the way he was informed that Eudocia had been driven from the throne by John the brother of Constantine Ducas, and Psellus a leading man in the senate, who had confined her to a monastery, and proclaimed her eldest son, Michael Ducas, emperor. On this intelligence, Romanus retired to a strong castle near Theodosiopolis, where he hoped in a short time to be joined by great numbers of his friends and adherents. But in the mean time John, who had taken upon him to act as guardian to the young prince, despatched Andronicus with a considerable army against him. Andronicus having easily defeated the small army which Romanus had with him, obliged him to fly to Adana a city in Cilicia, where he was closely besieged, and at last obliged to surrender. Andronicus carried his prisoner into Phrygia, where he fell dangerously ill, being, as was suspected, secretly poisoned. But the poison being too slow in its operation, John ordered his eyes to be put out; which was done with such cruelty that he died soon after, in the year 1067, having reigned three years and eight months.

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126 They are again defeated.

127 The Romans defeated and the emperor taken.

128 Eudocia deposed and confined in a monastery.

129 Romanus put to death.

Axan was no sooner informed of the tragical end of his friend and ally, than he resolved to invade the empire

130 The Turks again invade the empire.

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empire anew; and that not with a design only to plunder as formerly, but to conquer, and to keep what he had once conquered. The emperor despatched against him Isaac Comnenus, with a considerable army; but he was utterly defeated and taken prisoner by Axan. Another army was quickly sent off under the command of John Ducas the emperor's uncle. He gained at first some advantages, and would probably have put a stop to their conquests, had not one Ruselius, or Urselius, revolted with the troops he had under his command, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and reduced several cities in Phrygia and Cappadocia. Against him John marched with all his forces, suffering the Turks in the mean time to pursue their conquests; but coming to an engagement with the rebels, his army was entirely defeated and himself taken prisoner. Notwithstanding this victory, Ruselius was so much alarmed at the progress of the Turks, that he not only released his prisoner, but joined with him against the common enemy, by whom they were both defeated and taken prisoners. Axan, however, was for some time prevented from pursuing his conquest by Cutlu-Moses, nephew to the late Tangrolipix. He had revolted against his uncle; but being defeated by him in a pitched battle, had taken refuge in Arabia, whence he now returned at the head of a considerable army in order to dispute the sovereignty with Axan. But while the two armies were preparing to engage, the caliph of Babylon, who was still looked upon as the successor of the great prophet, interposed his authority. He represented the dangers of their intestine dissensions; and by his mediation, an agreement was at last concluded, on condition that Axan should enjoy undisturbed the monarchy lately left him by his father, and Cutlu-Moses should possess such provinces of the Roman empire as he or his sons should in process of time conquer.

131 They defeat the Romans.

132 They gain a second victory.

After this agreement, both the Turkish princes turned their forces against the empire; and before the year 1077, made themselves masters of all Media, Lycaonia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia, fixing the capital city of their empire at Nice in the latter province. During all this time, the emperors of Constantinople, as well as their subjects, seemed to be in a manner infatuated. No notice was taken of the great progress made by these barbarians. The generals were ambitious only of seizing the tottering empire, which seemed ready to fall a prey to the Turks; and, after it was obtained, spent their time in oppressing their subjects, rather than in making any attempts to repulse the enemy.

133 They conquer several provinces.

At last Alexius Comnenus, having wrested the empire from Nicephorus Botoniates, in 1077, began to prepare for opposing so formidable an enemy. But before he set out, as his soldiers had committed great outrages on his accession to the empire, he resolved to make confession of his sins, and do open penance for those he had suffered his army to commit. Accordingly he appeared in the attire of a penitent before the patriarch and several other ecclesiastics, acknowledged himself guilty of the many disorders that had been committed by his soldiers, and begged of the patriarch to impose upon him a penance suitable to the greatness of his crimes. The penance enjoined him and his adherents by the patriarch was to fast, lie upon the ground, and practise several other austerities for the space of 40 days. This command was religiously obeyed, and the emperor then began to prepare for war with so much vigour, that Solyman, the Turkish sultan, son and successor to Cutlu-Moses, dispatched ambassadors to Alexius with proposals of peace. These were at first rejected; but the emperor was at last glad to accept them, on certain advice that Robert Guischard, duke of Puglia and Calabria, was making great preparations against him in the west.

134 Alexius Comnenus stops their progress.

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To this expedition Robert was incited by Michael Ducas. That prince had been deposed by Nicephorus Botoniates, and towards the end of the usurper's reign fled into the west, where he was received by Robert, who was prevailed upon to favour his cause. For this purpose, Robert made great preparations; and these were continued even after the deposition of Botoniates. He sailed with all his forces from Brundusium; and landing at Buthrotum in Epirus, made himself master of that place, while his son Bohemond with part of the army reduced Aulon, a celebrated port and city in the country now called *Albania*. From thence they advanced to Dyrrhachium, which they invested both by sea and land; but met with a most vigorous opposition from George Paleologus, whom the emperor had entrusted with the defence of that important place. In spite of the utmost efforts of the enemy, this commander held out till the arrival of the Venetian fleet, by whom Robert's navy, commanded by Bohemond, was utterly defeated, the admiral himself having narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. After the victory, the Venetians landed without loss of time, and being joined by Paleologus's men, fell upon Robert's troops with such fury, that they destroyed their works, burnt their engines, and forced them back to their camp in great disorder. As the Venetians were now masters at sea, the besieged were supplied with plenty of provisions, while a famine began to rage in the camp of the enemy; and this calamity was soon followed by a plague, which in the space of three months is said to have destroyed ten thousand men. Notwithstanding all these disasters, however, Robert did not abandon the siege: having found means to supply his famished troops with provisions, he continued it with such vigour, that the courage of the besieged began at last to fail them; and Paleologus sent repeated messages to the emperor, acquainting him that he would be obliged to surrender unless very speedily assisted. On this Alexius marched in person to the relief of the city, but was defeated with great loss by Robert. The whole right wing of Alexius's army, finding themselves hard pressed by the enemy, fled to a church dedicated to St Michael, imagining they would there find themselves in a place of safety; but the victorious army pursuing them, set fire to the church, which was burnt to ashes with all who were in it. The emperor himself with great difficulty made his escape, leaving the enemy masters of his camp and all his baggage. Soon after this defeat, the city surrendered; and Alexius being destitute of resources for carrying on the war, seized on the wealth of churches and monasteries, which gave much offence to the clergy, and had like to have occasioned great disturbances in the imperial city. At the same time, Alexius entering into an alliance with Henry emperor of Germany, persuaded

135 Robert Guischard's expedition against the emperor.

136 He passes over into Epirus and besieges Dyrrhachium.

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perſuaded him to invade the dominions of Robert in Italy. At firſt Henry met with great ſucceſs; but was ſoon overcome, and driven out of that country by Robert. Bohemond, in the mean time, reduced ſeveral places in Illyricum; and, having defeated Alexius in two pitched battles, entered Theſſaly, and ſat down before Lariſſa. This place, being defended by an officer of great courage and experience in war, held out till the emperor came to its relief. Soon after his arrival, he found means to draw a ſtrong party of Bohemond's men into an ambuſcade, and cut them off almoſt entirely. However, in the battle which was fought a few days after, Bohemond had the advantage; but his troops mutinying and refuſing to carry on the war, he was obliged to return to Italy. Alexius taking advantage of his abſence, recovered ſeveral cities; and being informed that Robert was making great preparations againſt him, he had recourſe once more to the Venetians. By them he was aſſiſted with a powerful fleet, which defeated that of Robert in two engagements; but being ſoon after ſurpriſed by him, they were defeated with the loſs of almoſt their whole navy. Robert is ſaid to have uſed his victory with great barbarity, putting many of his priſoners to death with unheard-of torments. The Venetians equipped a ſecond fleet; and joining that of the emperor, fell unexpectedly upon Robert's navy, who were riding without the leaſt apprehenſions in Buthrotum, ſunk moſt of his ſhips, and took a great number of priſoners, his wife and younger ſons having narrowly eſcaped falling into their hands. Robert made great preparations to revenge this defeat; but was prevented by death from executing his deſigns; and, after his deceaſe, his ſon Roger did not think proper to purſue ſo dangerous and expenſive a war. He therefore recalled his troops, and the places which had been conquered by Robert and Bohemond ſubmitted anew to the emperor.

137 The city ſurrenders.

138 The war ended by the death of Robert.

139 The Scythian war.

This war was ſcarce ended, when the Scythians paſſing the Danube laid waſte great part of Thrace, committing everywhere the greateſt barbarities. Againſt them the emperor diſpatched an army under the command of Pacurianus and Branas. The latter inſiſted upon engaging the enemy, contrary to the opinion of his colleague; and his raſhneſs cauſed the loſs of the greater part of the army, who were cut off by the Scythians, together with the two generals. *Talicius*, an officer who had ſignalized himſelf on many occaſions, was appointed to command the army in their room. He fell upon the enemy as they lay ſecurely in the neighbourhood of Philippopolis, cut great numbers of them in pieces, and obliged the reſt to retire in great confuſion. The following ſpring, however, they returned in ſuch numbers, that the emperor reſolved to march againſt them in perſon. Accordingly he ſet out for Adrianople, and from thence to a place called *Lardea*. Here, contrary to the advice of his beſt officers, he ventured a battle; in which he was utterly defeated with the loſs of vaſt numbers of his men, he himſelf eſcaping with the utmoſt difficulty. The next year he was attended with no better ſucceſs, his army being entirely defeated with the loſs of his camp and baggage. In the year following, 1084, the emperor retrieved his credit; and gave the Scythians ſuch an overthrow, that very few eſcaped the general ſlaughter.

140 The Romans defeated.

141 They at laſt defeat the Scythians.

Notwithſtanding this diſaſter, however, they again invaded the empire in 1093. To this they were encouraged by an impoſtor called *Leo*, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Romanus Diogenes. The young prince had been ſlain in a battle with the Turks; but as the Scythians only wanted a pretence to renew the war, they received the impoſtor with joy. By a ſtratagem, however, Leo was murdered; and the Scythians being afterwards overthrown in two great battles, were obliged to ſubmit on the emperor's own terms.

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142 The Holy War.

Since the year 1083, the war had been carried on with the Turks with various ſucceſs; but now an aſſociation was formed in the weſt againſt theſe infidels, which threatened the utter ruin of the Turkiſh nation. This was occaſioned by the ſuperſtition of the Chriſtians, who thought it a meritorious action to venture their lives for the recovery of the Holy Land, poſſeſſed at that time by the Turks and Saracens. Had the weſtern princes been properly aſſiſted by the emperors of the Eaſt in this undertaking, the Turks had undoubtedly been unable to reſiſt them; but ſo far from this, the Latins were looked upon by them as no leſs enemies than the Turks; and indeed whatever places they took from the infidels, they never thought of reſtoring to the emperors of Conſtantinople, to whom they originally belonged, but erected a number of ſmall independent principalities; which neither having ſufficient ſtrength to defend themſelves, nor being properly ſupported by one another, ſoon became a prey to the Turks. In the year 1203, happened a dreadful fire at Conſtantinople, occaſioned by ſome Latin ſoldiers. Theſe had plundered a moſque, which the Turks reſiding in Conſtantinople had been ſuffered to build there. For this reaſon they were attacked by the infidels; who being much ſuperior to them in number, the Latins found themſelves obliged to ſet fire to ſome houſes, in order to make their eſcape with ſafety. The flame ſpreading in an inſtant from ſtreet to ſtreet, reduced in a ſhort time great part of the city to aſhes, with the capacious ſtore-houſes which had been built at a vaſt expence on the quay. The late emperor Iſaac Angelus, who had been reſtored to his throne by the Latins, died ſoon after their departure from Conſtantinople, leaving his ſon Alexius ſole maſter of the empire. The young prince, to diſcharge the large ſums he had promiſed the French and Venetians for their aſſiſtance, was obliged to lay heavy taxes on his ſubjects; and this, with the great eſteem and friendſhip ſhowed to his deliverers, raiſed a general diſcontent among the people of Conſtantinople, who were ſworn enemies to the Latins. This encouraged John Ducas, ſurnamed *Murtzuphlus*, from his joined and thick eyebrows, to attempt the ſovereignty. Unhappily he found means to put his treacherous deſigns in execution; and ſtrangled the young prince with his own hands. After this he preſented himſelf to the people; told them what he had done, which he pretended was in order to ſecure their liberties; and earneſtly intreated them to chooſe an emperor who had courage enough to defend them againſt the Latins that were ready to oppreſs and enſlave them. On this he was inſtantly ſaluted emperor by the inconſtant multitude; but this uſurpation proved the ruin of the city. The Latins immediately reſolved to revenge the death of the

143 Dreadful fire at Conſtantinople.

144 Murtzuphlus ſtrangles the emperor

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the young prince; and, as they had been so often betrayed and retarded in their expeditions to the Holy Land by the emperors of Constantinople, to make themselves masters of that city, and seize the empire for themselves. In consequence of this resolution they mustered all their forces in Asia, and having crossed the straits, laid siege to Constantinople by sea and land. The tyrant, who was a man of great courage and experience in war, made a vigorous defence. The Latins, however, after having battered the walls for several days together with an incredible number of engines, gave a general assault on the 8th of April 1204. The attack lasted from break of day till three in the afternoon, when they were forced to retire, after having lost some of their engines, and a great number of men. The assault was nevertheless renewed four days after; when, after a warm dispute, the French planted their standard on one of the towers; which the Venetians observing, they quickly made themselves masters of four other towers, where they likewise displayed their ensigns. In the mean time three of the gates being broken down by the battering rams, and those who had scaled the walls having killed the guards, and opened the gates between the towers they had taken, the whole army entered, and drew up in battle array between the walls. The Greeks fled up and down in the greatest confusion; and several parties were by the Latins dispatched to scour the streets, who put all they met to the sword, without distinction of age or condition. Night put a stop to the dreadful slaughter, when the princes sounding the retreat, placed the men in different quarters of the city, with orders to be upon their guard, not doubting but they should be attacked early next morning. They were surprised, however, at that time by the entire submission of the Greeks; to whom they promised their lives; but at the same time ordering them to retire to their houses, they gave up the city to be plundered by the soldiers for that day. They strictly enjoined their men to abstain from slaughter, to preserve the honour of the women, and to bring the whole booty into one place, that a just distribution might be made according to the rank and merit of each individual. The Greeks had undoubtedly concealed their most valuable effects during the night; many persons of the first rank had escaped, and carried along with them immense treasures; the soldiers had probably, as is usual in all such cases, reserved things of great value for themselves, notwithstanding all prohibitions to the contrary; and yet the booty, without the statues, pictures, and jewels, amounted to a sum almost incredible. As for Murtzuphlus, he made his escape in the night; embarking in a small vessel with *Euphrosyne*, the wife of *Alexius Angelus* a late usurper, and her daughter *Eudoxia*, for whose sake he had abandoned his lawful wife.

145 The city taken and plundered by the Latins.

146 The Latins expelled.

Constantinople continued subject to the Latins till the year 1261, when they were expelled by one *Alexius Strategopulus*. He was a person of an illustrious family; and, for his eminent services, distinguished with the title of *Cæsar*. He had been sent against Alexius Angelus despot of Epirus, who now attempted to recover some places in Thessaly and Greece from Michael Paleologus, one of the Greek emperors, that since the capture of Constantinople, had kept their court at Nice; and to try whether he could on his march surprise the imperial city itself. Alexius, having passed the straits, encamped at a place called *Rhegium*, where he was informed by the natives that a strong body of the Latins had been sent to the siege of *Daphnusa*, that the garrison was in great want of provisions, and that it would be no difficult matter to surprise the city. Hereupon the Greek general resolved at all events to attempt it: in which he was encouraged by some of the inhabitants, who, coming privately to his camp, offered themselves to be his guides. He approached the walls in the dead of the night, which some of his men scaled without being observed; and, killing the sentries, whom they found asleep, opened one of the gates to the rest of the army. The Greeks rushing in, put all they met to the sword; and, at the same time, to create more terror, set fire to the city in four different places. The Latins, concluding from thence that the enemy's forces were far more numerous than they really were, did not so much as attempt either to drive them out or to extinguish the flames. In this general confusion, the emperor Baldwin, quitting the ensigns of majesty, fled with Justinian the Latin patriarch, and some of his intimate friends, to the sea-side; and there, embarking in a small vessel, sailed first to Eubœa, and afterwards to Venice, leaving the Greeks in full possession of Constantinople. When news of this surprising and altogether unexpected success of Alexius were first brought to Paleologus, he could scarce give credit to it; but receiving soon after letters from Alexius himself, with a particular account of so memorable an event, he ordered public thanks to be returned in all the churches, appeared in public in his imperial robes, attended by the nobility in their best apparel, and ordered couriers to be dispatched with the agreeable news into all parts of the empire.

147 Entry of Michael Paleologus into the city.

Soon after, having settled his affairs at Nice, he set out for Constantinople with the empress, his son Andronicus, the senate, and nobility, to take possession of the imperial city, and fix his residence in that place that had originally been designed for the seat of the eastern empire. Having passed the straits, he advanced to the *golden gate*, and continued some days without the walls, while the citizens were busied in making the necessary preparations to receive him with a magnificence suitable to the occasion. On the day appointed, the golden gate, which had been long shut up, was opened, and the emperor entering it amidst the repeated acclamations of the multitude, marched on foot to the great palace. He was preceded by the bishop of *Cyzicus*, who carried an image of the Virgin Mary, supposed to have been done by St Luke, and followed by all the great officers, nobility, and chief citizens, pompously dressed. Public thanks were again returned in the church of St Sophia, at which the emperor assisted in person, with the clergy, the senate, and nobility. These exercises were succeeded by all sorts of rejoicings; after which the emperor carefully surveyed the imperial city. This survey greatly allayed his joy. He saw the stately palaces and other magnificent buildings of the Roman emperors lying in ruins; the many capacious buildings that had been erected by his predecessors, at an immense charge, destroyed by fire, and other unavoidable accidents of war;

148 He resolves to restore it to its former grandeur.

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war; ſeveral ſtreets abandoned by the inhabitants, and choked up with rubbiſh, &c. Theſe objects gave the emperor no ſmall concern, and kindled in him a deſire of reſtoring the city to its former luſtre. In the meantime, looking upon Alexius as the reſtorer of his country, he cauſed him to be clad in magnificent robes; placed with his own hand a crown on his head; ordered him to be conducted through the city, as it were, in triumph; decreed that for a whole year the name of Alexius ſhould be joined in the public prayers with his own; and to perpetuate the memory of ſo great and glorious an action, he commanded his ſtatue to be erected on a ſtately pillar of marble before the church of the Apoſtles. His next care was to re-people the city, many Greek families having withdrawn from it while it was held by the Latins, and the Latins now preparing to return to their reſpective countries. The former were recalled home; and the latter, in regard of the great trade they carried on, were allowed many valuable privileges, which induced them not to remove. The Greeks were allowed to live in one of the moſt beautiful quarters of the city, to be governed by their own laws and magiſtrates, and to trade without paying cuſtoms or taxes of any kind. Great privileges were likewiſe granted to the natives of Venice and Piſa, which encouraged them to lay aſide all thoughts of removing; and the trade they carried on proved afterwards highly advantageous to the ſtate.

It was not long, however, before theſe regulations were altered. The emperor being ſoon after informed that Baldwin, lately expelled from Conſtantinople, had married his daughter to Charles king of Sicily, and given him, by way of dowry, the imperial city itſelf, he ordered the Genoeſe, who were become very numerous, to remove firſt to Heraclia, and afterwards to Galata, where they continued. As for the Piſans and Venetians, who were not ſo numerous and wealthy, they were allowed to continue in the city. Paleologus, though he had cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed emperor, and was poſſeſſed of abſolute ſovereignty, was as yet only guardian to the young emperor John Laſcaris, then about 12 years of age. But having now ſettled the ſtate, and having gained the affections both of natives and foreigners, he began to think of ſecuring himſelf and his poſterity in the full enjoyment of the empire; and for this reaſon cruelly ordered the eyes of the young prince to be put out, pretending that none but himſelf had any right to the city or empire of Conſtantinople, which he alone had recovered out of the hands of the Latins.

149 Great diſturbances occaſioned by the treachery of Paleologus.

This piece of treachery and inhumanity involved him in great troubles. The patriarch immediately excommunicated him: and he would in all probability have been driven from the throne by a combination of the weſtern princes, had he not engaged Pope Urban IV. to eſpouſe his cauſe, by promiſing to ſubmit himſelf and his dominions to the Latin church. Thus, indeed, he diverted the preſent ſtorm; but this proceeding cauſed the greateſt diſturbances, not only in Conſtantinople, but throughout the whole empire, nor was Paleologus able to reconcile his ſubjects to this union.

150 Union of the Greek and Latin churches.

In 1283 Michael died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Andronicus. His firſt ſtep was to reſtore the ancient Greek ceremonies, thinking he could not begin his reign with a more popular act. But thus he involved himſelf in difficulties ſtill greater than before. Though Michael had not been able fully to reconcile his Greek ſubjects to the Latin ceremonies, yet he had in ſome degree accompliſhed his purpoſe. The Latins had got a conſiderable footing in the city, and defended their ceremonies with great obſtinacy; ſo that the empire was again thrown into a ferment by this imprudent ſtep.

151 Diſſolved.

All this time the Turks had been continuing their encroachments on the empire, which, had it not been for the cruſades publiſhed againſt them by the pope, they would, in all probability, have made themſelves maſters of before this time. They were now, however, very ſucceſsfully oppoſed by Conſtantine the emperor's brother: but his valour rendered him ſuſpected by the emperor; in conſequence of which he was thrown into priſon, along with ſeveral perſons of great diſtinction. On the removal of this brave commander, the Turks, under the famous Othoman, made themſelves maſters of ſeveral places in Phrygia, Caria, and Bithynia; and, among the reſt, of the city of Nice. To put a ſtop to their conqueſts, the emperor diſpatched againſt them Philanthropenus and Libadarius, two officers of great experience in war. The former gained ſome advantages over the enemy; but being elated with his ſucceſs, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed emperor. This rebellion, however, was ſoon ſuppreſſed, Philanthropenus being betrayed by his own men; but the Turks taking advantage of theſe inteſtine commotions, not only extended their dominions in Aſia, but conquered moſt of the iſlands in the Mediterranean; and, being maſters at ſea, infeſted the coaſts of the empire, to the utter ruin of trade and commerce.

152 War with the Turks.

From this time the Roman empire tended faſt to diſſolution. After the revolt of Philanthropenus, the emperor could no longer truſt his ſubjects, and therefore hired the Maſſagetes to aſſiſt him: but they, behaving in a careleſs manner, were firſt defeated by their enemies, and afterwards turned their arms againſt thoſe they came to aſſiſt. He next applied to the Catalans, who behaved in the ſame manner; and having ravaged the few places left the emperor in Aſia, returned into Europe, and called the Turks to their aſſiſtance.

153 Their firſt appearance in Europe.

This happened in the year 1292, and was the firſt appearance of the Turks in Europe. This enterpriſe, however, was unſucceſsful. Having loaded themſelves with booty, they offered to depart quietly if they were allowed a ſafe paſſage, and ſhips to tranſport them to Aſia. To this the emperor, willing to get rid of ſuch troubleſome guests, readily conſented, and ordered the veſſels to be got ready with all poſſible expedition. But the Greek officers obſerving the immenſe booty with which they were loaded, reſolved to fall upon them in the night, and cut them off all at once. This ſcheme, however, was not managed with ſuch ſecrecy but that the Turks had notice of it, and therefore prepared for their defence. They firſt ſurpriſed a ſtrong caſtle in the neighbourhood, and then found means to acquaint their countrymen in Aſia with their dangerous ſituation. Their brethren, enticed with the hopes of booty, were not long in coming to their aſſiſtance; and having croſſed the Helleſpont in great numbers, ravaged

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ravaged the adjacent country, making excurſions to the very gates of Conſtantinople. At laſt the emperor determined to root them out; and accordingly marched againſt them with all his forces, the country people flocking to him from all quarters. The Turks at firſt gave themſelves over for loſt; but finding the Greeks negligent of diſcipline, they attacked their army unexpectedly, utterly defeated it, and made themſelves maſters of the camp. After this unexpected victory, they continued for two years to ravage Thrace in the moſt terrible manner. At laſt, however, they were defeated; and being afterwards ſhut up in the Cherſoneſus, they were all cut in pieces or taken.

154 They are all cut in pieces or taken.

Soon after new commotions took place in this unhappy empire, of which the Turks did not fail to take the advantage. In 1327 they made themſelves maſters of moſt of the cities on the Mæander; and, among the reſt, of the ſtrong and important city of Pruſa in Bithynia. The next year, however, Othoman, who may juſtly be ſtyled the founder of the Turkiſh monarchy, being dead, the emperor laid hold of that opportunity to recover Nice, and ſome other important places, from the infidels. But theſe were loſt the year following, together with Abydus and Nicomedia; and in 1330 a peace was concluded upon condition that they ſhould keep all their conqueſts. This peace they obſerved no longer than ſerved their own purpoſes; for new commotions breaking out in the empire, they purſued their conqueſts, and by the year 1357 had reduced all Aſia. They next paſſed the Helleſpont under the conduct of Solyman the ſon, or, as others will have it, the brother of Orchane, the ſucceſſor of Othoman, and ſeized on a ſtrong caſtle on the European ſide. Soon after the Turkiſh ſultan died, and was ſucceeded by Amurath. He extended the conqueſts of his predeceſſors, and in a ſhort time reduced all Thrace, making Adrianople the ſeat of his empire. Amurath was ſlain by treachery in a little time after, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Bajazet. This prince greatly enlarged his dominions by new conqueſts. In a ſhort time he reduced the countries of Theſſaly, Macedon, Phocis, Peloponneſus, Myſia, and Bulgaria, driving out the deſpots or petty princes who ruled there. Elated with his frequent victories, he began to look upon the Greek emperor, to whom nothing was now left but the city of Conſtantinople and the neighbouring country, as his vaſſal. Accordingly he ſent him an arrogant and haughty meſſage, commanding him to pay a yearly tribute, and ſend his ſon Manuel to attend him in his military expeditions. This demand the emperor was obliged to comply with, but died ſoon after, in the year 1392.

155 Adrianople taken by the Turks.

Manuel no ſooner heard of his father's death than he haſtened to Conſtantinople, without taking leave of the ſultan, or acquainting him with the reaſon of his ſudden departure. At this Bajazet was ſo highly offended, that he paſſed with great expedition out of Bithynia into Thrace, ravaged the country adjoining to Conſtantinople, and at laſt inveſted the city itſelf, both by ſea and land. In this extremity Manuel had recourſe to the weſtern princes; who ſent him an army of 130,000 men, under the command of Sigiſmund king of Hungary, and John count of Nevers. But though the weſtern troops proved at firſt ſucceſſful, they were in the end defeated with great ſlaughter by Bajazet, who then returned to the ſiege with greater vigour than ever. As he found, however, that the citizens were determined to hold out to the laſt, he applied to John, the ſon of Manuel's elder brother, who had a better title to the crown than Manuel himſelf. With him he entered into a private agreement, by virtue of which Bajazet was to place John upon the throne of Conſtantinople; on the other hand, John was to deliver up the city to the Turks, and remove the imperial city to Peloponneſus, which the ſultan promiſed to relinquiſh to him and his poſterity. At the ſame time, he ſent deputies to the inhabitants of Conſtantinople, offering to withdraw his army, and ceaſe from further hoſtilities, provided they expelled Manuel and placed John upon the throne. This propoſal rent the city into two factions; but Manuel prevented the miſchiefs which were ready to enſue, by a voluntary reſignation, upon condition that he ſhould be allowed to retire to whatever place he thought proper with his wife and children.

156 Bajazet beſieges Conſtantinople.

With this condition John readily complied; and Manuel having received him into the city, and conducted him to the palace, ſet ſail for Venice. From thence he went to the courts of all the weſtern princes, to ſolicit their aſſiſtance againſt the Turks, whoſe power was grown formidable to all Europe. He was everywhere received with the greateſt demonſtrations of eſteem, and promiſed large ſupplies; all Chriſtendom being now alarmed at the progreſs of the infidels.

In the mean time, Bajazet did not fail to put John in mind of his promiſe; but the citizens refuſing to comply with ſuch a ſcandalous treaty, the ſiege was renewed, and the city aſſaulted with more fury than ever. When it was already reduced to the laſt extremity, news were brought the ſultan that Tamerlane, the victorious Tartar, having overrun all the eaſt with incredible celerity, had now turned his arms againſt the Turks, and was preparing to break into Syria. Bajazet, alarmed at the danger that threatened him, raiſed the ſiege in great haſte, and advanced againſt Tamerlane with a very numerous and well-diſciplined army; but the Tartar totally defeated and took him priſoner, after having cut moſt of his men in pieces: and thus Conſtantinople was preſerved for the preſent.

157 He is defeated and taken priſoner by Tamerlane.

But this relief was of ſhort duration. In 1424 the city was again beſieged by Amurath II. The inhabitants defended themſelves with great bravery; but muſt in the end have ſubmitted, had not the emperor prevailed upon the prince of Caramania to countenance an impoſtor and pretender to the Turkiſh throne. This obliged Amurath to raiſe the ſiege, and march with all his forces againſt the uſurper, whom he ſoon reduced. Having then no other enemies to contend with, he entered Macedon at the head of a powerful army; and having ravaged the country far and near, he took and plundered Theſſalonica, as he did alſo moſt of the cities of Ætolia, Phocis, and Bœotia. From Greece he marched into Servia; which country he ſoon reduced. He next broke into the dominions of the king of Hungary, and beſieged the ſtrong city of Belgrade; but here he met with a vigorous repulſe, no fewer than 15,000 Turks being ſlain by the Chriſtians in one ſally, which obliged the ſultan to drop the enterpriſe and retire.

158 Amurath beſieges Conſtantinople.

159 The ſiege raiſed.

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In his retreat he was attacked by the celebrated John Hunniades, who cut great numbers of his men in pieces, and obliged the reſt to fly with precipitation. Not long after he gained a ſtill more complete victory over the enemy in the plains of Tranſylvania, with the loſs of only 3000 of his own men, whereas 20,000 of the Turks were killed on the field of battle, and almoſt an equal number in the purſuit. Amurath, who was then at Adrianople, ſent an army into Tranſylvania far more numerous than the former; but they were attended with no better ſucceſs, being cut off almoſt to a man by the brave Hungarian. He gained ſeveral other victories no leſs remarkable; but was at laſt entirely defeated in 1448; and with this defeat ended all hopes of preſerving the Roman empire. The unhappy emperor was now obliged to pay an annual tribute of 300,000 aſpers to the ſultan; and to yield up to him ſome ſtrong holds which he ſtill held on the Euxine ſea. However, as he doubted not but Amurath would ſoon attempt to become maſter of the city itſelf, he renewed the union between the Greek and Latin churches, hoping that this would induce the weſtern princes to aſſiſt him in the defence of the city againſt the Turks. This union produced great diſturbances, which the emperor did not long ſurvive, but died in 1448, leaving the empire, now confined within the walls of Conſtantinople, to his brother Conſtantine.

160 Succeſs of John Hunniades againſt the Turks.

161 He is at laſt defeated.

Amurath the Turkiſh ſultan died in 1450, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Mohammed. In the beginning of his reign he entered into an alliance with Conſtantine, and pretended a great deſire to live in friendſhip with him and the other Chriſtian princes; but no ſooner had he put an end to a war in which he was engaged with Ibrahim king of Caramania, than he built a ſtrong fort on the European ſide of the Boſphorus, oppoſite to another in Aſia; in both of which he placed ſtrong garriſons. Theſe two caſtles commanded the ſtraits: and the former being but five miles from the city, kept it in a manner blocked up. This ſoon produced a miſunderſtanding between him and the emperor, which ended in the ſiege of the city. The ſiege commenced on the ſixth of April 1453, Mohammed's numerous forces covering the plains before it on the land-ſide, and a fleet of 300 ſail blocking it up by ſea. The emperor, however, had taken care to ſecure the haven, in which were three large ſhips, 20 ſmall ones, and a great number of galleys, by means of a chain drawn acroſs the entrance. Mohammed began the ſiege by planting batteries as near the city as he could, and raiſing mounts in ſeveral places as high as the walls themſelves, whence the beſieged were inceſſantly galled with ſhowers of arrows. He had in his camp a piece of ordnance of prodigious ſize, which is ſaid to have carried a ball of 100 pounds weight made of hard black ſtone brought from the Euxine ſea. With this vaſt piece the enemy made ſeveral breaches in the walls; which, however, were repaired with incredible expedition by the beſieged. But Mohammed, the better to carry on the ſiege, cauſed new levies to be made through his extenſive dominions, by which his army was ſoon increaſed to near 400,000 men; while the garriſon conſiſted only of 9000 regular troops, viz. 6000 Greeks and 3000 Genoeſe and Venetians. As the enemy continued to batter the walls day and night without intermiſſion, a great part of them was at laſt beaten down; but while the Turks were buſy in filling up the ditch, in order to give the aſſault, a new wall was built. This threw the tyrant into a prodigious rage, which was greatly heightened when he ſaw his whole fleet worſted by five ſhips, four of which were laden with corn from Peloponneſus, and the other with all manner of proviſions from the iſle of Chios. Theſe opened themſelves a way through the whole Turkiſh fleet; and, to the inexpreſſible joy of the Chriſtians, at laſt got ſafe into the harbour.

162 Conſtantinople beſieged by Mohammed.

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The Turks attempted ſeveral times to force the haven; but all their efforts proving ineffectual, Mohammed formed a deſign of conveying 80 galleys over land for the ſpace of eight miles into it. This he accompliſhed by means of certain engines, the contrivance of a renegado; and having then either taken or ſunk all the ſhips contained in it, he cauſed a bridge to be built over it with ſurpriſing expedition. By this means the city was laid open to an aſſault from that ſide likewiſe. The place was now aſſaulted on all ſides; and Conſtantine being well appriſed that he could not long hold out againſt ſuch a mighty fleet and ſo numerous an army, ſent deputies to Mohammed offering to acknowledge himſelf his vaſſal, by paying him yearly what tribute he ſhould think proper to impoſe, provided he raiſed the ſiege and withdrew. The tyrant anſwered that he was determined at all events to become maſter of the city: but if the emperor delivered it up forthwith, he would yield up to him Peloponneſus, and other provinces to his brothers, which they ſhould enjoy peaceably as friends and allies: but if he held out to the laſt extremity, and ſuffered it to be taken by aſſault, he would put him and the whole nobility to the ſword, abandon the city to be plundered by his ſoldiers, and carry the inhabitants into captivity.

163 He conveys 80 galleys over land into the haven.

This condition was raſhly rejected by the emperor; who thereby involved himſelf and all his ſubjects in the moſt terrible calamity. The ſiege was renewed with more vigour than ever, and continued till the 25th of May; when a report being ſpread in the Turkiſh camp that a mighty army was advancing in full march to the relief of the city under the conduct of the celebrated John Hunniades, the common ſoldiers, ſeized with a panic, began to mutiny, and preſſed Mohammed in a tumultuous manner to break up the ſiege. Nay, they openly threatened him with death, if he did not immediately abandon the enterpriſe and retire from before the city, which they deſpaired of being able to reduce before the arrival of the ſuppoſed ſuccours. Mohammed was upon the point of complying with their demand, when he was adviſed by Zagan, a Turkiſh officer of great intrepidity, and an irreconcileable enemy to the Chriſtian name, to give without loſs of time a general aſſault. To this he ſaid the ſoldiery, however mutinous, would not be averſe, provided the ſultan ſolemnly promiſed to abandon the city to be plundered by them. As ſuch an advice best ſuited the humour of Mohammed, he readily embraced it; and cauſed a proclamation to be publiſhed throughout the camp, declaring that he gave up to his ſoldiers all the wealth of that opulent city, requiring to himſelf only the empty houſes.

164 A mutiny in the Turkiſh camp.

The

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The desire of plunder soon got the better of that fear which had seized the Turkish army; and they unanimously desired to be led on to the attack. Hereupon Constantine was summoned for the last time to deliver up the city, with a promise of his life and liberty; but to this he answered, that he was unalterably determined either to defend the city or to perish with it. The attack began at three in the morning on Tuesday the 29th of May; such troops were first employed as the sultan valued least, and designed them for no other purpose than to tire the Christians, who made a prodigious havock of that disorderly multitude. After the carnage had lasted some hours, the Janizaries and other fresh troops advanced in good order, and renewed the attack with incredible vigour. The Christians, summoning all their courage and resolution, twice repulsed the enemy: but being in the end quite spent, they were no longer able to stand their ground; so that the enemy in several places broke into the city. In the mean time Justiniani, the commander of the Genoese and a select body of Greeks, having received two wounds, one in the thigh, and the other in the hand, was so disheartened, that he caused himself to be conveyed to Galata, where he soon after died of grief. His men, dismayed at the sudden flight of their general, immediately quitted their posts and fled in the utmost confusion. However, the emperor, attended with a few of the most resolute among the nobility, still kept his post, striving with unparalleled resolution to oppose the multitude of barbarians that now broke in from every quarter. But being in the end overpowered with numbers, and seeing all his friends lie dead on the ground, "What! (cried he aloud) is there no Christian left alive to strike off my head?" He had scarce uttered these words, when one of the enemy, not knowing him, gave him a deep cut across the face with his sabre; and at the same time, another coming behind him, with a blow on the back part of his head laid him dead on the ground. After the death of the emperor, the few Christians that were left alive betook themselves to flight; and the Turks meeting with no further opposition, entered the city, which they filled with blood and slaughter. They gave no quarter, but put all they met to the sword, without distinction. Many thousands took refuge in the church of St Sophia, but they were all massacred in their asylum by the enraged barbarians; who, prompted by their natural cruelty, the desire of revenge, and love of booty, spared no place nor person. Most of the nobility were, by the sultan's orders, cut off, and the rest kept for purposes more grievous than death itself. Many of the inhabitants, among whom were some men of great learning, found means to make their escape while the Turks were busied in plundering the city. These embarking on five ships then in the harbour, arrived safe in Italy; where, with the study of the Greek tongue, they revived the liberal sciences, which had long been neglected in the west. After the expiration of three days, Mohammed commanded his soldiers to forbear all further hostilities on pain of death: and then put an end to as cruel a pillage and massacre as any mentioned in history. The next day he made his public and triumphal entry into Constantinople, and chose it for the seat of the Turkish empire, which it has continued to be ever since.

165 A general assault given.

166 Bravery of the emperor.

167 He is killed.

168 The town plundered, and the inhabitants massacred.

Constantinopolitan history, Constat.

169 Present state of the city.

This city is now called by the Turks *Istampol*, and by the Greeks *Istampoli* or *Stampoli*. It is seated at the eastern extremity of Romania, on a small neck of land which advances towards Natolia, from which it is separated by a channel of a mile in breadth. The sea of Marmora washes its walls on the south, and a gulf of the channel of Constantinople does the same on the north. It is delightfully situated between the Black sea and the Archipelago, from whence it is supplied with all necessaries. The grand seignior's palace, called the *Seraglio*, is seated on the sea-side, and is surrounded with walls flanked with towers, and separated from the city by canals. It is said the harbour will easily hold 1200 ships. The number of houses must needs be prodigious, since one fire has burnt down 30,000 in a day, without greatly changing the aspect of the city. However, in general, they are but mean, especially on the outside, where there are few or no windows; and the streets being narrow, gives them a melancholy look. They reckon that there are 3770 streets, small and great: but they are seldom or never clean; and the people are infested with the plague almost every year. The inhabitants are half Turks, two-thirds of the other half Christians, and the rest Jews. Here are a great number of ancient monuments still remaining, and particularly the superb temple of Sophia, which is turned into a mosque, and far surpasses all the rest. The street called *Adrianople* is the longest and broadest in the city; and the bazars, or besteins, are the markets for selling all sorts of merchandise. The old and the new are pretty near each other; and are large square buildings, covered with domes, and supported by arches and pilasters. The new is the best, and contains all sorts of goods which are there exposed to sale. The market for slaves of both sexes, is not far off; and the Jews are the principal merchants, who bring them here to be sold. There are a great number of young girls brought from Hungary, Greece, Candia, Russia, Mingrelia, and Georgia, for the service of the Turks, who generally buy them for their seraglios. The great square, near the mosque of Sultan Bajazet, is the place for public diversions, where the jugglers and mountebanks play a great variety of tricks. The circumference of this city is by some said to be 15 miles, and by M. Tournefort 23 miles; to which if we add the suburbs, it may be 34 miles in compass. The suburb called *Pera* is charmingly situated; and is the place where the ambassadors of England, France, Venice, and Holland reside. This city is built in the form of a triangle; and as the ground rises gradually, there is a view of the whole town from the sea. The public buildings, such as the palaces, the mosques, bagnios, and caravansaries for the entertainment of strangers, are many of them very magnificent. E. Long. 29. 20. N. Lat. 41. 4.

CONSTAT, in *Law*, the name of a certificate which the clerk of the pipe and auditors of the exchequer make at the request of any person who intends to plead or move in that court for the discharge of any thing; and the effect of it is, the certifying what does *constare* upon record touching the matter in question.

—A

—A conſtat is held to be ſuperior to a certificate; becauſe this may err or fail in its contents; that cannot, as certifying nothing but what is evident upon record.

Alſo the exemplification under the great ſeal of the inrolment of any letters patent is called a *conſtat*.

CONSTELLATION, in *Aſtronomy*, a ſyſtem of ſeveral ſtars that are ſeen in the heavens near to one another. Aſtronomers not only mark out the ſtars, but, that they may better bring them into order, they diſtinguiſh them by their ſituation and poſition in reſpect to each other; and therefore they diſtribute them into aſteriſms or conſtellations, allowing ſeveral ſtars to make up one conſtellation: and for the better diſtinguiſhing and obſerving them, they reduce the conſtellations to the forms of animals, as men, bulls, bears, &c.; or to the images of ſome things known, as of a crown, a harp, a balance, &c.; or give them the names of thoſe whoſe memories, in conſideration of ſome notable exploit, they had a mind to tranſmit to future ages.

The diviſion of the ſtars by images and figures is of great antiquity, and ſeems to be as old as aſtronomy itſelf: for in the moſt ancient book of Job, Orion, Arcturus, and the Pleiades, are mentioned: and we meet with the names of many of the conſtellations in the writings of the firſt poets, Homer and Heſiod.

The ancients, in their diviſion of the firmament, took in only ſo much as came under their notice, diſtributing it into 48 conſtellations; but the modern aſtronomers comprehend the whole ſtarry firmament, dividing it into three regions. See ASTRONOMY *Index*.

CONSTERNATION is defined by ethical writers to be an exceſs of horror, owing to the ill government of our admiration and fear: or ſuch an immoderate degree of fear as confounds the faculties, and incapacitates a perſon for conſultation and execution.

CONSTIPATION, in *Medicine*, a hardneſs of the belly, with great coſtiveneſs. See COSTIVENESS.

CONSTITUENT PART, in *Phyſiology*, an eſſential part in the compoſition of any thing, differing little from what is otherwiſe called *element* or *principle*.

CONSTITUTION, in matters of policy, ſignifies the form of government eſtabliſhed in any country or kingdom.

CONSTITUTION alſo denotes an ordinance, deciſion, regulation, or law, made by authority of any ſuperior, eccleſiaſtical or civil.

Apoſtolical CONSTITUTIONS, a collection of regulations attributed to the Apoſtles, and ſuppoſed to have been collected by St Clement, whoſe name they likewiſe bear.

It is the general opinion, however, that they are ſpurious, and that St Clement had no hand in them. They appeared firſt in the 4th age, but have been much changed and corrupted ſince that time. They are divided into eight books, conſiſting of a great number of rules and precepts, relating to the duties of Chriſtians, and particularly the ceremonies and diſcipline of the church. Mr Whiſton, in oppoſition to the general opinion, aſſerts them to be a part of the ſacred writings, dictated by the Apoſtles in their meetings, and written down from their own mouths by St Clement; and intended as a ſupplement to the New Teſtament, or rather as a ſyſtem of Chriſtian faith and polity. The reaſon why the Conſtitutions are ſuſpected by the orthodox, and perhaps the reaſon alſo why their genuineneſs is defended by Mr Whiſton, is, that they ſeem to favour Arianiſm.

CONSTITUTION, in a phyſical ſenſe, ſignifies the particular temperature of the body.

It is curious to obſerve, ſays Dr Percival, the revolution which hath taken place, within this century, in the conſtitutions of the inhabitants of Europe. Inflammatory diſeaſes more rarely occur, and, in general, are much leſs rapid and violent in their progreſs than formerly (A); nor do they admit of the ſame antiphlogiſtic method of cure that was practiſed with ſucceſs 100 years ago. The experienced Sydenham makes 40 ounces of blood the mean quantity to be drawn in the acute rheumatiſm; whereas this diſeaſe, as it now appears in the London hoſpitals, will not bear above half that evacuation. Vernal intermittents are frequently cured by a vomit and the bark, without veneſection; which is a proof that at preſent they are accompanied with fewer ſymptoms of inflammation than they were wont to be. This advantageous change, however, is more than counterbalanced by the introduction of a numerous claſs of nervous ailments, in a great meaſure unknown to our anceſtors; but which now prevail univerſally, and are complicated with almoſt every other diſtemper. The bodies of men are enfeebled and enervated; and it is not uncommon to obſerve very high degrees of irritability, under the external appearance of great ſtrength and robuſtneſs. The hypochondria, palſies, cachexies, dropſies, and all thoſe diſeaſes which ariſe from laxity and debility, are in our days endemic everywhere; and the hyſterics, which uſed to be peculiar to the women, as the name itſelf indicates, now attack both ſexes indiſcriminately. It is evident that ſo great a revolution could not be effected without a concurrence of many cauſes; but amongſt theſe (according to Dr Percival), the preſent general uſe of tea * holds the firſt and principal rank. The ſecond place may perhaps be allowed to exceſs in ſpirituous liquors. This pernicious cuſtom, in many inſtances at leaſt, owes its riſe to the former, which, by the lowneſs and depreſſion of ſpirits it occaſions, renders it almoſt neceſſary to have recourſe to ſomething cordial and exhilarating. And hence proceed thoſe odious and diſgraceful habits of intemperance, with which many of the ſofter ſex are now, alas! chargeable.

* See Tea.

CONSTRICTOR, an appellation given to ſeveral muſcles,

(A) The decreaſe in the violence of inflammatory diſeaſes may perhaps in part be aſcribed to the preſent improved method of treating them. Moderate evacuations, cool air, aceſcent diet, and the liberal uſe of ſaline and antimonial medicines, are better adapted to check the progreſs of fevers, than copious bleedings, ſtimulating purgatives, and profuſe ſweats excited by theriaca and mithridate.

muſcles, on account of their conſtringing or cloſing ſome of the orifices of the body.

CONSTRUCTION, in *Geometry*, is the drawing ſuch lines, ſuch a figure, &c. as are previouſly neceſſary for making any demonſtration appear more plain and undeniable.

CONSTRUCTION of Equations. See EQUATIONS.

CONSTRUCTION, in *Grammar;* ſyntax, or the arranging and connecting the words of a ſentence according to the rules of the language. See GRAMMAR and LANGUAGE.

The conſtruction is generally more ſimple, eaſy, and direct, in the modern tongues than in the ancient: we have very few of thoſe inverſions which occaſion ſo much embarraſſment and obſcurity in the Latin; our thoughts are uſually delivered in the ſame order wherein the imagination conceives them: the nominative caſe, for inſtance, always precedes the verb, and the verb goes before the oblique caſes it governs.

The Greeks and Latins, M. St Evremont obſerves, uſually end their periods, where, in good ſenſe and reaſon, they ſhould have begun; and the elegance of their language conſiſts, in ſome meaſure, in this capricious arrangement, or rather in this tranſpoſal and diſorder of the words. See LANGUAGE.

CONSTRUCTION of Statutes, among lawyers. See LAW *Index*.

CONSUALIA, in antiquity, feaſts which were held among the ancients, in honour of the god Conſus, i. e. Neptune; different from thoſe other feaſts of the ſame deity called *Neptunalia*. They were introduced with a magnificent cavalcade, or proceſſion on horſeback; becauſe Neptune was reputed to have firſt taught men the uſe of horſes; whence his ſurname of Ἵππιος, *Equeſtris*.

Evander is ſaid to have firſt inſtituted this feaſt: it was re-eſtabliſhed by Romulus, under the name of *Conſus;* becauſe it was ſome god under the denomination of Conſus that ſuggeſted to him the rape of the Sabines. It is ſaid, that it was with a view to this rape that he made that eſtabliſhment. This, however, is certain, that it was to this feaſt all his neighbours were invited; when, taking advantage of the ſolemnities and ſacrifices, he ſeized the women. To draw the greater concourſe of people, he gave out, that he had found an altar hid under ground, which he intended to conſecrate, with ſacrifices to the god to whom it had been originally erected. Thoſe who take upon them to explain the myſteries of the heathen theology, ſay, that the altar hid under ground is a ſymbol of the ſecret deſign of Romulus to ſeize his neighbours wives.

The conſualia were of the number of feaſts called ſacred; as being conſecrated to a divinity. Originally they were not diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the circus; whence it is, that Valerius Maximus ſays, that the rape of the Sabines was effected at the games of the circus.

Plutarch obſerves, that during the days of this ſolemnity, horſes and aſſes were left at reſt, and were dreſſed up with crowns, &c. on account of its being the feaſt of Neptunus Equeſtris. Feſtus ſays, the cavalcade was performed with mules; it being an opinion, that this was the firſt animal uſed to draw the car.

Servius gives us to underſtand, that the conſualia fell on the 13th of Auguſt; Plutarch, in the life of Romulus, placed them on the 18th, and the old Roman kalendar on the 21ſt of that month.

CONSUBSTANTIAL, in *Theology*, a term of like import with co-eſſential; denoting ſomething of the ſame ſubſtance with another. The orthodox believe the Son of God to be conſubſtantial with the Father.

The term ὁμοούσιος, *conſubſtantial*, was firſt adopted by the fathers of the councils of Antioch and Nice, to expreſs the orthodox doctrine the more preciſely, and to ſerve as a barrier and precaution againſt the errors and ſubtleties of the Arians; who owned every thing excepting the conſubſtantiality.

The Arians allowed, that the Word was God, as having been made God; but they denied that he was the ſame God, and of the ſame ſubſtance with the Father: accordingly they exerted themſelves to the utmoſt to aboliſh the uſe of the word. The emperor Conſtantine uſed all his authority with the biſhops to have it expunged out of the ſymbols; but it ſtill maintained itſelf, and is at this day, as it was then, the diſtinguiſhing criterion between an Athanaſian and an Arian.

Sandius will have it, that the word conſubſtantial was unknown till the time of the council of Nice; but it is certain it had been before propoſed to the council of Antioch, wherein Paulus Samoſatenus had been condemned; though it had there the fortune to be rejected. Curcellæus, on the other hand, maintains that it was an innovation in doctrine in the council of Nice, to admit an expreſſion, the uſe whereof had been aboliſhed by the council of Antioch.

According to St Athanaſius, the word conſubſtantial was only condemned in the council of Antioch, inaſmuch as it implied the idea of a pre-exiſtent matter, prior to the things formed thereof; now, in this ſenſe, it is certain, the Father and the Son are not conſubſtantial, there having been no pre-exiſtent matter.

CONSUBSTANTIATION, a tenet of the Lutheran church with regard to the manner of the change made in the bread and wine in the euchariſt. The divines of that profeſſion maintain, that after conſecration, the body and blood of our Saviour, are ſubſtantially preſent, together with the ſubſtance of the bread and wine, which is called *conſubſtantiation*, or *impanation*.

CONSUL, the chief magiſtrate of the Roman commonwealth, inveſted with regal authority for the ſpace of one year. They were two in number, called conſuls *à conſulendo*, and annually choſen in the Campus Martius. The two firſt conſuls were L. Jun. Brutus, and L. Tarquinius Collatinus, choſen in the year of Rome 244, after the expulſion of the Tarquins. In the firſt times of the republic the two conſuls were always choſen from patrician families or noblemen, but the people obtained the privilege in the year of Rome 388, of electing one of the conſuls from their own body, and ſometimes both were plebeians. The firſt conſul among the plebeians was L. Sextius. It was required that every candidate for the conſulſhip ſhould be 43 years of age, called *legitimum tempus*. He was always to appear at the election as a private man without a retinue,

retinue, and it was requisite before he canvassed for the office to have discharged the functions of quæstor, edile, and prætor. Sometimes these qualifications were disregarded. Val. Corvinus was made a consul in his 23d year, and Scipio in his 24th. Young Marius, Pompey, and Augustus, were also under the proper age, when they were invested with the office, and Pompey had never been quæstor or prætor. The power of the consuls was unbounded, and they knew no superior but the gods and the laws; but after the expiration of their office their conduct was minutely scrutinized by the people, and misbehaviour was often punished by the laws. The badge of their office was the *prætexta*, a robe fringed with purple, afterwards exchanged for the *toga picta* or *palmata*. They were preceded by 12 lictors carrying the *fasces* or bundles of sticks, in the middle of which appeared an axe. The axe, as being the characteristic rather of tyranny than of freedom, was taken away from the *fasces* by Valerius Poplicola, but it was restored by his successor. They took it by turns monthly to be preceded by the lictors while at Rome, lest the appearance of two persons with the badges of royal authority should raise apprehensions in the multitude. While one appeared publicly in state, only a crier walked before the other, and the lictors followed behind without the fasces. Their authority was equal; yet the Valerian law gave the right of priority to the older, and the Julian law to him who had most children; and he was generally called *consul major* or *prior*. As their power was absolute, they presided over the senate, and could convene and dismiss it at pleasure. The senators were their counsellors; and among the Romans the manner of reckoning their year was by the name of the consuls, and by *M. Tull. Cicerone et L. Antonio Consulibus*, for instance, the year of Rome 689 was always understood. This custom lasted from the year of Rome 244 till 1294, or the 541st year of the Christian era. In public assemblies the consuls sat in ivory chairs, and held in their hand an ivory wand called *scipio eburneus*, which had an eagle on its top as a sign of dignity and power. When they had drawn by lot the provinces over which they were to preside during their consulship, they went to the capitol to offer their prayers to the gods, and intreat them to protect the republic; after this they departed from the city arrayed in their military dress and preceded by the lictors. Sometimes the provinces were assigned them without drawing by lot, by the will and appointment of the senators. At their departure they were provided by the state with whatever was requisite during their expedition. In their provinces they were both attended by the 12 lictors, and equally invested with regal authority. They were not permitted to return to Rome without the special command of the senate; and they always remained in the province till the arrival of their successor. At their return they harangued the people, and solemnly protested that they had done nothing against the laws or interest of their country, but had faithfully and diligently endeavoured to promote the greatness and welfare of the state. No man could be consul two following years; yet this institution was sometimes broken, and we find Marius re-elected consul after the expiration of his office during the Cimbrian war. The office of consul, so dignified during the times of the commonwealth, became a mere title under the emperors, and retained nothing of its authority but the useless ensigns of original dignity. Even the duration of the office, which was originally annual, was reduced to two or three months by Julius Cæsar; but they who were admitted on the first of January denominated the year, and were called *ordinarii*. Their successors during the year were distinguished by the name of *suffecti*. Tiberius and Claudius abridged the time of the consulship; and the emperor Commodus made no less than 25 consuls in one year. Constantine the Great renewed the original institution, and permitted them to be a whole year in office.

CONSUL, at present, is an officer established by virtue of a commission from the king and other princes, in all foreign countries of any considerable trade, to facilitate and dispatch business, and protect the merchants of the nation. The consuls are to keep up a correspondence with the ministers of England residing in the courts whereon their consulate depends. They are to support the commerce and the interest of the nation; to dispose of the sums given and the presents made to the lords and principals of places, to obtain their protection, and prevent the insults of the natives on the merchants of the nation.

CONSUMMATION, the end, period, or completion of any work. Thus, we say, the *consummation* of all things, meaning the end of the world. By the incarnation, all the prophecies are said to be *consummated*. See PROPHECY and ACCOMPLISHMENT.

CONSUMMATION of Marriage, denotes the last act of marriage, which makes its accomplishment; or the most intimate union between the married pair, &c.

CONSUMPTION, in *Medicine*, a word of very extensive signification, implies all disorders that bring any decay or waste upon the constitution; but is most commonly used for the *phthisis pulmonalis*. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CONSUMPTION, in *Farriery*. See FARRIERY *Index*.

CONSUS, the pagan god of counsel. He had an altar under ground in the great circus at Rome, to show that counsel ought to be kept secret. See CONSUALIA.

CONTACT, is when one line, plane, or body, is made to touch another; and the parts that do thus touch are called the *points* or *places of contact*.

CONTAGION, in *Physic*, the communicating a disease from one body to another. In some diseases it is only effected by an immediate contact or touch, as in syphilis; in others it is conveyed by infected clothes; and in others it is supposed to be transmitted through the air at a considerable distance, by means of steams or effluvia arising from the sick, as in the plague and other pestilential disorders, in which case the air is said to be contagious, though this has been disputed.

No attempts which have yet been made to investigate the nature of contagion, or to ascertain the properties of contagious matter, have proved successful. But from the means which have been effectually employed either to abate its virulence or to destroy it entirely, this matter may be fairly inferred to be of a chemical nature. We have already detailed the effects of the fumes of muriatic acid in purifying the cathedral of Dijon, which were successfully used by Morveau in 1773.

Contagion. 1773. Purſuing this hint, no doubt, Dr Carmichael Smyth propoſed the fumes of nitric acid. This was tried on board different ſhips at Sheerneſs about the year 1796; and being found to anſwer the purpoſe of deſtroying the contagion which then prevailed, Dr Smyth afterwards received a liberal reward from government for his diſcovery. Theſe experiments were conducted on board the Union hoſpital ſhip by Mr Menzies ſurgeon of the Diſcovery, and Mr Baſſan ſurgeon of the Union. The wards at this time were very much crowded with patients; and of 200 ſick on board, 150 were in different ſtages of a malignant contagious fever, which made a very rapid progreſs, and produced very fatal effects on the attendants and ſhip's company.

The materials and apparatus employed in the proceſs were the following: A quantity of fine ſand, two dozen quart earthen pipkins, as many common tea-cups, ſome long ſlips of glaſs to be uſed as ſpatulas, a quantity of concentrated ſulphuric acid, and a quantity of ſaltpetre (nitrate of potaſh).

The proceſs was conducted in the following manner: 1ſt, All the ports and ſcuttles were ſhut up; the ſand, previouſly heated in iron pots, was ſcooped out into the pipkins with an iron ladle; and in this heated ſand, in each pipkin, a ſmall tea-cup was immerſed, containing about half an ounce of ſulphuric acid, to which, after it had acquired a proper degree of heat, an equal quantity of nitrate of potaſh in powder was gradually added, and the mixture ſtirred with a glaſs ſpatula till the vapour aroſe from it in conſiderable quantity. The pipkins were then carried through the wards by the nurſes and convaleſcents, who kept walking about with them in their hands, occaſionally putting them under the cradles of the ſick, and in every corner where any foul air was ſuſpected to lodge. In this manner they continued fumigating, until the whole ſpace between decks, fore and aft, was filled with the vapour, which appeared like a thick haze.

The vapour at firſt excited coughing among the patients, which gradually ceaſed as it became more generally diffuſed through the wards: part of this effect, however, was to be attributed to the inattention of thoſe who carried the pipkins, in putting them too near the faces of the ſick; which cauſed them to inhale the ſtrong vapour as it immediately iſſued from the cups.

The body-clothes and bed-clothes of the ſick were, as much as poſſible, expoſed to the nitrous vapour during the fumigation; and all the foul linen removed from them was immediately immerſed in a tub of cold water, afterwards carried on deck, rinſed out, and hung up till nearly dry, and then fumigated before it was taken to the waſh-houſe: a precaution extremely neceſſary in every caſe of infectious diſorder. Proper attention was alſo paid to cleanlineſs and ventilation.

Three hours were at firſt found neceſſary to fumigate the ſhip. In about an hour after, the vapour having entirely ſubſided, the ports and ſcuttles were thrown open for the admiſſion of freſh air. It could plainly be perceived that the air of the hoſpital was greatly ſweetened even after this firſt fumigation. The proceſs was repeated again next morning; and the people employed, being now more expert, finiſhed the whole in about an hour's time. In an hour afterwards, the vapour having entirely ſubſided, the freſh air was freely admitted into the hoſpital as before. Fewer pipkins were employed for the evening fumigations than for thoſe of the mornings, as the freſh air could not be admitted ſo freely after the former as the latter.

The pleaſing and immediate effect of the fumigation in deſtroying the offenſive and diſagreeable ſmell, ariſing from ſo many ſick crowded together, was now very perceptible, even to the attendants; the conſequence of which was, that they began to place ſome degree of confidence in its efficacy, and approached the cradles of the infected with leſs dread of being attacked with the diſorder: thus the ſick were better attended, and the duty of the hoſpital was more regularly and more cheerfully performed.

From the 26th of November 1795, when the fumigation was firſt reſorted to, till the 25th of December, not a perſon on board was attacked with the fever, though, in the three months preceding, more than one-third of all the people in the ſhip had been ſeized with the diſtemper, and of theſe more than one in four were carried off by it; and the probability is, that the ſickneſs and mortality would have gone on, increaſing in proportion to the diffuſion of the contagion, and to the increaſing deſpondency of the people, who conſidered themſelves as ſo many devoted victims.

The advantage of the fumigation was not felt by the ſhip's company and attendants alone, whom it preſerved from the baneful effects of the fever: the ſick and convaleſcents derived almoſt an equal benefit from it. The ſymptoms of the diſeaſe became milder, and loſt much of their malignant appearance; and the advantage of a pure and ſweet air to convaleſcents muſt be obvious.

Great confidence is always dangerous. It proved ſo on the preſent occaſion. On the 17th of December they imagined themſelves ſo ſecure, that they diſcontinued the cuſtom of fumigating morning and evening, thinking that once a-day was ſufficient. On the 25th, one of the nurſes ſuffered a ſlight attack; and on the 26th a marine, who, for a week before, had been in a ſtate of intoxication, was ſeized with the fever, and died. Theſe two accidents gave immediate alarm: they returned again to the practice of fumigating twice a-day; and from that time to the extermination of the diſorder, there was not an inſtance of a perſon ſuffering from contagion on board the ſhip.

The ſucceſs of the experiment was not confined to the Union: the power of the nitrous vapour to deſtroy contagion was equally diſplayed on board ſome Ruſſian ſhips then in the Downs. The ſafety, too, with which it may be employed, in any ſituation, without inconvenience or riſk of fire, is another great recommendation in its favour.

It will not be difficult from this deſcription to employ this kind of fumigation. It is only neceſſary to obſerve, for the ſake of thoſe who may not be verſant in chemical purſuits, that the ingredients ought to be pure, and neither metal veſſels nor rods ſhould be uſed. Any kind of metal getting among the ingredients would cauſe the vapour to be very noxious inſtead of ſalutary. The fumes that riſe ſhould be white; if they are of a red colour, there is reaſon to ſuſpect the purity of the ingredients.

The importance of this diſcovery need not be inſiſted on;

on: it is equally applicable to every ſpecies of putrid contagion, even to the plague itſelf. It ſhould therefore be uſed in all hoſpitals and pariſh workhouſes; and ſhould be conſtantly reſorted to by the proprietors of all large works, on the firſt appearance of infectious diſeaſe among the people employed in them:—indeed, it ſhould be employed even as a preventive in all ſituations where a number of people, from the nature of their buſineſs, are obliged to be crowded together, or where, from local circumſtances, there are reaſons for ſuſpecting that the purity of the air is injured by noxious exhalations or other cauſes. If there be any circumſtances in which its utility may be called in queſtion, it can only be in caſes of inflammatory diſeaſes: for, in ſuch, ſuper-oxygenation has been found hurtful.

CONTEMPLATION, an act of the mind, whereby it applies itſelf to conſider and reflect upon the works of God, nature, &c.

CONTEMPORARY, or COTEMPORARY, a perſon or thing that exiſted in the ſame age with another. Thus, Socrates, Plato, and Ariſtophanes, were contemporaries.

CONTEMPT, in a general ſenſe, the act of deſpiſing, or the ſtate of being deſpiſed.

CONTEMPT, in *Law*, is a diſobedience to the rules and orders of a court, which hath power to puniſh ſuch offence; and as this is ſometimes a greater, and ſometimes a leſſer offence, ſo it is puniſhed with greater or leſs puniſhment, by fine, and ſometimes by impriſonment.

CONTENT, in *Geometry*, the area or quantity of matter or ſpace included in certain bounds.

CONTESSA, a port-town of Turkey in Europe, in the province of Macedonia, ſituated on a bay of the Archipelago, about 200 miles weſt of Conſtantinople. E. Long. 25. 0. N. Lat. 41. 0.

CONTEXT, among divines and critics, that part of Scripture or other writing which lies about the text, before or after it, or both. To take the full and genuine ſenſe of the text, the context ſhould be regarded.

CONTEXTURE, a word frequently uſed in ſpeaking both of the works of nature and art; and denoting the diſpoſition and union of the conſtituent parts with reſpect to one another.

CONTI, a town of Picardy in France, with the title of a principality. It is ſeated on the river Seille, in E. Long. 2. 17. N. Lat. 49. 54.

CONTIGUITY, in *Geometry*, is when the ſurface of one body touches that of another.

CONTIGUOUS, a relative term underſtood of things diſpoſed ſo near each other, that they join their ſurfaces, or touch. The houſes in ancient Rome were not contiguous as ours are, but all inſulated.

CONTINENCE, in *Ethics*, a moral virtue, by which we reſiſt concupiſcence. It ſhould ſeem that there is this diſtinction between chaſtity and continence, in that it requires no effort to be chaſte, which reſults from conſtitution; whereas continence appears to be the conſequence of a victory gained over ourſelves. The verb *continere*, in the Latin, ſignifies "to reſtrain." The term, however, is moſt uſually applied to men; as *chaſtity* is to women. See CHASTITY.

Continence is a virtue that makes but an inconſiderable figure in our days. However, we ought not to loſe our ideas of things, though we have debauched our true reliſh in our practice: for, after all, ſolid virtue will keep its place in the opinion of the wiſe and ſenſible part of mankind. And though cuſtom has not made it ſo ſcandalous as it ought to be to enſnare innocent women, and triumph in the falſehood; ſuch actions as we ſhall relate muſt be accounted true gallantry, and riſe higher in our eſteem the farther they are removed from our imitation.

1. Scipio the younger, when only 24 years of age, was appointed by the Roman republic to the command of the army againſt the Spaniards. His wiſdom and valour would have done honour to the moſt experienced general. Determined to ſtrike an important blow, he forms a deſign of beſieging Carthagena, then the capital of the Carthaginian empire in Spain. His meaſures were ſo judiciouſly concerted, and with ſo much courage and intrepidity purſued both by ſea and land, that notwithſtanding a bold and vigorous defence, the capital was taken by ſtorm. The plunder was immenſe. Ten thouſand free-men were made priſoners; and above 300 more, of both ſexes, were received as hoſtages. One of the latter, a very ancient lady, the wife of Mandonius, brother of Indibilis king of the Ilergetes, watching her opportunity, came out of the crowd, and throwing herſelf at the conqueror's feet, conjured him, with tears in her eyes, to recommend to thoſe who had the ladies in their keeping to have regard to their ſex and birth. Scipio, who did not underſtand her meaning at firſt, aſſured her that he had given orders that they ſhould not want for any thing. But the lady replied, "Thoſe conveniences are not what affect us. In the condition to which fortune hath reduced us, with what ought we not to be contented! I have many other apprehenſions, when I conſider, on one ſide, the licentiouſneſs of war; and on the other, the youth and beauty of the princeſſes which you ſee here before us: for as to me, my age protects me from all fear in this reſpect." She had with her the daughters of Indibilis, and ſeveral other ladies of high rank, all in the flower of youth, who conſidered her as their mother. Scipio then comprehending what the ſubject of her fear was, "My own glory (ſays he) and that of the Roman people, are concerned, in not ſuffering that virtue, which ought always to be reſpected wherever we find it, ſhould be expoſed in my camp to a treatment unworthy of it. But you give me a new motive for being more ſtrict in my care of it, in the virtuous ſolicitude you ſhow in thinking only of the preſervation of your honour, in the midſt of ſo many other objects of fear." After this converſation, he committed the care of the ladies to ſome officers of experienced prudence, ſtrictly commanding that they ſhould treat them with all the reſpect they could pay to the mothers, wives, and daughters, of their allies and particular friends. It was not long before Scipio's integrity and virtue were put to the trial. Being retired in his camp, ſome of his officers brought him a young virgin of ſuch exquiſite beauty, that ſhe drew upon her the eyes and admiration of every body. The young conqueror ſtarted from his ſeat with confuſion and ſurpriſe; and, like one thunder-ſtruck, ſeemed to be robbed of that preſence of mind and ſelf-poſſeſſion ſo neceſſary in a general, and for which

Livy, Val. Maximus, &c.

Continence. which Scipio was remarkably famous. In a few moments, having rallied his ſtraggling ſpirits, he inquired of the beautiful captive, in the moſt civil and polite manner, concerning her country, birth, and connections; and finding that ſhe was betrothed to a Celtiberian prince named Allucius, he ordered both him and the captive's father to be ſent for. The Spaniſh prince no ſooner appeared in his preſence, than, even before he ſpake to the father and mother, he took him aſide; and, to remove the anxiety he might be in on account of the young lady, he addreſſed him in theſe words: "You and I are young, which admits of my ſpeaking to you with more liberty. Thoſe who brought me your future ſpouſe, aſſured me, at the ſame time, that you loved her with extreme tenderneſs; and her beauty left me no room to doubt it. Upon which reflecting, that if, like you, I had thought of making an engagement, and were not wholly engroſſed with the affairs of my country, I ſhould deſire that ſo honourable and legitimate a paſſion ſhould find favour, I think myſelf happy in the preſent conjuncture to do you this ſervice. Though the fortune of war has made me your maſter, I deſire to be your friend. Here is your wife: take her, and may the gods bleſs you with her. One thing, however, I would have you be fully aſſured of, that ſhe has been amongſt us as ſhe would have been in the houſe of her father and mother. Far be it from Scipio to purchaſe a looſe and momentary pleaſure at the expence of virtue, honour, and the happineſs of an honeſt man. No; I have kept her for you, in order to make you a preſent worthy of you and of me. The only gratitude I require of you for this ineſtimable gift is, that you would be a friend to the Roman people." Allucius's heart was too full to make him any anſwer; but throwing himſelf at the general's feet, he wept aloud. The captive lady fell into the ſame poſture: and remained ſo, till the father burſt out into the following words: "Oh! divine Scipio! the gods have given you more than human virtue! Oh! glorious leader! Oh! wondrous youth! does not that obliged virgin give you, while ſhe prays to the gods for your proſperity, raptures above all the tranſports you could have reaped from the poſſeſſion of her injured perſon?"

The relations of the young lady had brought with them a very conſiderable ſum for her ranſom: but when they ſaw that ſhe was reſtored to them in ſo generous and godlike a manner, they intreated the conqueror, with great earneſtneſs, to accept that ſum as a preſent; and declared, by his complying, that new favour would complete their joy and gratitude. Scipio, not being able to reſiſt ſuch a warm and earneſt ſolicitation, told them that he accepted the gift; and ordered it to be laid at his feet: then addreſſing himſelf to Allucius, "I add (ſays he) to the portion which you are to receive from your father-in-law this ſum; which I deſire you to accept as a marriage-preſent."

If we conſider that Scipio was at this time in the prime of life, unmarried, and under no reſtraint, we cannot but acknowledge, that the conqueſt he made of himſelf was far more glorious than that of the Carthaginian empire; and though his treatment of this captive prince was not more delicate and generous than what might juſtly be expected from a perſon endowed with reaſon and reflection; yet conſidering how few there are in his circumſtances who would have acted as he did, we cannot but applaud his conduct, and propoſe him as a ſuitable example to future ages. Nor was his virtue unrewarded. The young prince, charmed with the liberality and politeneſs of Scipio, went into his country to publiſh the praiſes of ſo generous a victor. He cried out, in the tranſports of his gratitude, "That there was come into Spain a young hero like the gods, who conquered all things leſs by the force of his arms than the charms of his virtue and the greatneſs of his beneficence." Upon this report all Celtiberia ſubmitted to the Romans; and Allucius returned in a ſhout to Scipio, at the head of 1400 choſen horſe, to facilitate his future conqueſts. To render the marks of his gratitude ſtill more durable, Allucius cauſed the action we have juſt related to be engraven on a ſilver ſhield, which he preſented to Scipio, a preſent infinitely more eſtimable and glorious than all his treaſures and triumphs. This buckler, which Scipio carried with him when he returned to Rome, was loſt, in paſſing the Rhone, with part of the baggage. It continued in that river till the year 1665, when ſome fiſhermen found it. It was, before the revolution, in the king of France's cabinet.

2. The circumſtance which raiſes Alexander the Great above many conquerors, and, as it were, above himſelf, is the uſe he made of his victory after the battle of Iſſus. This is the moſt beautiful incident in his life. It is the point of view in which it is his intereſt to be conſidered; and it is impoſſible for him not to appear truly great in that view. By the victory of Iſſus he became poſſeſſed of the whole Perſian empire; not only Syſigambis, Darius's mother, was his captive, but alſo his wife and daughters, princeſſes whoſe beauty was not to be equalled in all Aſia. Alexander, like Scipio, was in the bloom of life, a conqueror, free, and not yet engaged in matrimony: nevertheleſs, his camp was to thoſe princeſſes a ſacred aſylum, or rather a temple, in which their chaſtity was ſecured as under the guard of virtue itſelf; and ſo highly revered, that Darius, in his expiring moments, hearing the kind treatment they had met with, could not help lifting up his dying hands towards heaven, and wiſhing ſucceſs to ſo wiſe and generous a conqueror, who could govern his paſſions at ſo critical a time. Plutarch informs us more particularly, that the princeſſes lived ſo retired in the camp, according to their own deſire, that they were not ſeen by any perſon except their own attendants; nor did any other perſon dare to approach their apartments. After the firſt viſit, which was a reſpectful and ceremonious one, Alexander, to avoid expoſing himſelf to the dangers of human frailty, made a ſolemn reſolution never to viſit Darius's queen any more. He himſelf informs us of this memorable circumſtance, in a letter written by him to Parmenio, in which he commanded him to put to death certain Macedonians who had forced the wives of ſome foreign ſoldiers. In this letter was the following paragraph: "For as to myſelf, it will be found that I neither ſaw nor would ſee the wife of Darius; and did not ſuffer any one to ſpeak of her beauty before me." *Plutarch.*

3. Iſocrates informs us, that Nicocles, king of Salamin, gloried in never having known any woman beſides

fides his wife; and was amazed that all other contracts of civil ſociety ſhould be treated with due regard, whilſt that of marriage, the moſt ſacred and inviolable of obligations, was broken through with impunity; and that men ſhould not bluſh to commit an infidelity with reſpect to their wives, of which, ſhould their wives be guilty, it would throw them into the utmoſt anguiſh and fury.

4. Henry VI. king of England, though unhappy in his family and government, was nevertheleſs poſſeſſed of many virtues. He was ſo remarkable for his chaſtity, that before his marriage he would not allow any lady of a ſuſpicious character and unguarded conduct to frequent the court: and having obſerved one day ſome ladies with their boſoms uncovered, he turned away his eyes from the indecent object, and reprimanded them ſmartly in the ſimple dialect of the times: "Fy, fy (ſaid he), for ſhame; forſooth ye be to blame." *Rapin.*

5. In the reign of King Charles II. when licentiouſneſs was at its height in Britain, a yeoman of the guards refuſed the miſtreſs of a king. The lady, who was diſſatisfied with her royal lover, had fixed her eyes upon this man, and thought ſhe had no more to do than ſpeak her pleaſure. He got out of her way. He refuſed to underſtand her; and when ſhe preſſed him further, he ſaid, "I am married." The ſtory reached the king, with all its circumſtances; but they who expected an extravagant laugh upon the occaſion were diſappointed. He ſent for the perſon: he found him a gentleman, though reduced to that mean ſtation; and "Odds fiſh, man (ſays he), though I am not honeſt enough to be virtuous myſelf, I value them that are." He gave him an appointment, and reſpected him for life.

6. In many parts the pooreſt people are the moſt virtuous and honeſt in this reſpect. In the Swede's dominion, towards the pole, there is no name for adultery. They thought it an offence man could not commit againſt man; and have no word to expreſs it in their language. The unpoliſhed Lapland peaſant, with theſe thoughts, is, as a human creature, much more reſpectable than the gay Briton, whoſe heart is ſtained with vices, and eſtranged from natural affection; and he is happier. The perfect confidence mutually repoſed between him and the honeſt partner of his breaſt, entails a ſatisfaction even in the loweſt poverty. It gilds the humble hearth, and lights the cabin; their homely meal is a ſacrifice of thanks, and every breath of ſmoke ariſes in incenſe. If hand be laid upon hand, it is ſure affection; and if ſome infant plays about their knees, they look upon him and upon each other with a delight that greatneſs ſeldom knows, becauſe it feels diſtruſt.

CONTINENT, in general, an appellation given to things continued without interruption; in which ſenſe we ſay, *continent fever*, &c.

CONTINENT, in *Geography*, a great extent of land not interrupted by ſeas, in contradiſtinction to iſland and peninſula, &c. See GEOGRAPHY. Sicily is ſaid to have been anciently torn from the continent of Italy; and it is an old tradition, which ſome of our antiquaries ſtill have a regard to, that Britain was formerly a part of the continent of France.

The world is uſually divided into two great continents, the old and the new. Whether there exiſts in the ſouthern hemiſphere another continent, or the whole be only an immenſe watery region, is a queſtion that for near three centuries has engaged the attention of the learned as well as the commercial world, and given riſe to many intereſting voyages and diſcoveries; concerning which, ſee the article *SOUTH Sea.*

CONTINGENT, ſomething caſual or unuſual.—Hence future contingent denotes a conditional event which may or may not happen, according as circumſtances fall out.

CONTINGENT, is alſo a term of relation for the quota that falls to any perſon upon a diviſion. Thus each prince of Germany in time of war is to furniſh ſo many men, ſo much money, and munition, for his contingent.

CONTINUED, or CONTINUAL, in a general ſenſe, means inceſſant, or proceeding without interruption.

CONTINUED Fever, is ſuch a one as ſometimes remits, but never intermits or goes entirely off till its period.

CONTINUED Baſs, in *Muſic*, thus called, ſays Rouſſeau, becauſe it is continued through the whole piece. Its principal uſe, beſides that of regulating the harmony, is to ſupport the voice, and preſerve the tone.—They pretend that it was one Ludovico Viana, of whom a treatiſe ſtill remains, who towards the end of the laſt century firſt put the continued baſs in practice.

CONTINUED Proportion, in *Arithmetic*, is that where the conſequent of the firſt ratio is the ſame with the antecedent of the ſecond; as 4 : 8 :: 8 : 16; in contradiſtinction to diſcrete proportion.

CONTINUITY, is defined by ſome ſchoolmen the immediate coheſion of parts in the ſame quantum: by others, a mode of body, whereby its extremities become one; and by others, a ſtate of body reſulting from the mutual implication of its parts. There are two kinds of continuity, mathematical and phyſical. The firſt is merely imaginary, ſince it ſuppoſes real or phyſical parts where there are none. The other, or phyſical continuity, is that ſtate of two or more particles, in which their parts are ſo mutually implicated as to conſtitute one uninterrupted quantity or continuum.

CONTINUO, in *Muſic*, ſignifies the thorough baſs, as *baſſo continuo* is the continual or thorough baſs, which is ſometimes marked in muſic-books by the letters B. C.

CONTOBABDITES, a ſect in the ſixth century. Their firſt leader was Severus of Antioch; who was ſucceeded by John the grammarian, ſurnamed Philoponus, and one Theodoſius, whoſe followers were alſo called *Theodoſians*. Part of them, who were willing to receive a book compoſed by Theodoſius on the Trinity, made a ſeparate body, and were called *Contobabdites*, from ſome place, which Nicephorus does not mention, but which muſt apparently have been the place where they held their aſſemblies. The Contobabdites allowed of no biſhops; which is the only circumſtance given us concerning them.

CONTOR, CONDOR, or CUNDUR, the American name

name of a ſpecies of VULTURE. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CONTORSION, in general, ſignifies the action of twiſting or wreſting a member of the body out of its natural ſituation. Rope-dancers accuſtom themſelves to contorſions of their limbs from their youth, to render the fibres of their articulations lax, and ſupple to all kinds of poſtures.

CONTORSION, in *Medicine*, has many ſignifications. 1. It denotes the iliac paſſion. 2. An incomplete diſlocation, when a bone is in part, but not entirely, forced from its articulation. 3. A diſlocation of the vertebræ of the back ſidewiſe, or crookedneſs of theſe vertebræ. And, 4. A diſorder of the head, in which it is drawn towards one ſide, either by a ſpaſmodic contraction of the muſcles on the ſame ſide, or a palſy of the antagoniſt muſcles on the other.

CONTORTÆ, the name of the 30th order in Linnæus's Fragments of a natural method, conſiſting of plants which have a ſingle petal, which is twiſted or bent to one ſide. This order contains the following genera, viz. echites, cerbera, gardenia, genipa, microcnemum, nerium, periploca, rawolfia, tabernæmontana, vinca, apocynum, aſclepias, comeraria, ceropegia, cynanchum, plumeria, ſtapelia. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONTOUR, in *Painting*, the outline, or that which defines a figure.

A great part of the ſkill of the painter lies in managing the contours well. Contour, with the Italian painters, ſignifies the lineaments of the face.

CONTOURNE, in *Heraldry*, is uſed when a beaſt is repreſented ſtanding or running with its face to the ſiniſter ſide of the eſcutcheon, they being always ſuppoſed to look to the right, if not otherwiſe expreſſed.

CONTOURNIATED, a term among antiquaries applied to medals, the edges of which appear as if turned in a lathe. This ſort of work ſeems to have had its origin in Greece; and to have been deſigned to perpetuate the memories of great men, particularly thoſe who had borne away the prize at the ſolemn games. Such are thoſe remaining of Homer, Solon, Euclid, Pythagoras, Socrates, and ſeveral athletæ.

CONTRA-HARMONICAL *Proportion*, is that relation of three terms, in which the difference of the firſt and ſecond is to the difference of the ſecond and third, as the third is to the firſt. Thus, for inſtance, 3, 5, and 6, are numbers contra-harmonically proportional; for 2 : 1 :: 6 : 3.

CONTRA-Mure, in *Fortification*, is a little wall built before another partition wall, to ſtrengthen it, ſo that it may reoeive no damage from the adjacent buildings.

CONTRABAND, in *Commerce*, a prohibited commodity or merchandiſe, bought or ſold, imported or exported, in prejudice to the laws and ordinances of a ſtate, or the public prohibitions of the ſovereign. Contraband goods are not only liable to confiſcation themſelves, but alſo ſubject all other allowed merchandiſe found with them in the ſame box, bale, or parcel, together with the horſes, waggons, &c. which conduct them. There are contrabands likewiſe, which, beſides the forfeiture of the goods, are attended with ſeveral penalties and diſabilities.

CONTRACT, in a general ſenſe, a mutual conſent of two or more parties, who voluntarily promiſe and oblige themſelves to do ſomething; pay a certain ſum, or the like. All donations, exchanges, leaſes, &c. are ſo many different contracts.

CONTRACT is particularly uſed, in common law, for an agreement or covenant between two, with a lawful conſideration or cauſe. As, if I ſell my horſe for money; or covenant, in conſideration of 20l. to make you a leaſe of a farm; theſe are good contracts, becauſe there is *quid pro quo*.

Uſurious CONTRACT, is a contract to pay more intereſt for money than the law allows. See USURY.

Thoſe contracts are ſaid to be *null* which the law prohibits the making of; ſuch are all contracts between perſons incapable of contracting, as minors, religious, lunatics, wives without conſent of their huſbands, &c.

CONTRACT is alſo uſed for the inſtrument in writing, which ſerves as a proof of the conſent granted, and the obligation paſſed between the parties.

Among the ancient Romans, contracts, and all voluntary acts, were written, either by the parties themſelves, or by one of the witneſſes, or by a domeſtic ſecretary of one of the parties, whom they called a *notary*, but who was no public perſon as among us.

The contract, when finiſhed, was carried to the magiſtrate, who gave it a public authority by receiving it *inter acta*, into the number of acts under his juriſdiction; giving each of the parties a copy thereof, tranſcribed by his clerks or domeſtic regiſters, and ſealed with his ſeal. Which practice paſſed into France, where it obtained a long time.

CONTRACTILE FORCE, that property or power inherent in certain bodies, whereby, when extended, they are enabled to draw themſelves up again to their former dimenſions.

CONTRACTION, in *Phyſics*, the diminiſhing the extent or dimenſions of a body, or the cauſing its parts to approach nearer to each other; in which ſenſe it ſtands oppoſed to dilation or expanſion.

CONTRACTION is frequently uſed by anatomical writers, to expreſs the ſhrinking up of a fibre, or an aſſemblage of fibres, when extended.

Convulſions and ſpaſms proceed from a preternatural contraction of the fibres of the muſcles of the part convulſed. On the contrary, paralytic diſorders generally proceed from a too great laxneſs of the fibres of the part affected; or from the want of that degree of contraction neceſſary to perform the natural motion or action of the part. In the firſt, therefore, the animal ſpirits are ſuppoſed to flow, either in too great a quantity, or irregularly; and, in the laſt, the animal ſpirits are either denied a free paſſage into the part affected, or the tenſion of the fibrillæ is ſuppoſed inſufficient to promote the circulation.

CONTRACTION, in *Grammar*, is the reducing of two ſyllables into one, as *can't* for *cannot*, *ſhould'ſt* for *ſhouldeſt*, &c.

CONTRADICTION, a ſpecies of direct oppoſition, wherein one thing is found diametrically oppoſite to another.

CONTRADICTORY PROPOSITIONS, are oppoſite

sites, one of which imports a mere and naked denial of the other.

Seeming contradictories is when the members of a period quite disagree in appearance and sound, but perfectly agree and are consistent in sense: thus,

Cowards die many times before their death:
The valiant never taste of death but once.

SHAKESPEARE.

CONTRAFISSURE, in *Surgery*, a kind of fracture, or fissure, in the cranium, which sometimes happens on the side opposite to that which received the blow, or at least at some distance from it.

CONTRAINDICATION, in *Medicine*, is an indication which forbids that to be done which the main scope of a disease points out.

Suppose, e. gr. in the cure of a disease a vomit were judged proper; if the patient be subject to a vomiting of blood, it is a sufficient contraindication as to its exhibition.

CONTRARIETY, an opposition between two things, which imports their being contrary to one another; and consists in this, that one of the terms implies a negation of the other, either mediately or immediately; so that contrariety may be said to be the contrast, or opposition of two things, one of which imports the absence of the other, as love and hatred.

CONTRAST; opposition or dissimilitude of figures, by which one contributes to the visibility or effect of the others. See RESEMBLANCE.

CONTRAST, in *Painting* and *Sculpture*, expresses an opposition or difference of position, attitude, &c. of two or more figures, contrived to make variety in a painting, &c.; as where, in a group of three figures, one is shown before, another behind, and another sidewise, they are said to be in contrast.

The contrast is not only to be observed in the position of several figures, but also in that of the several members of the same figures: thus, if the right arm advance farthest, the right leg is to be hindermost; if the eye be directed one way, the arm to go to the contrary way, &c. The contrast must be pursued even in the drapery.

CONTRAST, in *Architecture*, is to avoid the repetition of the same thing, in order to please by variety.

CONTRATE-WHEEL, in watch-work, that next to the crown, the teeth and hoop whereof lie contrary to those of the other wheels, from whence it takes its name. See *WATCH-Making*.

CONTRAVALLATION, or *the Line of CONTRAVALLATION*, in *Fortification*, a trench guarded with a parapet, and usually cut round about a place by the besiegers, to secure themselves on that side, and to stop the sallies of the garrison. See FORTIFICATION.

CONTRAVENTION, in *Law*, a man's failing to discharge his word, obligation, duty, or the laws or customs of the place.

CONTRAYERVA. See DORSTENIA, BOTANY *Index*.

CONTRE, in *Heraldry*, an appellation given to several bearings, on account of their cutting the shield contrary and opposite ways: thus we meet with contre-bend, contre-chevron, contre-pale, &c. when there are two ordinaries of the same nature opposite to each other, so as colour may be opposed to metal, and metal to colour.

CONTRIBUTION, the payment of each person's quota of the part he is to bear in some imposition, or common expence. See CONTINGENT, &c.—Contributions are either involuntary, as those of taxes and imposts; or voluntary, as those of expences for carrying on some undertaking for the interest of the community.

CONTRIBUTIONS, in a military sense, are impositions paid by frontier countries to secure themselves from being plundered and ruined by the enemy's army. The peasants till their ground under the faith of contributions, as securely as in the time of profound peace.

CONTRITION, in *Theology*, a sorrow for our sins, resulting from the reflection of having offended God, from the sole consideration of his goodness, without any regard to the punishment due to the trespass, and attended with a sincere resolution of forsaking them. The word is derived from the Latin *conterere*, to break or bruise.

CONTROL is properly a double register kept of acts, issues, &c. of the officers or commissioners in the revenue, army, &c. in order to perceive the true state thereof, and to certify the truth, and the due keeping of the acts subject to the enregisterment.

CONTROLLER, an officer appointed to control or oversee the accounts of other officers; and, on occasion, to certify whether or not things have been controlled.

In Britain we have several officers of this name; as controller of the king's house, controller of the navy, controller of the customs, controller of the mint, &c.

CONTROLLER of the Hanaper, an officer who attends the lord chancellor daily, in term and in seal-time, to take all things sealed in leathern bags from the clerks of the hanaper, and to mark the number and effect thereof, and to enter them in a book, with all the duties belonging to the king and other officers for the same, and so charge the clerk of the hanaper with them.

CONTROLLER of the Household, the second officer under the lord steward. The name of his office comes from the French word *contrerouler*. His office is to control the accounts and reckonings of the Green Cloth, of which board he is always a member. He carries a white staff, and is always one of the privy-council. He has 107l. 17s. 6d. a-year wages, and 1092l. 2s. 6d. board wages.

CONTROLLER of the Pipe, an officer of the exchequer, who makes out a summons twice every year, to levy the farms and debts of the pipe. See PIPE and EXCHEQUER.

CONTROLLERS of the Pells, two officers of the exchequer who are the chamberlain's clerks, and keep a control of pell of the receipts and goings out.

CONTUMACY, in *Law*, a refusal to appear in court when legally summoned, or the disobedience to the rules and orders of a court having power to punish such offence.

CONTUSION, in *Medicine* and *Surgery*, any hurt of the body that is inflicted by a blunt instrument. See SURGERY.

CONVALESCENCE, in *Medicine*, the insensible recovery of health; or that state in which, after the cure of a disorder, the body which has been reduced, has not yet regained its vigour, but begins to resume its powers. Proper aliments conduce to the re-establishment of the languid faculties; but as the tone of the bowels is weakened, the digestive faculty is not equal to its office, which is shown by light sweats over the whole body; and the smallest excess in this respect is oftentimes the occasion of dangerous relapses. A person in this state is like a taper relumined, which the least degree of wind is sufficient to extinguish.

CONVALLARIA, or *LILY of the VALLEY*, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, belonging to the hexandria class; and in the natural method ranking under *Sarmentaceæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CONVENARUM URBS, or *Lugdunum*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Convenæ, a people of Gallia Narbonensis, at the foot of the Pyrenees. Its origin was owing to the Sertorian war, Pompey compelling the robbers of the Pyrenees and fugitive slaves to settle there, (Pliny). It stood near the head of the Garonne. Now St Bertrand, in Gascony. E. Long. 30. Lat. 43. 15.

CONVENTICLE, a diminutive of convent; denoting, properly, a cabal, or secret assembly, of a part of the monks of a convent, to make a brigue or party in the election of an abbot. From the ill use of these assemblies, the word is come into disrepute; and now stands for any mischievous, seditious, or irregular assembly. F. Doucine observes, the occidentals always esteemed the fifth general council an unlawful conventicle.

The term conventicle is said, by some, to have been first applied in England to the schools of Wickliff, and has been since used to signify the religious assemblies of all in that country who do not conform to the established doctrines and worship of the church of England.

By 22 Car. II. cap. 1. it is enacted, That if any persons of the age of 16 years, subjects of this kingdom, shall be present at any conventicle, where there are five or more assembled, they shall be fined 5s. for the first offence, and 10s. for the second; and persons preaching incur a penalty of 20l. Also suffering a meeting to be held in a house, &c. is liable to 20l. penalty. Justices of peace have power to enter such houses, and seize persons assembled, &c. And if they neglect their duty, they shall forfeit 100l. And if any constable, &c. know of such meetings, and do not inform a justice of peace, or chief magistrate, &c. he shall forfeit 5l. But the 1st W. and M. cap. 18. ordains, that protestant dissenters shall be exempt from penalties: though, if they meet in a house with the doors locked, barred, or bolted, such dissenters shall have no benefit from 1 W. and M. Officers of the government, &c. present at any conventicle, at which there shall be ten persons, if the royal family be not prayed for in express words, shall forfeit 40l. and be disabled (Stat. 10 Anne, cap. 2.)

CONVENTION, a treaty, contract, or agreement between two or more parties.

CONVENTION is also a name given to an extraordinary assembly of parliament, or the estates of the realm, held without the king's writ. Of this kind was the convention parliament which restored Charles II. This parliament met above a month before his return, and sat full seven months after his restoration, and enacted several laws still in force, which were confirmed by stat. 13 Car. II. c. 7. and c. 14. Such also was the convention of estates in 1688, who upon the retreat of King James II. came to a conclusion that he had abdicated the throne, and that the right of succession devolved to King William and Queen Mary; whereupon their assembly expired as a convention, and was converted into a parliament.

CONVENTION of Estates, in Scotland, was partly of the nature of a parliament; but differing in this, that the former could only lay on taxes, while parliament could both impose taxes and make laws.

CONVENTUAL, something belonging to a convent or monastery. See MONASTERY, and COENOBITE.

CONVENTUAL, is particularly used for a religious who actually resides in a convent; in contradistinction to those who are only guests, or are entertained there, or are in possession of benefices depending on the house. See MONK.

CONVENTUS JURIDICI, were courts of justice established in the Roman provinces; with a resort or extent of jurisdiction, circumscribed and confined within certain limits of district, whither all who were of the resort were to repair for justice. The unseasonable affectation of changing forms of war into forms of civil courts, proved the ruin of Varus and of three legions in Germany, (Florus). *Conventum agere*, is to hold a court of justice.

CONVERGING or *CONVERGENT Lines*, in *Geometry*, are such as continually approach nearer one another, or whose distances become still less and less. These are opposed to divergent lines, the distances of which become continually greater: those lines which converge one way, diverge the other.

CONVERGING Rays, in *Optics*, those rays that, issuing from divers points of an object, incline towards another, till at last they meet and cross, and then become diverging rays.

CONVERGING Series, a series of terms or quantities that always decrease the farther they proceed, or which tend to a certain magnitude or limit: in opposition to diverging series, or such as become continually larger and larger.

CONVERSATION, or DISCOURSE, signifies an interlocution between two, or among more persons: with this distinction, that conversation is used for any general intercourse of sentiments whatever, whereas a discourse means a conversation limited to some particular subject.

There is no part, perhaps, of social life, which affords more real satisfaction than those hours which one passes in rational and unreserved conversation. That conversation, however, may answer the ends for which it was designed, the parties who are to join in it must come together with a determined resolution to please, and to be pleased.

Converſation, Converſe.

In the conduct of it, be not eager to interrupt others, or uneaſy at being yourſelf interrupted; ſince you ſpeak either to amuſe or inſtruct the company, or to receive thoſe benefits from it. Give all, therefore, leave to ſpeak in turn. Hear with patience, and anſwer with preciſion. Inattention is ill manners; it ſhows contempt; and contempt is never forgiven.

Trouble not the company with your own private concerns, as you do not love to be troubled with thoſe of others. Yours are as little to them as theirs are to you. You will need no other rule whereby to judge of this matter.

Contrive, but with dexterity and propriety, that each perſon may have an opportunity of diſcourſing on the ſubject with which he is beſt acquainted. He will be pleaſed, and you will be informed. By obſerving this rule, every one has it in his power to aſſiſt in rendering converſation agreeable; ſince, though he may not chooſe, or be qualified, to ſay much himſelf, he can propoſe queſtions to thoſe who are able to anſwer them.

Avoid ſtories, unleſs ſhort, pointed, and quite *a-propos*. He who deals in them, ſays Swift, muſt either have a very large ſtock, or a good memory, or muſt often change his company. Some have a ſet of them ſtrung together like onions; they take poſſeſſion of the converſation by an early introduction of one, and then you muſt have the whole rope; and there is an end of every thing elſe, perhaps, for that meeting, though you may have heard all twenty times before.

Talk often, but not long. The talent of harangueing private company is inſupportable. Senators and barriſters are apt to be guilty of this fault; and members who never harangue in the houſe will often do it out of the houſe. If the majority of the company be naturally ſilent, or cautious, the converſation will flag, unleſs it be often renewed by one among them who can ſtart new ſubjects. Forbear, however, if poſſible, to broach a ſecond before the firſt is out, leſt your ſtock ſhould not laſt, and you ſhould be obliged to come back to the old barrel. There are thoſe who will repeatedly croſs upon and break into the converſation with a freſh topic, till they have touched upon all and exhauſted none. Economy here is neceſſary for moſt people.

Laugh not at your own wit and humour; leave that to the company.

When the converſation is flowing in a ſerious and uſeful channel, never interrupt it by an ill-timed jeſt. The ſtream is ſcattered, and cannot be again collected.

Diſcourſe not in a whiſper or half-voice, to your next neighbour. It is ill-breeding, and, in ſome degree, a fraud; converſation-ſtock being, as one has well obſerved, a joint and common property.

In reflections on abſent people, go no farther than you would go if they were preſent. "I reſolve (ſays Biſhop Beveridge) never to ſpeak of a man's virtues to his face, nor of his faults behind his back:"—A golden rule! the obſervation of which would, at one ſtroke, baniſh flattery and defamation from the earth.

CONVERSE, in *Mathematics*. One propoſition is called the *converſe* of another, when, after a concluſion is drawn from ſomething ſuppoſed in the converſe propoſition, that concluſion is ſuppoſed; and then, that which in the other was ſuppoſed, is now drawn as a concluſion from it: thus when two ſides of a triangle are equal, the angles under theſe ſides are equal; and, on the converſe, if theſe angles are equal, the two ſides are equal.

Converſe || Convexity.

CONVERSION, in a moral ſenſe, implies a repentance for a temper and conduct unworthy our nature, and unbecoming our obligations to its Author, and a reſolution to act a wiſer and a better part for the future.

Conversion, in *War*, a military motion, whereby the front of a battalion is turned where the flank was, in caſe the battalion is attacked in the flank.

Conversion of Equations, the ſame with reduction of equations by multiplication. See Algebra.

CONVERT, a perſon who has undergone a converſion.

Convert is chiefly uſed in reſpect of changes from one religion, or religious ſect, to another. Converts with relation to the religion turned to, are denominated *apoſtates* with regard to that they have relinquiſhed.

The Jews formerly converted to Chriſtianity in England, were called *converſos*. Henry III. built them a houſe in London, and allowed them a competent ſubſiſtence for their lives; which houſe was called *domus converſorum*. But the number afterwards increaſing, they grew a burden to the crown; upon which they were diſtributed among the monaſteries: and after the expulſion of the Jews under Edward III. the *domus converſorum* was given for keeping of the rolls.

Converts, in a monaſtic ſenſe, are lay-friars, or brothers, admitted for the ſervice of the houſe; without orders, and not allowed to ſing in the choir. Till the eleventh century, the word was uſed for perſons who embraced the monkiſh life at the age of diſcretion; by which they were diſtinguiſhed from thoſe devoted in their childhood by their parents, called *oblati*. But in the eleventh century, when they began to receive into monaſteries illiterate perſons, incapable of being clerks, and only deſtined for bodily labour, the ſignification of the word was neceſſarily changed. F. Mabillon obſerves, that it was John firſt abbot of Vallombroſa who firſt introduced theſe brother converts, diſtinguiſhed by their ſtate from the monks of the choir, who were then either clerks or capable of becoming ſo.

CONVEX, an appellation given to the exterior ſurface of gibbous or globular bodies; in oppoſition to the hollow inner ſurface of ſuch bodies, which is called *concave*; thus we ſay, a convex frieze, lens, mirror, ſuperfices, &c.

CONVEXITY, the exterior ſurface of a convex, i. e. gibbous and globular thing; in oppoſition to concavity, or the inner ſurface, which is hollow or depreſſed. See Concave.

The word is of particular import in catoptrics and dioptrics; where it is applied to mirrors and lenſes.

A convex mirror repreſents its images ſmaller than the objects; as a concave one repreſents them larger: a convex mirror reflects the rays from it, diverging: and therefore diſperſes and weakens their effect: as a concave one reflects them converging; ſo as they

concur in a point, and have their effect increased; and by how much the mirror is a portion of a smaller sphere by so much does it diminish the objects, and disperse the rays the more. See MIRROR.

A convex lens is either convex on both sides, called a *convexo-convex;* or it is plain on one side and convex on the other, called a *plano-convex;* or concave on one side and convex on the other, called a *convexo-concave*, or *concavo-convex*, as the one or the other surface prevails, i. e. as this or that is a portion of a smaller sphere. All convex lenses inflect the rays of light in their passage, i. e. send them out from their convex surface converging, so as that they concur in a point or focus. Hence all convex lenses magnify, i. e. represent their images larger than their objects; and this the more as they are portions of smaller spheres.

CONVEYANCE, in *Law*, a deed or instrument that passes land, &c. from one person to another.

CONVICT, in common law, a person that is found guilty of an offence by the verdict of a jury. See the following article.

CONVICTION, in *Law*. When a jury has given a verdict upon trial, finding the prisoner guilty, he is said to be *convicted* of the crime whereof he stands indicted. See TRIAL.

When the offender is thus convicted, there are two collateral circumstances that immediately arise. 1. On a conviction in general for any felony, the reasonable expences of prosecution are by statute 25 Geo. II. c. 36. to be allowed the prosecutor out of the country-stock, if he petitions the judge for that purpose; and by statute 17 Geo. II. c. 3. poor persons, bound over to give evidence, are likewise entitled to be paid their charges, as well without conviction as with it. 2. On a conviction of larceny in particular, the prosecutor shall have restitution of his goods by virtue of the statute 21 Hen. VIII. c. 11. For by the common law there was no restitution of goods upon an indictment; because it is at the suit of the king only; and therefore the party was enforced to bring an appeal of robbery, in order to have his goods again. But, it being considered that the party prosecuting the offender by indictment, deserves to the full as much encouragement as he who prosecutes by appeal, this statute was made, which enacts, that if any person be convicted of larceny by the evidence of the party robbed, he shall have full restitution of his money, goods, and chattels, or the value of them out of the offender's goods, if he has any, by a writ to be granted by the justices. And the construction of this act having been in great measure conformable to the law of appeals, it has therefore in practice superseded the use of appeals of larceny. For instance, as formerly upon appeals, so now upon indictments of larceny, this writ of restitution shall reach the goods so stolen, notwithstanding the property of them is endeavoured to be altered by sale in market overt. And though this may seem somewhat hard upon the buyer, yet the rule of law is, that *spoliatus debet ante omnia restituti*, especially when he has used all the diligence in his power to convict the felon. And, since the case is reduced to this hard necessity, that either the owner or the buyer must suffer, the law prefers the right of the owner, who has done a meritorious act by pursuing a felon to condign punishment, to the right of the buyer, whose merit is only negative, that he has been guilty of no unfair transaction. And it is now usual for the court, upon the conviction of a felon, to order, without any writ, immediate restitution of such goods as are brought into court, to be made to the several prosecutors. Or else, secondly, without such writ of restitution, the party may peaceably retake his goods wherever he happens to find them, unless a new property be fairly acquired therein. Or, lastly, if the felon be convicted and pardoned, or be allowed his clergy, the party robbed may bring his action of trover against him for his goods, and recover a satisfaction in damages. But such action lies not before prosecution; for so felonies would be made up and healed: and also recaption is unlawful, if it be done with intention to smother and compound the larceny; it then becoming the heinous offence of *theft-bote*.

It is not uncommon, when a person is convicted of a misdemeanour, which principally and more immediately affects some individual, as a battery, imprisonment, or the like, for the court to permit the defendant to *speak with the prosecutor*, before any judgement is pronounced; and if the prosecutor declares himself satisfied, to inflict but a trivial punishment. This is done to reimburse the prosecutor his expences, and make him some private amends, without the trouble and circuity of a civil action. But it is surely a dangerous practice; and, though it may be entrusted to the prudence and discretion of the judges in the superior courts of record, it ought never to be allowed in local or inferior jurisdictions, such as the quarter-sessions; where prosecutions for assaults are by this means too frequently commenced, rather for private lucre than for the great ends of public justice. Above all, it should never be suffered, where the testimony of the prosecutor himself is necessary to convict the defendant; for by this means the rules of evidence are entirely subverted; the prosecutor becomes in effect a plaintiff, and yet is suffered to bear witness for himself. Nay, even a voluntary forgiveness by the party injured, ought not, in true policy, to intercept the stroke of justice. "This (says an elegant writer who pleads with equal strength for the *certainty*, as for the lenity of punishment) may be an act of good nature and humanity, but it is contrary to the good of the public. For although a private citizen may dispense with satisfaction for his private injury, he cannot remove the necessity of public example. The right of punishing belongs not to any one individual or particular, but to the society in general, or to the sovereign who represents that society; and a man may renounce his own portion of this right, but he cannot give up that of others."

CONVICTION, in *Theology*, expresses the first degree of repentance, wherein the sinner becomes sensible of his guilt, of the evil nature of sin, and of the danger of his own ways.

CONVOCATION, an assembly of the clergy of England, by their representatives, to consult of ecclesiastical matters. It is held during the session of parliament, and consists of an upper and a lower house. In the upper sits the bishops, and in the lower the inferior clergy, who are represented by their proctors; consisting of all the deans and archdeacons, of one proctor for

Convocation || Conza.

for every chapter, and two for the clergy of every diocese, in all 143 divines; viz. 22 deans, 53 archdeacons, 24 prebendaries, and 44 proctors of the diocesan clergy. The lower house chooses its prolocutor; whose business it is to take care that the members attend, to collect their debates and votes, and to carry their resolutions to the upper house. The convocation is summoned by the king's writ, directed to the archbishop of each province, requiring him to summon all bishops, deans, archdeacons, &c.

The power of the convocation is limited by a statute of Henry VIII. They are not to make any canons or ecclesiastical laws without the king's license; nor when permitted to make any, can they put them in execution, but under several restrictions. They have the examining and censuring all heretical and schismatical books and persons, &c. but there lies an appeal to the king in chancery, or to his delegates. The clergy in convocation, and their servants, have the same privileges as members of parliament.

Since the year 1665, when the convocation of the clergy gave up the privilege of taxing themselves to the house of commons, they seldom have been allowed to do any business; and are generally prorogued from time to time till dissolved, a new one being generally called along with a new parliament. The only equivalent for giving up the privilege of taxing themselves, was their being allowed to vote at elections for members to the house of commons, which they had not before.

CONVOLUTION, a winding motion, proper to the trunks of some plants, as the convolvulus, or bindweed; the claspers of vines, bryony, &c.

CONVOLVULUS, Bind-weed; a genus of plants of the pentandria class, and in the natural method ranking under the 20th order, *Campanaceæ*. See Botany and Materia Medica *Index*.

CONVOY, in naval affairs, one or more ships of war, employed to accompany and protect merchant ships, and prevent their being insulted by pirates, or the enemies of the state in time of war.

Convoy, in military matters, a body of men that guard any supply of men, money, ammunition, or provisions, conveyed by land into a town, army, or the like, in time of war.

CONUS, a Cone, in *Botany*; a species of fruit or scaly seed-vessel, so termed by Tournefort and other botanists. Linnæus has substituted Strobilus in its place.

Conus, the *Cone-shell*, a genus of shells. See Conchology *Index*.

CONVULSION, a preternatural and violent contraction of the membranous and muscular parts of the body. See Medicine *Index*.

CONWAY, a market-town of Caernarvonshire in North Wales, situated near the mouth of a river of the same name, 15 miles west of St Asaph. W. Long. 3. 50. N. Lat. 53. 20.

CONYZA, Fleabane; a genus of plants of the syngenesia class, ranking under the 49th natural order, *Compositæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CONZA, a town of the kingdom of Naples in Italy, situated in the farther principate, on the river Offanto, 50 miles south-east of the city of Naples. E. Long. 16. 0. N. Lat. 41. 0. It is the see of an archbishop.

Conza, Cook.

COOK, Sir Anthony, descended from Sir Thomas Cook lord mayor of London, was born in 1506, and supposed to have been educated at Cambridge. He was so eminent for his learning, piety, and prudence, that the guardians of King Edward VI. appointed him to be his chief instructor in learning, and to form his manners. He had four daughters; and being resolved to have sons by education, lest he should have none by birth, he taught his daughters those lessons by night that he had instilled into the prince by day; he was happy in his endeavours, as they proved learned in Greek and Latin, and equally distinguished by virtue, piety, and good fortune. Mildred was married to the great Lord Burleigh: Ann to Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the great seal; Elizabeth to Sir John Russel, son and heir of Francis earl of Bedford; and Catharine to Sir Henry Killigrew. He lived in exile during the Marian persecution; and returning on the accession of Queen Elizabeth, spent the rest of his days in peace and honour, dying in 1576.

Cook, *Captain James*, one of the ablest and most celebrated navigators of any country, was the son of James Cook, a labourer or servant in husbandry, and supposed to have been a native of the county of Northumberland, and was born on the 27th of October 1728, at the village of Marton in the north riding of Yorkshire. He was one of nine children, all of whom are now dead except a daughter, who married a fisherman of Redcar. He received the first rudiments of education from the schoolmistress of the village; and afterwards, on his father's removal to Great Ayton, he was put to a day-school, at the expence of Mr Skottow his father's employer, where he was instructed in writing and in a few of the first rules of arithmetic. Before the age of thirteen he was bound apprentice to Mr W. Sanderson, haberdasher or shopkeeper at Straiths, about ten miles from Whitby: but some disagreement taking place between him and his master, he indulged his own inclination in binding himself apprentice to Messrs Walkers of Whitby, who had several vessels in the coal trade; and after serving a few years longer in the situation of a common sailor, he was at length raised to be mate of one of Mr Walker's ships. During all this period it is not recollected that he exhibited any thing peculiar either in his abilities or conduct.

Early in the year 1755, when hostilities broke out between France and England, Cook entered on board the Eagle of sixty guns, to which vessel Sir Hugh Palliser was soon after appointed, who soon distinguished him as an active and diligent seaman; and his promotion was forwarded by a letter of recommendation which was written by Mr Osbaldeston, member for Scarborough, at the request of several neighbours, in Mr Cook's favour. On the 15th of May 1759, he was appointed master of the Mercury, which soon after sailed to America, and joined the fleet under Sir Charles Saunders at the memorable siege of Quebec. His interest with the admiralty appears even then to have been very strong; for on Mr Osbaldeston's letter he was appointed master of the Grampus sloop; but the proper master having unexpectedly returned to her,

Cook. her, the appointment did not take place. Four days after, he was made master of the Garland; when upon inquiry it was found that he could not join her, as the vessel had already sailed: and the next day, May 15th 1759, he was made master of the Mercury. On this occasion he was recommended by Captain Pallifer to a difficult and dangerous service, viz. to take the soundings of the river St Lawrence, between the island of Orleans and the north shore, which he performed in the most complete manner; and soon afterwards he was employed to survey the most dangerous parts of the river below Quebec: these were his first efforts with the pencil. After this expedition he was appointed, on the 22d of September, master of the Northumberland, stationed at Halifax, where he first read Euclid, and applied to astronomy and other branches of science. In the year 1762, he was with the Northumberland, assisting at the recapture of Newfoundland; and in the latter end of the same year he returned to England, and married, at Barking in Essex, Miss Elizabeth Batts. Early in 1763, when Admiral (then Captain) Greaves was appointed governor of Newfoundland, Mr Cook went out with him to survey the coasts of that island. At the end of the season he returned to England; but in the beginning of 1764, Sir Hugh Pallifer being appointed governor of Newfoundland and Labradore, Mr Cook accompanied him in the same capacity of surveyor, and had the Granville schooner to attend him on that business: in this situation he continued till 1767.

While Mr Cook remained on this station, he had an opportunity of exhibiting publicly a specimen of his progress in the study of astronomy, in a short paper printed in the 57th volume of the Philosophical Transactions, entitled "An observation of an eclipse of the sun at the island of Newfoundland, August 5. 1766, with the longitude of the place of observation deduced from it." Mr Cook's observation was made at one of the Burgeo islands near Cape Ray, in N. Lat. 47° 56′ 19″; and by the comparisons of it made by Mr Mitchel, with an observation of Dr Hornsby at Oxford, it appeared to have been accurately done; and Mr Cook at that time obtained the character of an able astronomer.

In the mean time, a spirit for geographical discoveries, which had gradually declined since the beginning of the 17th century, began to discover itself anew. Two voyages of this kind had been performed in the reign of George II. the one under Captain Middleton, the other by Captains Moore and Smyth, with a view to discover a north-west passage through Hudson's Bay to the East Indies. Two others, under Captains Byron, Wallis, and Carteret, had been undertaken soon after the conclusion of the peace in 1763, by order of his present majesty; and before the return of these navigators, who were ordered to sail round the world, another voyage was resolved upon for astronomical purposes. It having been calculated that a transit of Venus over the sun's disk would happen in 1767, a long memorial to his majesty was presented by the Royal Society; in which they set forth the great importance of making proper observations on this phenomenon; the regard that had been paid to it by the different courts of Europe; and intreating, among other things, that a vessel might be fitted out, at the expence of government, for conveying proper persons to some of the Friendly islands, in order to make the necessary observations. This being complied with on the part of his majesty, Alexander Dalrymple, Esq. an eminent member of the Royal Society, was appointed to take the command of the bark appropriated for the purpose. In the execution of the project, however, an unexpected difficulty occurred. Mr Dalrymple, sensible of the impossibility of guiding a vessel through unknown and dangerous seas without any proper command over the crew, demanded a brevet commission as captain of the vessel, in the same manner as had formerly been granted to Dr Halley in a voyage of discovery made by him. This commission Sir Edward Hawke absolutely refused to sign; declaring, when pressed upon the subject, that he would rather suffer his right hand to be cut off, than trust any of his majesty's ships to a person who had not been properly bred to the service; and in this proceeding he seemed to be justified by the mutinous behaviour of Dr Halley's crew; who, denying the legality of his authority over them, had involved him in a very disagreeable dispute, and which was attended with pernicious consequences. Mr Dalrymple, on the other hand, being equally determined in his refusal to proceed without the authority in question, there was a necessity for finding out some person of science who might also be free from the objection made by Sir Edward Hawke. Mr Cook therefore was proposed by Mr Stephens; and his recommendation being seconded by Sir Hugh Pallifer, he was immediately appointed to direct the expedition; and on this occasion was promoted to the rank of lieutenant in his majesty's service.

Mr Cook's commission as lieutenant was dated May 25. 1768; a vessel of 370 tons, named the *Endeavour*, was provided for him; and while the necessary preparations were making for the voyage, Captain Wallis returned. It having been recommended to this gentleman to fix upon a proper place for making the astronomical observations, he had accordingly chosen the island named by him *George's Island*, but since known by the name of *Otaheite;* judging also that Port Royal harbour in it would afford an eligible situation. This proposal being accepted, directions for the purpose were accordingly given to Mr Cook, with whom Mr Charles Green was joined in the astronomical part; the latter having been assistant to Dr Bradley in the royal observatory at Greenwich, and thus judged to be every way qualified for the office. The lieutenant was likewise accompanied by Mr Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, Dr Solander, &c. The principal design of the voyage was, as has already been hinted, to make observations on the transit of Venus; but this being done, Mr Cook was directed to make further discoveries in the Pacific ocean; and on the 30th of July 1768, he set sail on his expedition. An account of the voyage, and the discoveries made during the time of it, is given in the next article; here it is sufficient to observe, that throughout the whole Mr Cook approved himself an able seaman; and from his behaviour both to his own people and to the savage nations he occasionally met with, showed a most exact regard to the rules both of justice and humanity. On his first arrival at Otaheite, the following regulations were drawn up for his people, which he took care should be punctually obeyed.

1. To

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1. To endeavour, by every fair means, to cultivate a friendſhip with the natives, and to treat them with all imaginable humanity. 2. A proper perſon or perſons to be appointed to treat with the natives for proviſions, fruits, &c. and no other perſon belonging to the ſhip to do ſo without leave. 3. Every perſon on ſhore to attend punctually to his duty, and to pay proper attention to his tools or arms; and if loſt through negligence, to have the full value charged againſt his pay, with ſuch farther puniſhment inflicted as occaſion might require. 4. The ſame penalty to be inflicted on every one who ſhould embezzle, trade with or offer to trade with, any part of the ſhip's ſtores; and, 5. No iron to be given in exchange for any thing but proviſions. His rigid adherence to theſe rules was manifeſted in ſeveral inſtances, particularly by ſeverely puniſhing the ſhip's butcher, who had threatened the life of a woman, wife to one of the chiefs of the iſland, for refuſing a ſtone hatchet on the terms he propoſed. On erecting their obſervatory, in order to go through the aſtronomical operations, an accident happened which had like to have diſconcerted the whole ſcheme. This was the loſs of their quadrant, which had been ſtolen by ſome of the natives; but, chiefly through the exertions of Mr Banks, it was recovered, and the obſervations made accordingly. Scarce was this accompliſhed, however, before another theft of the natives demanded the moſt ſerious conſideration of the commander. Some of them taking advantage of the attention of the officers being otherwiſe engaged, took the opportunity of breaking into one of the ſtore-rooms, and ſtealing from thence a bag of ſpike nails of no leſs than an hundred weight. This was a moſt important affair; for as thoſe nails were of great eſtimation among the Indians, the poſſeſſion of ſuch a quantity muſt undoubtedly have much leſſened their value, and thus rendered proviſions of every kind greatly dearer on the iſland than before. One of the thieves therefore being diſcovered, was puniſhed with 200 laſhes; notwithſtanding which he obſtinately refuſed to diſcover any of his accomplices. Repeated thefts committed afterwards required all the wiſdom and reſolution of Mr Cook to conduct himſelf in a proper manner. After due conſideration, he judged it to be a matter of importance to put an end to theſe practices at once, by doing ſomething which might engage the natives themſelves to prevent them for their common intereſt. This, however, he was not at preſent able to accompliſh; nor indeed did it ſeem poſſible to prevent them without uſing firearms, which from motives of humanity he ſtill determined to avoid. At laſt, after a ſtay of three months, when preparing to take his leave, the moſt diſagreeable adventure took place that he had hitherto met with. This was the deſertion of two of his people, who having married young women of that country, determined to take up their reſidence in it. Mr Cook was now obliged to ſeize ſome of the chiefs, and to inform them that they could not obtain their liberty unleſs the deſerters were recovered. This at laſt produced the deſired effect; the deſerters were given up, and Mr Cook ſet ſail, along with Tupia, (who had formerly been the prime miniſter to Oberea, a princeſs of the iſland) and a boy of 13 years of age, both of whom were deſirous of accompanying him to England.

While Mr Cook proceeded to viſit others of the South ſea iſlands, Tupia occaſionally ſerved as an interpreter. On his arrival in New Zealand, Mr Cook found the people extremely hoſtile and inſolent. At their very firſt meeting one of the natives having threatened to dart his lance into the boat, was ſhot dead. Another, having carried off Mr Green's hanger was fired at with ſmall ſhot; and upon his ſtill refuſing to reſtore it, was fired at with ball and killed. This, however, produced very little effect on the reſt, who offered to make an attack upon them, till ſeveral muſkets were fired with ſmall ſhot, which wounded three or four more. Next day the commander, having determined to force ſome of the natives on board, in order to conciliate their affections by kind treatment, directed his men to follow two canoes whom he perceived under way before him. One made her eſcape, but the other not obſerving the boats in purſuit was overtaken; on which the ſavages plied their oars ſo briſkly, that the ſhip's boats were not able to keep up with them. Tupia, whoſe language the New Zealanders underſtood, called to them to return, with aſſurances that no hurt ſhould be done them; but they continued their flight without minding him. A muſket was then fired over their heads with a view to intimidate them, but upon this they prepared to fight; and on the coming up of the boats began the attack with ſo much vigour, that the lieutenant's people were obliged to fire upon them with ball, by which four out of ſeven that were in the boat were killed, and the other three jumped into the water, and were taken on board.

This part of Mr Cook's conduct ſeems inconſiſtent with that humanity for which he was in general ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed; he was aware of the cenſure, and makes the following apology. "Theſe people certainly did not deſerve death for not chooſing to confide in my promiſes, or not conſenting to come on board my boat, even if they had apprehended no danger; but the nature of my ſervice required me to obtain a knowledge of their country, which I could no otherwiſe obtain but by forcing into it in an hoſtile manner, or gaining admiſſion through the confidence and good will of the people. I had already tried the power of preſents without effect; and I was now prompted by my deſire to avoid farther hoſtilities, to attempt to get ſome of them on board; the only method we had left of convincing them that we intended them no harm, and had it in our power to contribute to their gratification and convenience. Thus far my intentions certainly were not criminal; and though in the conteſt, which I had not the leaſt reaſon to expect, our victory might have been complete without ſo great an expence of life; yet in ſuch ſituations, when the command to fire has once been given, no man can pretend to reſtrain its exceſs, or preſcribe its effect."

Notwithſtanding the diſaſter juſt mentioned, to which the three New Zealanders, who were taken on board, had been witneſſes, they were ſoon conciliated, and began to ſing with a degree of taſte that ſurpriſed the Engliſh gentlemen. They were boys, the oldeſt about 19 and the youngeſt about 11; but no kindneſs which

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which could be ſhown them was in any degree effectual to bring about a reconciliation with the reſt. On the contrary, having perceived the ſhip in ſome diſtreſs, they inſtantly ſhowed a diſpoſition to make an attack; and from this they were only prevented by the firing of a four-pounder charged with grape-ſhot. Even this did not produce any permanent effect; another attack was determined upon, and would undoubtedly have been made, had not Tupia informed them, that if they perſiſted in their attempt, the arms of their adverſaries, like thunder, would deſtroy every one of them. This was enforced by the fire of another four-pounder with grape-ſhot, which ſpreading wide in the water, terrified them to ſuch a degree that they began to paddle away as faſt as poſſible. Notwithſtanding this, however, ſome intercourſe began to take place; but in every inſtance the New Zealanders manifeſted their hoſtility and treachery in ſuch a manner as ſhowed that they were not to be gained by fair means. At laſt an attempt to carry off Tayeto, Tupia's boy, rendered it abſolutely neceſſary to fire upon them in order to reſcue him from certain deſtruction, ſome of the ſavages having got him into a canoe, where they held him down by violence. In conſequence of this, one of the ſavages was killed on the ſpot, and ſeveral more wounded, by the diſcharge of muſkets from the boats; Tayeto recovered his liberty, jumped into the water, and ſwam to the ſhip. Some partial intercourſe again took place: but ſtill it appeared that the innate rancour of theſe ſavages was not to be ſubdued by any fair means; and it was only by the powerful arguments of cannon and muſketry that they could be kept from attempting to do miſchief.

From the account of this voyage publiſhed by Dr Hawkeſworth, indeed, it appears, that a conſiderable number of ſavages periſhed in a ſimilar manner to that above mentioned, and they ſeem to have manifeſted a more hoſtile behaviour than afterwards: on thoſe melancholy occaſions, however, it is obſerved to the honour of Mr Cook, that his humanity was eminently conſpicuous beyond that of the common people, who all along ſhowed as much inclination to deſtroy the Indians as a ſportſman does to kill the game he purſues.

While Mr Cook coaſted the iſlands of New Zealand, he was ſometimes in the moſt imminent danger of being ſhipwrecked. In the latitude of 35° ſouth, and in the midſt of ſummer in that climate, he met with ſuch a gale of wind as he ſcarce ever experienced before; ſo that he was no leſs than three weeks in getting ten leagues to the weſtward, and two more before he could get 30 leagues farther. Fortunately, however, they were all this time a conſiderable way from land, otherwiſe it is probable that the ſtorm muſt have proved fatal.

Mr Cook having ſpent ſix months in circumnavigating and fully exploring the iſlands of New Zealand, he ſailed from thence on the 31ſt of March 1770. It muſt be obſerved, however, that the extreme hoſtility manifeſted by the inhabitants in that part of the iſland where he firſt arrived, was not univerſally diffuſed; but that a friendly intercourſe was for a long time maintained with thoſe about Queen Charlotte's Sound. From New Zealand he proceeded to New Holland, and on the 28th of April came in ſight of Botany Bay. Here all their endeavours to induce the natives to have any intercourſe with them proved ineffectual, though happily there was no blood ſpilt in any quarrel.

During their navigation round New Holland, the coaſts of which are full of dangerous rocks and ſhoals, our navigators were brought into a more perilous ſituation than ever; and from which the eſcape was ſo extraordinary, that it deſerves a particular relation. This happened on the 10th of June 1770, as they purſued their courſe from Trinity Bay, and nearly in the latitude aſſigned to the iſlands diſcovered by Quiros. At that time they had the advantage of a fine breeze and a clear moonlight; and in ſtanding off from ſix till near nine o'clock, the ſhip had deepened her water from 14 to 21 fathoms; but while the navigators were at ſupper, it ſuddenly ſhoaled to 12, 10, and 8 fathoms in the ſpace of a few minutes. Every thing was then ready for putting the ſhip about, when they ſuddenly got into deep water again, and continued in 20 and 21 fathoms for ſome time, ſo that the gentlemen went to bed in perfect ſecurity. A little before eleven, however, the water ſhoaled at once from 20 to 17 fathoms; and before the lead could be heaved again, the ſhip ſtruck, and remained immoveable, excepting as far as ſhe was heaved up and down, and daſhed againſt the rocks by the ſurge. The alarm was now univerſal, and not indeed without the greateſt reaſon. It appeared that the veſſel had been lifted over the ledge of a rock, and lay in a hollow within it, where there were in ſome places from three to four fathoms water, and in others ſcarcely as many feet: the ſheathing boards were diſjoined, and floating round the ſhip in great numbers; and at laſt the falſe keel alſo was deſtroyed, while the rock kept grating her bottom with ſuch force as to be heard in the fore ſtore-room. It was now neceſſary to lighten the ſhip as much as poſſible: and this was done with all expedition to the amount of more than 50 tons. In the morning of the 11th of June they diſcovered the land at about eight leagues diſtance, without any iſland between, on which they could have been ſent aſhore in the event of the ſhip going to pieces, that ſo they might have been carried to the main land by turns. To add to their diſtreſs, the ſhip drew ſo much water, that it was with difficulty kept under with three pumps. Laſtly, it appeared, that even the riſing of the tide, on which they had ultimately depended for relief, was inſufficient to anſwer the purpoſe, as the day-tide fell conſiderably ſhort of that in the night-time. Having therefore lightened the ſhip ſtill farther, by throwing out every thing that could poſſibly be ſpared, they waited with patience for the next tide; when, after incredible exertion, the ſhip righted, and they got her over the ledge of the rock into deep water. By continual labour, however, the men were at laſt ſo much exhauſted, that they could not ſtand to the pumps more than five or ſix minutes at a time; after which they threw themſelves flat on the deck, though a ſtream of water between three and four inches deep ran over it; and in this ſituation, they lay till others, exhauſted as well as themſelves, took their places, on which they ſtarted up again, and renewed their exertions. In this dreadful extremity, Mr Monkhouſe, a midſhipman, propoſed the expedient of fothering the ſhip, as it is called,

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called, by which means he ſaid that he had ſeen a merchant ſhip brought from Virginia to London after ſhe had ſprung a leak that admitted more than four feet water in an hour. The expedient being approved of, it was put in execution in the following manner. He took a lower ſtudding-ſail, and having mixed a large quantity of oakum and wool together, ſtitched them down by handfuls as lightly as poſſible; the whole being afterwards ſpread over with the dung of the ſheep and other filth. The ſail was then hauled under the ſhip's bottom by means of ropes which kept it extended. When it came under the leak, the wool and oakum, with part of the ſail, were forced inwards by the preſſure of the water, which thus prevented its own ingreſs in ſuch an effectual manner, that one pump, inſtead of three, was now ſufficient to keep it under. Thus they got the ſhip into a convenient port on the coaſt of New Holland, where they had an opportunity of repairing the injury. Here they diſcovered that their preſervation had not been owing entirely to the expedient above mentioned; for one of the holes was in a great meaſure filled up by a piece of rock which had broken off and ſtuck in it; and this hole was ſo large, that had it not been filled up in the manner juſt mentioned, they muſt undoubtedly have perihed notwithſtanding all the aſſiſtance that could have been derived from the pumps.

The dangers they ſuſtained in navigating this coaſt were innumerable, inſomuch, that for very near three months they were obliged to have a man conſtantly in the chains heaving the lead. They were always entangled among rocks and ſhoals, which could not have failed to deſtroy a leſs experienced navigator; and even Mr Cook, with all his ſagacity, could not ſometimes have extricated himſelf, had it not been for the favourable interpoſition of ſome natural events, which no human penetration could foreſee or have the leaſt dependence upon. Of this we ſhall only give the following inſtance. Having at laſt, as they thought, got ſafely over the vaſt reefs of ſunk rocks with which the coaſt of New Holland is ſurrounded, they flattered themſelves that all danger was paſt, and the vaſt ſwell of the water convinced them that they were now in the open ocean. The remembrance of former dangers, however, induced them frequently to take the precaution of ſounding; notwithſtanding which, in the latitude of about $14\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S. they found themſelves one morning only about a mile diſtant from the moſt hideous breakers, though the ſea all around was unfathomable. Their ſituation was rendered the more dreadful by its being a dead calm, at the ſame time that they were carried towards the rock with ſuch rapidity, that by the time they had got the ſhip's head turned by means of the boats, ſhe was ſcarcely 100 yards diſtant from it. Their only reſource then was to tow the ſhip, if poſſible, by means of the boats and pinnace, out of a ſituation ſo very perilous; but all their efforts would have been unſucceſsful, had not a breeze of wind ſprung up, which, though too light to have been noticed at any other time, was found to ſecond their efforts ſo effectually, that the ſhip began to move perceptibly from the reef in an oblique direction: during the time that this breeze laſted, which was not more than ten minutes, they had made a conſiderable way. A dead calm ſucceeding, they began to loſe ground, and in a little time were driven within 200 yards of the rocks: but fortunately the breeze returned, and laſted ten minutes more; during which time a ſmall opening was perceived in the reef at the diſtance of about a quarter of a mile. The mate being ſent out to examine this opening, reported that it was not more than the length of the ſhip in breadth, but that there was ſmooth water within. On this it was determined to puſh into it by all means. The attempt failed of ſucceſs; as, juſt when they had brought the ſhip with great labour to the mouth of the opening, they found a current ſetting out from it by reaſon of the tide now beginning to ebb. But though their hopes were diſappointed in getting through the opening, they were, by the current ſetting out from it, driven in a very ſhort time to the diſtance of a quarter of a mile from the rocks; and by dint of towing and other exertions, they were got by noon to the diſtance of two miles. This temporary deliverance, however, afforded but ſmall proſpect of being ultimately relieved. They had ſtill no other expectation than of being forced back into their former ſituation by the return of the tide; but happily they now perceived another opening about a mile to the weſtward. Mr Hicks the lieutenant being ſent to examine this opening, returned with an account of its being narrow and hazardous, but capable of being paſſed. To this place therefore the ſhip was directed by every poſſible means; and a light breeze happening to ſpring up, they fortunately reached it, and were inſtantly hurried through with great rapidity by the current of the returning tide; which, had it not been for this opening, would undoubtedly have daſhed them to pieces againſt the rocks.

From the time they quitted the coaſt of New Holland till their arrival at Batavia in the iſland of Java, our navigators met with no other danger but what is common in ſea voyages. They were obliged to ſtay for ſome time at this place to repair their damages; and on viewing the condition of the ſhip, found they had more reaſon than ever to admire the manner in which they had been preſerved. Both the falſe keel and main-keel were greatly injured; great part of the ſheathing was torn off; ſeveral of the planks were much damaged, and among theſe there were two, and half of another, which for ſix feet in length were not above the eighth part of an inch in thickneſs, beſides being penetrated with worms quite to the timbers. Here the crew were exceſſively annoyed by ſickneſs, which obliged them to remain much longer than they would otherwiſe have done: and it is worthy of notice, that every one of the crew was ill excepting the ſail-maker, an old man between 70 and 80 years of age, and who was drunk every night. Poor Tupia, with his boy Tayeto, fell ſacrifices to the unhealthineſs of the climate, as well as the ſurgeon, three ſeamen, and Mr Green's ſervant. Nor did the evil ſtop here; for on their ſetting out from Batavia, the ſeeds of diſeaſe which had been received there broke out in the moſt violent and fatal manner, inſomuch that in the courſe of about ſix weeks there died one of Mr Banks's aſſiſtants, by name Mr Sporing, Mr Parkinſon his natural hiſtory painter, Mr Green the aſtronomer, the boatſwain, carpenter, and mate, Mr Monkhouſe the midſhipman, the corporal of the marines, two of the carpenter's

Cook. carpenter's crew, and nine ſeamen. Even the jolly old ſail-maker could now hold out no longer; but whether his death might not in ſome meaſure be attributed to his being leſs plentifully ſupplied with liquors than formerly, might have deſerved inquiry. Theſe unfortunate events probably made a conſiderable impreſſion on Mr Cook's mind; and perhaps induced him to direct his attention to thoſe methods of preſerving the health of ſeamen which he afterwards put in execution with ſo much ſucceſs. After touching at St Helena, they continued their voyage for England, where they arrived on the 11th of June 1771: and on the 29th of Auguſt the ſame year, his majeſty teſtified his approbation of Mr Cook's conduct by appointing him a captain in the navy. On this occaſion Mr Cook wiſhed to have been advanced to the rank of poſt-captain, which though not more profitable than the other, is more honourable; but this being inconſiſtent with the rules of preferment in the navy, the earl of Sandwich, at that time at the head of the admiralty, could not agree to it.

Captain Cook was not allowed to remain long inactive. The idea of a ſouthern continent had long been entertained, and Mr Dalrymple had renewed the attention of the public towards the queſtion, by his hiſtorical collection of voyages to the Pacific ocean, publiſhed in two quarto volumes, one in 1770, the other in 1771. To determine the matter finally, Captain Cook was again ſent out: and the object of this voyage was not merely to ſettle the queſtion juſt mentioned, but to extend the geography of the globe to its utmoſt limits. That the undertaking might be carried on with the greater advantage, it was determined to employ two ſhips, on the choice and equipment of which the utmoſt attention was beſtowed. The ſucceſsful voyage which had already been made in the Endeavour, ſuggeſted the idea of that ſhip being a proper model for the two which were to be ſent out; and the opinion of Lord Sandwich concurring with the general idea, two veſſels, conſtructed by the ſame perſon who had built the Endeavour, were purchaſed for the voyage. Theſe were about 14 or 16 months old at the time they were purchaſed; and, in the opinion of Captain Cook, were as fit for the purpoſe as if they had been but newly built. The larger of the two, of 462 tons burden, was named the *Reſolution;* the ſmaller, of 336 tons, had the name of the *Adventure:* the complement of men on board the former, of which Captain Cook was commander, being 112; on the latter, commanded by Mr Tobias Furneaux, 81. In their equipment, every article that could be ſuppoſed neceſſary, however much out of the common line, was procured, and every circumſtance that could be ſuppoſed to contribute to the ſucceſs of the voyage was attended to in the moſt ſcrupulous manner. Beſides the uſual ſtores and proviſions, all of which were of the beſt kinds, the ſhips were furniſhed with malt, ſour krout, ſalted cabbage, portable ſoup, ſalop, muſtard, marmalade of carrots, beer, and inſpiſſated wort. Mr Hodges, an excellent landſcape painter, was engaged to make drawings and paintings of ſuch objects as required them. Mr John Reinhold Forſter, with his ſon, were both engaged, in order to explore and collect the natural hiſtory of the countries through which they paſſed; and laſtly, that nothing might be wanting to render the voyage as complete as poſſible, Mr William Wales, and Mr William Bayley were engaged by the board of longitude to make celeſtial obſervations. They were furniſhed with the beſt inſtruments of every kind, and among the reſt with four time-pieces; three conſtructed by Mr Arnold, and one by Mr Kendal on Mr Harriſon's principles. Cook.

At Plymouth Captain Cook received his inſtructions; which were not only to ſail round the globe, but to ſail round it in high ſouthern latitudes, and to make ſuch traverſes as might finally reſolve the queſtion concerning the ſouthern continent. In purſuance of theſe inſtructions he ſet ſail on the 13th of July 1772, and on the 29th of the ſame month reached the Madeiras. As he proceeded afterwards in his voyage, he made three puncheons of beer from the inſpiſſated wort carried out along with him, and found it excellently to anſwer the purpoſe, provided the material could have been kept without fermentation in its inſpiſſated ſtate; but as this was found impoſſible, the expedient ſeems to have failed. In this voyage, however, the captain uſed with the greateſt ſucceſs ſuch methods as appeared likely to contribute to the preſervation of the health of his men. In rainy weather, he took care that the ſhip ſhould be aired and dried by means of fires made between the decks, the damp places were ſmoked, and the people were ordered to air their bedding, and waſh and dry their clothes, whenever an opportunity offered. Thus he reached the Cape of Good Hope without having a ſingle man ſick. Having left it and kept on his courſe to the ſouthward, he ſoon began to meet with cold and ſtormy weather, by which he loſt almoſt the whole of his live ſtock of ſheep, hogs, and geeſe. The bad effects of this ſtormy weather upon the men were guarded againſt by an addition to their clothing, and giving them a dram on particular occaſions. On the ſixth of December, being in the latitude of 50° 40′, he fell in with iſlands of ice, and continued among them in various latitudes till the 17th of January 1773; when he ſet ſail for New Zealand, which he reached on the 27th.

The reception of our navigator by the New Zealanders was now much more friendly than in the former voyage, ſo that there were no conteſts with the natives; nor did Captain Cook obſerve any of thoſe whom he had ſeen before, neither was there the ſmalleſt remembrance of former hoſtilities. Having ſtaid in this country till the ſeventh of June, our navigators ſet ſail for Otaheite; but during the voyage the crews of both ſhips were attacked by the ſcurvy. Thoſe of the Adventure were in a very ſickly ſtate; the cook was dead, and 28 of her beſt men incapable of duty. On board the Reſolution matters were much better; and the only reaſon that could be conjectured for the difference was, that the people of the Adventure had been in a habit of body more inclined to the ſcurvy than thoſe of the Reſolution, and had eaten fewer vegetables. Here it was obſerved, that the averſion of ſeamen to a change of diet is ſo great, that it can only be overcome by the ſteady and perſevering example of a commander. While he remained at New Zealand, the captain had diſcovered a tree which greatly reſembled the American black ſpruce. Perſuaded, therefore, that it would be attended with effects equally

equally ſalutary on the health of the people, he employed them in brewing beer from it. This was done while they continued at Duſky Bay, in order to ſupply the want of vegetables, which were not to be procured there; but on removing to Queen Charlotte's Sound, they were more fortunate. Captain Cook himſelf went to look out for antiſcorbutic vegetables; and returned in a very ſhort time with a boat-load of ſcurvy-graſs, celery, &c. Theſe were boiled with the peaſe and wheat; and though ſome of the people diſliked them at firſt, they ſoon became ſo ſenſible of their good effects, that they cheerfully followed the example of the reſt: and the freedom of the crew from the ſcurvy and other diſtempers was by every one attributed to the New Zealand ſpruce beer and vegetables. From this time forward the captain had ſcarce occaſion to give orders for gathering vegetables when they came to any land.

During this voyage Captain Cook experienced another narrow eſcape from ſhipwreck. Being becalmed at the diſtance of half a league from a reef of rocks near Oſnaburgh iſland, it was found neceſſary to order out the boats to tow off the ſhips; but this was found impoſſible. The calm continuing, and the ſituation of our navigators becoming every moment more dangerous, the captain attempted to get through an opening in the reef which he had judged practicable; but on approaching it, found that there was not ſufficient depth of water; at the ſame time that the draught of the tide through it forced the ſhip thither in a manner ſcarce to be reſiſted. One of the warping machines, with about 400 fathoms of rope, was then ordered out, but did not produce any effect. They were within two cables length of the breakers, and no bottom could be found for caſting anchor. Having no other reſource, however, they did drop an anchor; but before it took hold, the Reſolution was in leſs than three fathoms water, and ſtruck at every fall of the ſea, which broke violently cloſe under her ſtern, threatening deſtruction to every one on board. At laſt the tide ceaſing to act in the ſame direction, the boats were ordered to try to tow off the veſſel; in which being aſſiſted by the land breeze, which fortunately ſprung up at that inſtant, they with much labour ſucceeded.

Having ſpent a conſiderable time in the South Sea iſlands, Captain Cook returned to New Zealand, and from thence ſet ſail for the ſouthern part of the continent of America. Here he explored all the iſlands in the neighbourhood, and then returned to England, where he arrived in ſafety on the 30th of July 1774, having been abſent three years and 18 days; and in all that time loſt only one man, who died of a conſumption probably begun before he ſet out on the voyage.

The reception our navigator now met with was ſuited to his merit. He was immediately raiſed to the rank of poſt captain, and ſoon after unanimouſly elected a member of the Royal Society; from whom he received the prize of the gold medal for the beſt experimental paper that had appeared throughout the year. It was the cuſtom of Sir John Pringle, at the delivery of this medal, annually, to make an elaborate diſcourſe, containing the hiſtory of that part of ſcience for which the medal was given; and, as the ſubject of Captain Cook's paper (the means of preſerving the health of ſeamen) was analogous to the profeſſion of Sir John Pringle himſelf as a phyſician, he had the greater opportunity of diſplaying his eloquence on the occaſion. The ſpeech he made was in the higheſt degree honourable to Captain Cook. He remarked, that the ſociety had never more meritoriouſly beſtowed the medal than on the perſon who now received it. "If (ſays he) Rome decreed the civic crown to him who ſaved the life of a ſingle citizen, what wreaths are due to the man who, having himſelf ſaved many, perpetuates in your Tranſactions the means by which Britain may now, on the moſt diſtant voyages, preſerve numbers of her intrepid ſons, her mariners; who braving every danger, have ſo liberally contributed to the fame, to the opulence, and to the maritime empire of the country?" Theſe honourable teſtimonies of the public regard, however, Captain Cook did not receive, being already embarked on another voyage, from which he never returned.

The third voyage of this celebrated navigator was not undertaken by any expreſs command of his majeſty. Captain Cook had already done ſo much, that it was thought but reaſonable he ſhould now ſpend the remainder of his life in quiet; and in order to enable him to do this in a more comfortable manner, beſides his rank of poſt-captain in the navy, he was alſo made a captain in Greenwich. Still, however, there were ſome points in the ſcience of geography which had very much engaged the attention of the public, and were indeed of ſuch importance as to become a national concern. Theſe were to diſcover the connection between Aſia and America, and to determine whether there was not a poſſibility of ſhortening the paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by ſailing round the northern parts of the continents of Europe and Aſia. Many attempts, indeed, had already been made by various navigators of different nations; but all of them had failed, and, what was worſe, had left the point ſtill undetermined. An act of parliament had been paſſed in 1745, by which a reward of 20,000l. was held out to the ſhips of any of his majeſty's ſubjects for accompliſhing this important voyage, but without mentioning any thing of thoſe belonging to his majeſty; and this reward was further confined to the finding out of the north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies through Hudſon's bay. In the year 1776, however, both the errors juſt mentioned were corrected. It was now enacted, "That if any ſhip belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, or to his majeſty, ſhall find out, and ſail through, any paſſage by ſea between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, in any direction or parallel of the northern hemiſphere, to the northward of the 52d degree of northern latitude; the owners of ſuch ſhips if belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, or the commanders, officers, and ſeamen, of ſuch ſhip belonging to his majeſty, ſhall receive, as a reward for ſuch diſcovery, the ſum of 20,000l.

It was not, as has already been hinted, now deemed proper to ſolicit Captain Cook to undergo freſh dangers by undertaking a voyage of this kind; nevertheleſs, as he was univerſally looked upon to be the fitteſt perſon in the kingdom for the purpoſe, the eyes of every one were tacitly fixed upon him: he was conſulted on every thing relating to it, and ſoli-

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cited to name the perſon whom he judged moſt proper to conduct it. To determine this point, Captain Cook, Sir Hugh Palliſer, and Mr Stephens, were invited to the houſe of Lord Sandwich to dinner; where, beſides the conſideration of the proper officer for conducting the expedition, many things were ſaid concerning the nature of the deſign. They enlarged upon its grandeur and dignity, its conſequences to navigation and ſcience, and the completeneſs it would give to the whole ſyſtem of diſcoveries; until at laſt Captain Cook was ſo much inflamed by the repreſentation of the importance of the voyage, that he ſtarted up, and declared that he would conduct it himſelf. This was what the parties preſent had deſired, and probably expected; his offer was therefore inſtantly laid before the king, and Captain Cook appointed commander of the expedition by the 10th of February 1776. At the ſame time it was agreed, that on his return from the voyage, he ſhould be reſtored to his place at Greenwich; and if no vacancy occurred during the interval, the officer who ſucceeded him was to reſign in his favour. The inſtructions he now received were, that he ſhould attempt the high latitudes between the continents of Aſia and America, and if poſſible return to England along the northern coaſts of Aſia and Europe. This was moſt probably the reſult of the captain's own deliberations, and what had been ſuggeſted by him to Lord Sandwich and other people in power. He was particularly deſired to ſail firſt into the Pacific ocean through the chain of newly diſcovered iſlands which he had lately viſited. After having croſſed the equator, and paſſed into the northern parts of the ocean juſt mentioned, he was then to hold ſuch a courſe as might tend to ſettle many intereſting points of geography, and produce ſome intermediate diſcoveries, before he arrived at the main ſcene of operation. With regard to this principal object, he was ordered, immediately on his arrival on the coaſt of New Albion, to proceed northward as far as the latitude of 65 degrees, without loſing any time in exploring creeks or rivers previous to his arrival in that latitude; and for his further encouragement, the act of 1745, offering a premium for the diſcovery of the paſſage, was amended in the manner above mentioned. That nothing might be wanting which could promote the ſucceſs of the grand expedition, Lieutenant Pickerſgill was ſent out, in 1776, with directions to explore the coaſts of Baffin's bay; and the next year Lieutenant Young was commiſſioned not only to examine the weſtern parts of that bay, but to endeavour to find a paſſage on that ſide from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. Nothing, however, was performed by either of theſe gentlemen which in the leaſt could promote Captain Cook's ſucceſs. Two veſſels were provided as in the former voyage, viz. the Reſolution and the Diſcovery; the command of the former being given to Captain Cook, and of the latter to Captain Charles Clerke. The only thing in which the appointment of the Diſcovery differed from that of the Reſolution was, that the former had no marine officer on board. Every degree of attention was beſtowed, as in the former voyage, upon the proper victualling and other neceſſaries for the two ſhips; and that the inhabitants of thoſe countries which our navigator intended to viſit might derive ſome permanent benefit from the intercourſe they had with him, it was determined to ſend abroad a breed of domeſtic animals, and likewiſe a quantity of uſeful ſeeds, to be left in proper places. With this view, a bull, two cows with their calves, and ſeveral ſheep, with hay and corn for their ſubſiſtence, were taken on board; and it was likewiſe propoſed to take in others at the Cape of Good Hope. A large aſſortment of iron tools and trinkets was alſo ſent out; and, in ſhort, every thing that could be judged proper either to conciliate the good will of the natives or to prove ſerviceable to them, was provided for the voyage, as well as every convenience for the ſhips companies. In the former voyage Captain Cook had brought along with him a native of one of the South ſea iſlands, named *Omai*, who reſided in England during the interval between the ſecond and third voyages, and was now happy at getting an opportunity of returning to his own country. Though he could by no means complain of the entertainment he had met with in England, the idea of returning home loaded with treaſure, which might enable him to make a figure among his countrymen, ſoon overcame all uneaſy ſenſations, which the leaving of his Engliſh friends might excite. His majeſty had taken care to furniſh him with every thing that could poſſibly be of uſe when he came to his native country; and he had beſides received ſeveral valuable preſents from Lord Sandwich, Sir Joſeph Banks, and ſeveral ladies and gentlemen of his acquaintance; ſo that nothing was omitted which could poſſibly be done to convey, by his means, to the inhabitants of the South Sea iſlands, an idea of the Britiſh power and greatneſs.

Every thing being prepared for the voyage, our navigator ſet ſail from the Nore on the 25th of June 1776; but by reaſon of ſome delay in receiving his inſtructions, did not leave Plymouth till the 12th of July. He had not been long at ſea before he began his operations for preſerving the health of his people; which were found equally efficacious in this as in the former voyage. Finding his ſtock of provender for the animals on board likely to run ſhort, he touched at Teneriffe, in order to procure a ſupply, having judged that to be a more proper place than Madeira for the purpoſe. On ſailing from thence he ran a great riſk of running upon ſome ſunk rocks on the iſland of Bonaviſta; but in this, as well as on other occaſions of danger, he behaved with the ſame judgment, coolneſs, and preſence of mind, that diſtinguiſhed him throughout the whole courſe of his life. On the 12th of Auguſt he arrived before Port Praya, in one of the Cape de Verd iſlands named *St Jago;* but not finding it neceſſary to go in there, he continued his voyage to the ſouthward. The weather now becoming gloomy and rainy, required a continuance of the methods he had already practiſed for preſerving the health of his people; and, as formerly, they were attended with the greateſt ſucceſs. In this voyage, the effect of theſe precautions was the more remarkable, as at this time the ſeams of the veſſel were opened to ſuch a degree as to admit the rain, ſo that ſcarce any perſon on board could lie dry in his bed; and all the officers in the gun room were driven out of their cabins by the water which came through the ſides. Such was the humanity of the commander, however, that while the ſhips continued at ſea, he would not

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truſt the workmen over their ſides to repair the defects, though caulkers were employed in the inſide as ſoon as ſettled weather returned. On the 1ſt of September our navigators croſſed the equator, and on the 18th of October anchored in Table bay at the Cape of Good Hope. Here they met with a violent tempeſt, the effects of which were felt both on ſea and land. It laſted three days, and the Reſolution was the only ſhip in the bay that rode out the ſtorm without dragging her anchors. On ſhore the tents and obſervatory were deſtroyed, and the aſtronomical quadrant narrowly eſcaped irreparable damage. The Diſcovery, which had been ſome time later in ſailing from England, was driven off the coaſt, and did not arrive till the 10th of November.

While they remained in this place, a diſaſter happened which threatened the loſs of moſt of their live ſtock. The bull and two cows had been put aſhore to graze among other cattle; but Captain Cook had been adviſed to keep the ſheep, 16 in number, near the tents, where they were penned in every night. Some dogs having got in among them in the night-time, killed four, and diſperſed the reſt. Six of them were recovered the next day, but the two rams and two of the fineſt ewes in the flock were miſſing. The captain applied to Baron Plettenberg the governor; but all his endeavours were unſucceſsful, until he employed ſome of the meaneſt and loweſt of the people, fellows whoſe character was, that for a ducatoon they would cut their maſter's throat, burn the houſe over his head, and bury him and his whole family in aſhes. This is mentioned as an inſtance how far the boaſted policy of the Dutch government at the Cape of Good Hope falls ſhort of its alleged perfection. After all, two of the fineſt ewes in the flock were miſſing, and never could be recovered. The captain, therefore, to repair this loſs, and to make an addition to his original ſtock, purchaſed two young bulls, two ſtone horſes, two mares, two heifers, two rams, ſeveral ewes and goats, with ſome rabbits and poultry; when, having finiſhed all his buſineſs, he ſet ſail on the 30th of November, though it was not till the 3d of December that he got clear of land. Soon after his putting to ſea, he had the miſfortune to loſe ſeveral of the goats, eſpecially the males, together with ſome ſheep; and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that the reſt of the cattle were preſerved, by reaſon of the ſhip toſſing and tumbling about in a very heavy ſea. Having explored ſome deſolate iſlands in the ſouthern ſeas, Captain Cook ſet ſail for New Zealand. During this part of the voyage, our navigators were involved in ſo thick a fog, that, according to the authors of Captain Cook's life, "they ſailed 300 leagues in the dark." The firſt land they afterwards reached was New Holland; where having remained till the 30th of January 1777, they ſet ſail for New Zealand, and on the 12th of February they anchored in Queen Charlotte's Sound. Here the people were ſhy and timorous, on account of their having formerly deſtroyed 10 of Captain Furneaux's people, who had been ſent aſhore to gather vegetables. The cauſe of the quarrel could not be known, as none of the party were left alive to tell the news. Lieutenant Burney, who went aſhore in queſt of them, found only ſome fragments of their bodies; from which it appeared that they had been killed and eaten by the ſavages. It was not the intention of Captain Cook, at this diſtance of time, to reſent the injury; he even refuſed to put to death a chief named *Kahoora*, who, as he was informed by the natives themſelves, had killed Mr Rowe the commander of the party. He was, however, particularly careful that no opportunity ſhould now be given the ſavages of committing ſuch an action with impunity; and with this view a boat was never ſent on ſhore without being well armed, and the men under the command of ſuch officers as could be depended upon. The New Zealanders were no ſooner aſſured of Captain Cook's pacific diſpoſition, than they threw aſide their fears and ſuſpicions, and entered into a commercial intercourſe with the people. It would have been the leſs excuſable in Captain Cook to have revenged at this time the maſſacre of Mr Rowe's party, as he was aſſured that the quarrel originated from ſome petty thefts of the ſavages, which were too haſtily reſented on the part of the Britiſh; and had it not been for this, no miſchief would have happened.

On the 25th of February our navigator left New Zealand, taking with him, at the requeſt of Omai, two boys, the eldeſt about 18 and the youngeſt about 10. Theſe were ſoon cured of their paſſion for travelling, being both violently ſea-ſick; but as it was then too late to repent, they expreſſed their grief in loud and almoſt continual lamentation; and this in a kind of ſong which ſeemed to conſiſt of the praiſes of their native country, whence they were now to be ſeparated for ever. By degrees, however, the ſea-ſickneſs abated, their lamentations became leſs frequent, and at laſt ceaſed entirely; their native country was forgotten, and they appeared to be as firmly attached to their new friends the Engliſh as if they had been born among them.

So much time was now ſpent in ſailing up and down in the Pacific ocean, where ſeveral new iſlands were diſcovered, that Captain Cook judged it impoſſible to accompliſh any thing for this year in the high northern latitudes; for which reaſon he determined to bear away for the Friendly iſlands, in order to ſupply himſelf with thoſe neceſſaries which he had found impoſſible to be got at any of the iſlands which he had juſt diſcovered. In his run thither ſeveral new iſlands were viſited; and in proſecuting theſe diſcoveries our navigator once more narrowly eſcaped being ſhipwrecked. The danger at this time aroſe from a low ſandy iſland, which the Reſolution was very near running upon. From this ſhe was only ſaved by the circumſtance of all the men having been accidentally called upon deck to put the veſſel about, and moſt of them being at their ſtations when the danger was diſcovered. Soon after this both ſhips ſtruck upon ſome ſunk coral rocks, but happily were got off without damage.

After a ſtay of between two and three months, Captain Cook took leave of the Friendly iſlands on the 13th of July 1777; and on the 12th of Auguſt reached Otaheite, where he introduced Omai to his country people, and whoſe reception by them is particularly related under the next article. Here the captain found the people of Otaheite ready to engage in a war with thoſe of Eimeo; but though ſtrongly ſolicited by the former to aſſiſt them in an expedition

Cook. against their enemies, he refused to take any concern in the affair, alleging, by way of excuse, that the people of Eimeo had never offended him. This seemed to satisfy most of the chiefs; but one, named *Towha*, was so much displeased, that Captain Cook could never regain his favour. He even threatened, that as soon as the captain should be gone, he would make war upon Otoo, one of the princes of these islands whom he knew to be in strict friendship with him; but from this he was deterred by the captain's threatening to return and chastise him if he made any such attempt. As a mark of Otoo's friendship, he gave our navigator a canoe, which he desired him to carry to the king of Britain, having nothing else, as he said, worth his acceptance.

From Otaheite Captain Cook proceeded to Eimeo, where, on account of some thefts committed by the natives, he was obliged to commence hostilities, by burning a number of their war canoes, and even some houses. These transactions gave him much concern; and the more that he had been so much solicited to make war on these people by his friends at Otaheite, to whose intreaties he had refused to listen. From Eimeo he proceeded to Huaheine, where he saw Omai finally settled, and left with him the two New Zealand youths already mentioned. The youngest of these was so much attached to the English, that it was necessary to carry him out of the ship and put him ashore by force. During his stay on this island, the captain was obliged to punish a thief with greater severity than he had ever done before, viz. by causing his head and beard to be shaved, and his ears cut off. Some other disagreeable transactions took place, particularly the desertion of two of his people, who were not recovered without the greatest difficulty. In the course of his exertions for their recovery, he found it necessary to detain the son, daughter, and son-in law of the chief of an island named *Otaha*. This had almost produced very serious consequences, the natives having formed a plot for carrying off Captain Cook himself, as well as Captain Clerke and Mr Gore. With regard to the commander, they were disappointed by his own caution and vigilance: but Messrs Clerke and Gore were in particular danger; and it was only owing to the circumstance of one of them having a pistol in his hand as they walked together on shore, that they were not seized.

Having left the Society islands, and discovered a new group, which in honour of his patron the earl of Sandwich, our commander named the *Sandwich Isles*, he set out on the 2d of January 1778 on his voyage northward. In this he was very successful, ascertaining the vicinity of the continents of Asia and America, which had never been done, or but very imperfectly, before. From these desolate regions he returned to the island of Oonalashka; whence, having refitted and taken in provisions, he returned to the southward, and on the 26th of November reached the Sandwich islands, where he discovered a new one named *Mowee*, and on the 30th of the same month another of much larger extent, named *O-why-hee*. Seven weeks were spent in exploring the coasts of this island; and during all this time he continued to have the most friendly intercourse with the people, who, however, appeared to be much more numerous and powerful than those of any island our navigators had yet touched at. Several of the chiefs and principal people had attached themselves greatly to the commander, and in general the people appeared to be much more honest in their dispositions than any whom he had ever visited. But by the time he had finished his circumnavigation of the island, and cast anchor in a bay called *Karakakooa*, matters were greatly altered. An universal disposition to theft and plunder had now taken place; and in this it was evident that the common people were encouraged by their chiefs, who shared the booty with them. Still, however, no hostilities were commenced: the greatest honours were paid to the commander; and, on his going ashore, he was received with ceremonies little short of adoration. A vast quantity of hogs and other provisions were procured for the ships; and on the 4th of February 1779, they left the island, not without most magnificent presents from the chiefs, and such as they had never before received in any part of the world. Unluckily they met with a storm on the sixth and seventh of the same month; during which the Resolution sprung the head of her foremast in such a manner that they were obliged to return to Karakakooa bay to have it repaired. As they returned, Captain Cook had an opportunity of showing his humanity to the people, by the relief he afforded to some of their canoes which had suffered in the storm. The same friendly intercourse which had formerly been held with the natives now commenced, and Captain Cook was treated with the usual honours; but on the 13th of this month it was unhappily broken off on the following account. One of the natives being detected in stealing the tongs from the armourer's forge in the Discovery, was dismissed with a pretty severe flogging; but this example was so far from being attended with any good effect, that in the afternoon another, having snatched up the tongs and a chissel, jumped overboard with them and swam for the shore. The master and midshipman were instantly dispatched in pursuit of him; but he escaped on board a canoe, which paddled away so quickly that the cutter could not come near it. A chief named *Pareah*, who was at this time on board the Resolution, understanding what had happened, promised to go ashore, and get back the stolen goods; but before this could be done, the thief had made his escape into the country. Captain Cook, who was at that time ashore, had endeavoured to intercept the canoe when it landed, but was led out of the way by some of the natives who pretended to be his guides. The tongs and chissel, however, were brought back to the master as he advanced to the landing place, but he being now joined by some of the rest of the people in the pinnace, could not be satisfied with the recovery of the stolen goods, but insisted upon having the thief or the canoe which carried him by way of reprisal. On his preparing to launch this last into the water, he was interrupted by Pareah, who insisted that it was his property, and that he should not take it away. As the officer paid no regard to his remonstrances, Pareah, who seems to have been a very strong man, seized him, pinioned his arms behind, and held him fast by the hair of the head. On this one of the sailors struck the chief with an oar; on which, quitting the officer, he instantly snatched the oar out of the man's hand,

hand, and broke it in two across his knee. The Indians then attacked the sailors with stones, and soon drove them to their boats, to which they were forced to swim, as they lay at some distance from the shore. The officers who could not swim retired to a small rock, where they were closely pursued by the Indians; and here the master narrowly escaped with his life, till Pareah returned and obliged the Indians to give over their attacks. The gentlemen, sensible that Pareah's presence alone could protect them, entreated him to remain with them till they could be brought off in the boats. On his refusal, the master set out to the place where the observatories had been erected, for farther assistance; but Pareah, who met him, and suspected his errand, obliged him to return. In the mean time, the multitude had begun to break in pieces the pinnace, after having taken every thing out of her that was loose: on the return of Pareah, however, they were again dispersed, and some of the oars restored, after which the gentlemen were glad to get off in safety. Before they reached the ship Pareah overtook them in a canoe, and delivered the midshipman's cap which had been taken from him in the scuffle; he also joined noses with them in token of friendship, and desired to know whether Captain Cook would kill him on account of what had happened. They assured him that he would not, and made signs of reconciliation on their part. On this he left them and paddled over to the town of Kavaroah; and that was the last time that he was seen by the English. In the night-time the sentinels were much alarmed by shrill and melancholy sounds from the adjacent villages, which they took to be the lamentations of the women. Next day it was found that the large cutter of the Discovery had been carried off in the night-time; on which Captain Cook ordered the launch and small cutter to go under the command of the second lieutenant, and to lie off the east point of the bay in order to intercept all the canoes that might attempt to get out, and if necessary to fire upon them. The third lieutenant of the Resolution was despatched to the western part of the bay on the same service; while the master was sent in pursuit of a large double canoe already under sail, and making the best of her way out of the harbour. He soon came up with her, and by firing a few shots, obliged her to run on shore, and the Indians to leave her. This was the canoe belonging to a chief named *Omea*, whose person was reckoned equally sacred with that of the king; and to the neglect of securing him we may attribute the succeeding disaster. Captain Cook now formed the resolution of going in person to seize the king himself in his capital of Kavaroah; and as there was reason to suppose that he had fled, it was his design to secure the large canoes, which on that account he caused to be hauled up on the beach. With this view he left the ship about seven o'clock in the morning of Sunday the 14th of February, being attended by the lieutenant of marines, a serjeant, corporal, and seven private men. The crew of the pinnace, under the command of Mr Roberts, were also armed: and as they rowed towards the shore, the captain ordered the launch to leave her station, at the opposite point of the bay, in order to assist his own boat. Having landed with the marines at the upper end of the town, the Indians flocked round him, and prostrated themselves before him. No sign of hostility, nor even much alarm, appeared; the king's sons waited on the commander as soon as he sent for them, and by their means he was introduced to the king, who readily consented to go on board; but in a little time the Indians began to arm themselves with long spears, clubs, and daggers, and to put on thick mats which they use as defensive armour. This hostile appearance was greatly augmented by an unlucky piece of news which was just now brought by a canoe, viz. that one of the Indian chiefs had been killed by the people in the Discovery's boats. On this the women, who had hitherto sat on the beach conversing familiarly, and taking their breakfasts, removed, and a confused murmur ran through the crowd. An old priest now appeared with a cocoa-nut in his hand, which he held out as a present to Captain Cook, singing all the while, and making a most troublesome noise, as if he meant to divert the attention of the captain and his people from observing the motions of the Indians who were now everywhere putting on their armour. Captain Cook beginning to think his situation dangerous, ordered the lieutenant of the marines to march towards the shore, as he himself did, having all the while hold of the king's hand, who very readily accompanied him, attended by his wife, two sons, and several chiefs. The Indians made a lane for them to pass; and as the distance they had to go was only about 50 or 60 yards, and the boats lay at no more than five or six yards distance from land, there was not the least apprehension of the catastrophe which ensued. The king's youngest son Keowa went on board the pinnace without the least hesitation, and the king was about to follow, when his wife threw her arms about his neck, and, with the assistance of two chiefs, forced him to sit down. The captain might now have safely got aboard, but did not immediately relinquish the design of taking the king along with him. Finding at last, however, that this could not be accomplished without a great deal of bloodshed, he was on the point of giving orders for the people to reimbark, when one of the Indians threw a stone at him. This insult was returned by the captain, who had a double barrelled piece, by a discharge of small shot from one of the barrels. This had little effect, as the man had a thick mat before him; and as he now brandished his spear, the captain knocked him down with his musket. The king's son, Keowa, still remaining in the pinnace, the detaining him would have been a great check upon the Indians; but unluckily Mr Roberts, who commanded the pinnace, set him ashore at his own request soon after the first fire. In the mean time another Indian was observed in the act of brandishing his spear at the commander; who thereupon was obliged to fire upon him in his own defence. Missing his aim, however, he killed one close by his side: upon which the serjeant observing that he had missed the man he aimed at, received orders to fire also, which he did, and killed him on the spot. This repressed the foremost of the Indians, and made them fall back in a body; but they were urged on again by those behind, and discharged a volley of stones among the marines, who immediately returned it by a general discharge of their muskets; and this was instantly follow-

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ed by a fire from the boats. Captain Cook expreſſed his aſtoniſhment at their firing, waved his hand to them to ceaſe, and called to the people in the boats to come nearer to receive the marines. This order was obeyed by Mr Roberts; but the lieutenant who commanded the launch, inſtead of coming nearer, put off to a greater diſtance; and by this prepoſterous conduct deprived the unfortunate commander of the only chance he had for his life: for now the Indians, exaſperated by the fire of the marines, ruſhed in upon them and drove them into the water, leaving the captain alone upon the rock. A fire indeed was kept up by both boats; but the one was too far off, and the other crowded with the marines, ſo that they could not direct their fire with proper effect. Captain Cook was then obſerved making for the pinnace, carrying his muſket under his arm, and holding his other hand on the back-part of his head to guard it from the ſtones. An Indian was ſeen following him, but with marks of fear, as he ſtopped once or twice ſeemingly undetermined to proceed. At laſt he ſtruck the captain on the back of the head with a club, and then precipitately retreated. The latter ſtaggered a few paces, and then fell on his hand and one knee, and dropped his muſket. Before he could recover himſelf, another Indian ſtabbed him with a dagger in the neck, though ſtill without putting an end to his life. He then fell into a pool of water knee-deep, where others crowded upon him: but ſtill he ſtruggled violently with them, got up his head, and looked towards the pinnace as if ſoliciting aſſiſtance. The boat was not above five or ſix yards diſtant; but ſuch was the confuſed and crowded ſtate of the crew, that no aſſiſtance could be given him. The Indians then got him under again, but in a deeper water, though he ſtill continued to ſtruggle, and once more got his head up; but being quite ſpent he turned towards the rock as if to ſupport himſelf by it, when a ſavage ſtruck him with a club, which probably put an end to his life, as he was never ſeen to ſtruggle any more. The ſavages hauled his lifeleſs body upon the rocks, and uſed it in the moſt barbarous manner, ſnatching the daggers out of one another's hands, in order to have the pleaſure of mangling it. If any thing could add to the misfortune of this celebrated navigator's death, it was, that even his mangled remains were not ſaved from the hands of the barbarians. The lieutenant already mentioned, who, by his removing to a diſtance when he ought to have come on ſhore, ſeemed to have been the occaſion of his death, returned on board without making any attempt to recover his body; though it appeared from the teſtimonies of four or five midſhipmen who arrived ſoon after at the fatal ſpot, that the beach was almoſt deſerted by the Indians, they having at laſt yielded to the continual fire from the boats. The officer alleged in his own excuſe for removing at firſt from the ſhore, that he miſtook the ſignals; but be this as it will, the complaints againſt him were ſo many and ſo great, that Captain Clerke was obliged publicly to take notice of them, and to take the depoſitions of his accuſers in writing.—Theſe papers, however, were not found, and it is ſuppoſed that the captain's bad ſtate of health had induced him to deſtroy them. After all, we are informed that, in the opinion of Captain Philips who commanded the marines, it is very doubtful whether any effectual relief could have been given to the commander, even if no miſtake had been committed on the part of the lieutenant. The author of all the miſchief was Pareah, the chief already mentioned, who had employed people to ſteal the boat in the night-time. The king was entirely innocent both of the theft and the murder of Captain Cook; but the latter was perpetrated by ſome chiefs who were his near relations. The chief who firſt ſtruck him with a club was named *Karimans raha*, and he who ſtabbed him with the dagger was called *Nooah*. The latter, Mr Samwell, from whoſe narrative this account is taken, obſerves, was ſtout and tall, had a fierce look and demeanour, and united in his perſon the two properties of ſtrength and agility more than he had ever obſerved in any other perſon.—Both of them were held in great eſtimation by their countrymen on account of the hand they had in his death.

By reaſon of the barbarous diſpoſition of the Indians, it was found impoſſible to recover Captain Cook's body after the firſt opportunity already mentioned was loſt. By dint of threats and negociations, however, ſome of the principal parts were procured with great difficulty; by which means the navigators were enabled to perform the laſt offices to their much reſpected commander. Theſe being put into a coffin, and the ſervice read over them, were committed to the deep with the uſual military honours on the 21ſt of February 1779. Soon after his death a letter was iſſued by M. de Sartine, ſecretary to the marine department of France, and ſent to all the commanders of French ſhips, importing, that Captain Cook ſhould be treated as the commander of a neutral and allied power; and that all captains of armed veſſels who might meet with him, ſhould make him acquainted with the king's order, but at the ſame time let him know, that on his part he muſt refrain from hoſtilities. This humane and generous proceeding, with regard to France, originated from M. Turgot; but the thought ſeems firſt to have ſtruck Dr Franklin. Thus much at leaſt is certain, that the doctor, while ambaſſador from the United States, wrote a circular letter to the American naval commanders ſomething to the purport of that already mentioned; but in this he was not ſupported by Congreſs; for an edict was inſtantly iſſued, that ſpecial care ſhould be taken to ſeize Captain Cook if an opportunity of doing it occurred. The Spaniards proceeded in the ſame manner, and both acted on a principle equally mean and abſurd, that the obtaining a knowledge of the weſtern coaſt of America, or of a northern paſſage into the Pacific ocean, might be attended with ſome bad conſequence to their reſpective ſtates.

Captain Cook was a man of plain addreſs and appearance, but well looked, and upwards of ſix feet high. His head was ſmall, and he wore his hair, which was brown, tied behind. His face was full of expreſſion; his noſe exceedingly well ſhaped; his eyes, which were ſmall and of a brown caſt, were quick and piercing; his eyebrows prominent, which gave his countenance altogether an air of auſterity. Notwithſtanding this, it was impoſſible for any one to excel him in humanity, as is evident from the whole tenor of his behaviour both to his own people and the many

Cook.

many ſavage nations with whom he had occaſion to interfere. This amiable property diſcovered itſelf even in the final cataſtrophe of his life; his utmoſt care being directed to the preſervation of his people, and the procuring them a ſafe retreat to their boats. And it cannot be enough lamented, that he who took ſo much care of others, ſhould have periſhed in ſuch a miſerable manner for want of being properly ſupported by them. The perſeverance with which he purſued every object which happened to be pointed out as his duty was unequalled. Nothing ever could divert him from what he had once undertaken; and he perſevered in the midſt of dangers and difficulties which would have diſheartened perſons of very conſiderable ſtrength and firmneſs of mind. For this he was adapted by nature, having a ſtrong conſtitution, inured to labour, and capable of undergoing the greateſt hardſhips. His ſtomach bore without difficulty the coarſeſt and moſt ungrateful food; and he ſubmitted to every kind of ſelf-denial with the greateſt indifference. To this ſtrength of conſtitution he joined an invincible fortitude of mind, of which the circumnavigation of New Holland, and his voyage towards the South Pole, furniſh innumerable inſtances. He was maſter of himſelf on every trying occaſion; and the greater the emergency, the greater always appeared his calmneſs and recollection: ſo that in the moſt dangerous ſituations, after giving proper directions to his people, he could ſleep ſoundly the hours that he had allotted to himſelf. That he poſſeſſed genius to an eminent degree cannot be queſtioned; his invention was ready, and capable not only of ſuggeſting the moſt noble objects of purſuit, but the moſt proper methods of attaining them. His knowledge of his own profeſſion was unequalled; and to this he added a very conſiderable proficiency in other ſciences. In aſtronomy, he became ſo eminent, that he was at length enabled to take the lead in making the aſtronomical obſervations during the courſe of his voyages. In general learning he likewiſe attained to ſuch a proficiency as to be able to expreſs himſelf with clearneſs and propriety; and thus became reſpectable as the narrator, as well as the performer, of great actions. He was an excellent huſband and father, ſincere and ſteady in his friendſhip, and poſſeſſed of a general ſobriety and virtue of character. In converſation he was unaffected and unaſſuming; rather backward in puſhing diſcourſe, but obliging and communicative to thoſe who wiſhed for information: and he was diſtinguiſhed by a ſimplicity of manners almoſt univerſally the attendant of truly great men. With all theſe amiable qualities, the captain was occaſionally ſubject to a haſtineſs of temper, which has been ſet forth in its utmoſt extent, if not exaggerated by ſome, though but few, who are not his friends: but even theſe, as well as others, when taking a general view of his character, are obliged to acknowledge that he was undoubtedly one of the greateſt men of his age.

Captain Cook is diſtinguiſhed as an author, by an account of his ſecond voyage written by himſelf. His firſt voyage, as well as that of ſeveral other navigators, had been recorded by Dr Hawkeſworth; but on the preſent occaſion it was not judged neceſſary to have recourſe to any other than the pen of the author himſelf; and his journal, with a few occaſional alterations, and being divided into chapters, was ſufficient for the purpoſe. The ſtyle is clear, natural, and manly; and it is not improbable, that even a pen of more ſtudied elegance could not have made it appear to more advantage. When it appeared, which was not till ſome time after the author had left England, the book was recommended by the accuracy and excellency of its charts, and by a numerous collection of fine engravings done from the original drawings of Mr Hodges.

We cannot conclude this article without taking ſome notice of the honours paid to our celebrated navigator after his death, both by his own countrymen and thoſe of other nations. Perhaps indeed it may be ſaid with juſtice, that foreigners hold his memory in an eſtimation unequalled even in this country; a remarkable proof of which occurs in the eulogy upon him by Michael Angelo Gianetti, read in the Florentine accademy, on the 9th of June 1785, and publiſhed at Florence the ſame year. It is ſaid alſo, that one of the French literary academies propoſed a prize for the beſt eulogium on Captain Cook; and many poetical teſtimonies of his merit appeared in our own language. The Royal Society of London reſolved to teſtify their reſpect to him by a medal, for which purpoſe a voluntary ſubſcription was opened. A gold medal was given to ſuch of the fellows as ſubſcribed 20 guineas, and a ſilver one to thoſe who ſubſcribed ſmaller ſums; and each of the other members received one of bronze. Thoſe who ſubſcribed 20 guineas were, Sir Joſeph Banks, preſident, the prince of Anſpach, the duke of Montague, Lord Mulgrave, and Meſſrs Cavendiſh, Peachey, Perrin, Poli, and Shuttleworth. Many deſigns were propoſed on the occaſion; but the following was that which was actually ſtruck. On one ſide was the head of Captain Cook in profile, with this inſcription round it, JAC. COOK OCEANI INVSETIGATOR ACERRIMUS; and on the exergue, REG. SOC. LOND. SOCIO SUO. On the reverſe is a repreſentation of Britannia holding a globe, with this inſcription round her, NIL INTENTATUM NOSTRI LIQUERE; and on the exergue, AUSPICIIS GEORGII III. One of the gold medals ſtruck on this occaſion, was preſented to the king, another to the queen, and a third to the prince of Wales. Another was ſent to the French king on account of the protection he had granted to the ſhips; and a ſecond to the empreſs of Ruſſia, in whoſe dominions they had been treated with every expreſſion of friendſhip and kindneſs. Both theſe great perſonages condeſcended to accept of the preſent with marks of ſatisfaction. The French king wrote a handſome letter to the Society, ſigned by himſelf, and underſigned by the marquis de Vergennes; and the empreſs of Ruſſia commiſſioned Count Oſterman to ſignify to Mr Fitzherbert the ſenſe ſhe had of the value of the preſent, and that ſhe had cauſed it to be depoſited in the muſeum of the Imperial Academy of Sciences. As a further teſtimony of the pleaſure ſhe derived from it, the empreſs preſented to the Royal Society a large and beautiful gold medal, containing on one ſide the effigies of herſelf, and on the other a repreſentation of the ſtatue of Peter the Great. After the general aſſignment of the medals, which took place in 1784, there being a ſurplus of money ſtill remaining, it was reſolved by the preſident and council, that an additional number of medals ſhould be thrown off, to be diſpoſed of in preſents to Mrs Cook, the earl of

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of Sandwich, Dr Benjamin Franklin, Dr Cook, provost of King's College Cambridge, and Mr Planta. At the same time it was agreed that Mr Aubert should be allowed to have a gold medal of Captain Cook, on his paying for the gold, and the expence of striking it, in consideration of his intention to present it to the king of Poland.

During the two visits of the ships at Kamtschatka, Major Behm, the commandant of that province, had bestowed, in the most liberal manner, every kind of assistance which it was in his power to bestow; and such was the sense entertained by the lords of the admiralty of the kindness he had showed, that they determined to make him a present of a magnificent piece of plate with an inscription expressive of his humane and generous conduct. The inscription was drawn up by Dr Cook, and afterwards submitted to the opinion and correction of some gentlemen of the first eminence in classical taste.

Sir Hugh Palliser, who had all along displayed an uncommon respect and kindness for Captain Cook, likewise displayed his regard for his memory in a most eminent manner. On his estate in Buckinghamshire, he constructed a small building with a pillar, containing the character of Captain Cook, which is given at the end of the introduction to the last voyage. This was drawn up by the honourable Admiral Forbes, admiral of the fleet, and general of the marines; to whom Captain Cook was known only by his merit and extraordinary actions.

Amidst all these expressions of unavailing praise, it was not forgotten to show some essential service to the widow and family of our celebrated navigator. A memorial for a pension of 200l. per annum was given in to the king from the commissioners of the admiralty, and signed by the earl of Sandwich, Mr Butler, the earl of Lisburne, Mr Penton, Lord Mulgrave, and Mr Mann. His majesty complied with the request of the memorial, and the grant was passed through the usual forms with all possible speed. By this 200l. per annum was settled on the widow during life; and 25l. a-year on each of her three sons. After her death the 200l. was to be divided between her children; a fourth was allotted to Captain King, and the remaining fourth to Mr Bligh and the representatives of Captain Clerke.

The last honour paid to the memory of Captain Cook was the granting a coat of arms to the family, which was done by patent on the 3d of September 1785: and of this we have the following description. Azure, between the two polar stars, Or; a sphere on the plane of the meridian, north pole elevated, circles of latitude for every ten degrees, and of longitude for every 15; showing the Pacific ocean between 60° and 240° west, bounded on one side by America, and on the other by Asia and New Holland; in memory of the discoveries made by him in that ocean, so very far beyond all former navigators. His track thereon is marked with red lines; and for crest, in a wreath of the colour is an arm imbowed, vested in the uniform of a captain of the royal navy. In the hand is the union jack, on a staff proper. The arm is encircled by a wreath of palm and laurel.

Cook's Discoveries.—The number of countries discovered by Captain Cook, and which had never before been visited by any European, is very considerable; but it was a remarkable property of our celebrated navigator, that, wherever he touched, every thing relative to the place was determined with such accuracy and precision, that all former accounts seemed to go for nothing, and the discovery to belong entirely to Captain Cook. Thus it was not unusual with him to make discoveries in places already well known; and thus his voyages have conveyed a vast fund of knowledge perfectly original. Though the accounts of the different places, therefore, at which he touched, are particularly given under their names in the order of the alphabet, we shall in this article endeavour to join the whole together in such a manner as to give the reader some idea of the benefit which has accrued to science from voyages attended not only with much expence and labour, but even with the loss of the celebrated navigator's life.

1 Madeira, volcanic island.

When he set out in the Endeavour in the year 1768, the first place he touched at was Madeira. Here Mr Banks and Dr Solander, besides some additions to the science of botany, discovered undoubted marks of the island having a volcanic origin. On leaving this place, they found it necessary to touch at Rio de Janeiro for provisions, and during the run thither, the commander had an opportunity of determining the cause of the luminous appearance of the sea. On the 29th of October they observed that the water frequently emitted flashes like lightning, though much smaller; but such was their frequency, that eight or ten of them were visible almost at the same moment. This appearance they found, both at this time and afterwards, to arise from a small kind of animal with which the water abounded. Whilst staying at Rio de Janeiro, a melancholy observation was made of the prodigious waste of human lives with which the working of the Portuguese gold mines was attended, no fewer than 40,000 negroes being annually imported for this purpose, none of whom, it seems, survive the labour of the year; and our navigator was informed, that in 1766 this number was so far short, that they were obliged to draught 20,000 more from the town of Rio itself. Proceeding from thence to the southern coasts of America, he had an opportunity of determining a question of great importance to navigation, viz. whether, in sailing to the Pacific ocean, it is better to pass through the straits of Magellan, or to double Cape Horn, and sail through those of Le Maire? From Captain Cook's voyage it appears, contrary to the opinion of former navigators, that the latter is the preferable passage. Through this he was only 33 days in coming round the land of Terra del Fuego from the east entrance of the strait of Le Maire till he had advanced about 12 degrees to the westward, and three and a half to the northward of Magellan's straits. During all this time the ship scarcely received any damage, though if he had passed the other way he could not have accomplished his passage in less than three months, besides immense fatigue to his people and damage to the ship. In these stormy regions, however, he experienced the same inconveniences felt by other navigators; such a sea being met with off Cape Diego, that the ship frequently pitched her bowsprit under water. Here also the excessive cold and mutability of weather in these southern

2 Luminous appearance of the sea occasioned by animals.

3 Vast numbers of negroes destroyed by the working the gold mines.

4 Best passage into the Pacific ocean through the straits Le Maire.

5 Excessive storms and cold in the southern regions.

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ſouthern regions was experienced in ſuch a manner as had nearly proved fatal to ſome of the gentlemen who ſailed along with him. Dr Solander, Mr Banks, Mr Monkhouſe the ſurgeon, and Mr Green the aſtronomer, with their attendants and ſervants, ſet out on a botanical expedition while the ſhip lay at anchor in the bay of Good Succeſs. It was then the middle of ſummer, and the morning on which they ſet out was as mild and warm as it uſually is in the month of May in England: but having aſcended a mountain for the purpoſe of botanizing, they were ſurprized by ſuch ſtorms of ſnow and hail that they could not get back that night. Dr Solander, who warned them of their danger, that people when about to periſh with cold were ſeized with a violent inclination to ſleep, was the firſt who ſeemed likely to fall a victim to it; and it was not in the power of his companions to keep him from ſitting down for that purpoſe. He was awakened in a few minutes; but during this ſhort interval his feet had become ſo much diminiſhed by the contraction of the veſſels, that his ſhoes fell off from them when he was again made to riſe. Even theſe dreary regions, however, are not without inhabitants, whom our voyagers juſtly concluded to be the loweſt of the human ſpecies. Indeed, conſidering the little convenience they have, it is wonderful how they can reſiſt the ſeverity of the climate, for they are almoſt without clothing; they dwell in miſerable hovels, which admit both the wind and ſnow or rain; and they have not any utenſil for dreſſing their food. Nevertheleſs, theſe miſerable creatures, as they appeared to our navigators, ſeemed to have no wiſh to poſſeſs more than they enjoyed; and they were abſolutely indifferent about every thing that was offered them, except large beads, which they would take as ornaments. Hence Dr Hawkeſworth, who wrote the account of the voyage, concludes, that theſe people may be on a level with ourſelves with reſpect to the real happineſs they enjoy.

6 Miſerable ſtate of the natives.

7 Iſlands diſcovered between Cape Horn and Otaheite.

On the 26th of January 1769 our navigators left Cape Horn; and from that time to the firſt of March, during which they run no leſs than 660 leagues, met with no current by which the ſhip was affected. Hence it is probable, that during all this time they had never been near any land, the currents of the ocean being uſually met with in the neighbourhood of iſlands. Several iſlands, however, were diſcovered before they reached Otaheite, on which they beſtowed the names of Lagoon Iſland, Thrumb-cap, Bow Iſland, the Groups, Bird Iſland, and Chain Iſland. All theſe ſeemed to be inhabited, and were covered with a moſt delightful verdure; which appeared to the greater advantage, as our navigators had for a long time ſeen no land but the dreary hills and waſtes of Terra del Fuego. Having arrived at Otaheite, they ſet about obſerving the tranſit of Venus over the ſun, which indeed was the main purpoſe for which the voyage had been undertaken. The anxiety which they underwent when the time of the expected phenomenon approached may eaſily be imagined, as the whole depended on the circumſtance of a clear ſky, which though more readily to be expected in that climate than one more to the northward, was ſtill a matter of uncertainty. In conſequence of ſome hints which had been given by the earl of Morton, Captain Cook determined to ſend out two parties to different places to make the obſervations; by which means there would be a chance of ſucceſs, even if thoſe at Otaheite ſhould fail. For this purpoſe he ſent Mr Gore in the long boat to Eimeo, a neighbouring iſland, along with Mr Monkhouſe, Mr Banks, and Mr Sporing, who were furniſhed with proper inſtruments by Mr Green the aſtronomer. Meſſrs Hicks, Clerke, Pickerſgill, and Saunders, were ſent in the pinnace to a convenient ſpot to the eaſtward of the main obſervatory, where they were likewiſe ordered to make obſervations with ſuch inſtruments as they had. The day on which the tranſit happened was the 3d of June 1769, when they had the ſatisfaction to ſee the ſun riſe without a cloud; and as the weather continued equally clear throughout the day, there was the beſt opportunity of making the obſervations in a proper manner. All of them ſaw an atmoſphere or duſky cloud round the planet, which diſturbed their obſervation, and probably cauſed them to differ from each other more conſiderably than they would otherwiſe have done. According to Mr Green, the times of ingreſs and egreſs of the planet were as follow:

8 Tranſit of Venus obſerved.

Morning.	h.	min.	ſec.
Firſt external contact, - -	9	25	42
Firſt internal contact, or total immerſion,	9	44	4
Afternoon.			
Second internal contact, - -	3	14	8
Second external contact, or end of the tranſit,	3	32	10

From theſe obſervations the latitude of the obſervatory was found to be 17° 29′ 15″ S. and the longitude 149° 32′ 30″ W. of Greenwich. Several curious remarks were made both on the country itſelf, and on the inhabitants. Mr Banks, in an excurſion up the country, diſcovered many traces of volcanic fire; the ſtones, like thoſe of Madeira, had evidently the appearance of being burnt, and the very clay on the hills had the ſame appearance. The natives, though addicted to thieving, appeared in general harmleſs and friendly, and very ready to ſupply the ſhip with neceſſaries in exchange for ſuch things as they wanted. The articles on which they ſet the greateſt value were hatchets, axes, large nails, ſpikes, looking-glaſſes, and beads. They were alſo fond of fine linen, whether white or printed; but an axe of the value of half a crown would buy more proviſions than a piece of cloth of the value of 20 ſhillings. They are very fickle and inattentive; ſo that it was not poſſible to engage them to pay any regard to the worſhip of the Deity which they ſaw performed before them; nor would they attend to any explanation of it that was given them. They are not, however, deſtitute of a religion of their own; and are particularly careful of the repoſitories of the dead, which they will not allow to be violated on any account. Of this Captain Cook had an inſtance, when ſome of his people offered to take down an incloſure of one of thoſe repoſitories. They were violently oppoſed by the natives, who ſent a meſſenger to acquaint them that they would never ſuffer any ſuch thing; and the only inſult that ever was offered to an Engliſhman by the people of this iſland was on a ſimilar account. From Otaheite our navigators carried with

9 Otaheite a volcanic iſland.

10 Account of the natives.

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with them Tupia, formerly high priest of the country, and prime minister to Queen Oberea. From his practice it appeared, that the priests of Otaheite, as well as elsewhere, take care to place themselves a step nearer the Deity than the common people, and to use the deceptions too frequently put in practice by such mediators. While on board the Endeavour, he frequently prayed to his god *Tane* for a wind; and according to his own account never failed of success. This, however, he took care to ensure; for he never began his prayers till he perceived the breeze already on the water, and so near that it must reach the ship before they could well be ended. It was observed likewise of the people of Otaheite, that they had their bards or minstrels, who went about the country with musical instruments. The band whom they saw at this time consisted of two players on flutes and three drummers; the latter accompanying the flutes with their voices. Their songs were made extempore, and the English themselves were generally the subject.

11 Society Islands discovered.

From Otaheite our navigators sailed towards a neighbouring island named *Tethuora;* but finding it small, low, and without any settled inhabitants, the captain chose rather to direct his course towards Huaheine and Ulietea, which he was informed were well inhabited. These had never been visited by any European ship; but the inhabitants, though peaceable and friendly, were very slow and cautious in trading, so that the captain was obliged to bring out his hatchets to market; a commodity which he had hoped might have been concealed from those who had never seen an European ship before. On his arrival at Ulietea he found by the discourse of Tupia, that the inhabitants of a neighbouring island named *Bolabola* were of such a martial disposition as to be the terror of those of Huaheine, Ulietea, and others; insomuch, that he apprehended great danger to our navigators should they touch at an island which the Bolabola men had lately conquered. This, however, had so little effect upon Captain Cook, that he not only landed on the island already mentioned, but took possession, in his majesty's name, of Bolabola itself, together with Ulietea, Huaheine, and another named Otaha, which were all visible at once. During their stay here they paid a visit to Opoony, the formidable monarch of Bolabola; whom, to their surprise, they found a feeble wretch, withered and decrepid, half blind with age, and so stupid that he seemed scarce to be possessed of a common degree of understanding. About these islands they spent six weeks, bestowing upon them the name of the *Society Isles*, on account of their being so near to each other. They are six in number, Ulietea, Huaheine, Bolabola, Otaha, Tubai, and Maurna. The smaller ones in their neighbourhood are Tethuora, Eimeo, Tapoamanoa, Oatara, Opururu, Tamou, Toahoatu, and Whennuaia.

12 Wretched appearance of the king of Bolabola.

13 Oheteroa island discovered.

Leaving the Society Islands, which are situated between Lat. 16. 10. and 16. 55. S. and between 150. 57. and 152. W. from the meridian of Greenwich, they fell in with the island of Oheteroa, situated in S. Lat. 22. 27. and W. Long. 150. 47.; but this was found to be destitute of any harbour or safe anchorage, and the disposition of the inhabitants so hostile that they could not by any means be conciliated, so that no attempts were made to land. From Tupia Captain Cook learned that there were several islands in the neighbourhood, which our navigator conjectured to be Boscawen and Keppel's islands, discovered by Captain Wallis; but without spending more time in exploring these, he set sail to the southward in search of a continent.

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14 Comet of 1769 observed.

Our voyagers left Oheteroa on the 15th of August 1769, and on the 30th had a view of the comet which appeared that year; its tail subtending an angle of 42 degrees. This proved a new source of apprehension to Tupia, who instantly cried out, that as soon as it was seen at Bolabola, the people of that country would attack those of Ulietea, who would undoubtedly be obliged to fly with precipitation to the mountains to save their lives. On the 6th of October they discovered land, which, from its size, and the enormous mountains observable on it, was supposed by the gentlemen on board to be part of *Terra Australis incognita;* but, on farther examination, it was found to be part of New Zealand. Here the inhabitants were found to speak a dialect of the language of Otaheite, so that they could understand Tupia, and he them; yet so extremely hostile were their dispositions, that not the smallest intercourse could be held with them; nor could any thing necessary for the ships be procured excepting wood; so that the name Captain Cook thought proper to bestow on this part of the country was *Poverty Bay*. By the natives it is called *Taoneroa*, and lies in S. Lat. 38. 42. and W. Long. 181. 36. During the time of his stay in this part of the world, the captain circumnavigated almost the whole country of New Zealand, which he found to consist of two islands separated from each other by a narrow strait, which, from its discoverer, has obtained the name of *Cook's Strait*. In some places the disposition of the inhabitants was as favourable as could be wished; so that Dr Solander, Mr Banks, and other gentlemen, had an opportunity of exploring the country in some degree, with a view to discover its natural productions. In one of their excursions, as they passed through a valley, the hills on each side of which were very steep, they were suddenly struck with the sight of a very extraordinary natural curiosity. It was a rock perforated through its whole substance, so as to form a rude but stupendous arch or cavern, opening directly to the sea. This aperture was 75 feet long, 27 broad, and 45 in height, commanding a view of the bay and the hills on the other side, which were seen through it; and opening at once to the view, produced an effect far superior to any of the contrivances of art. On that part of the coast, which, from having observed a transit of Mercury, they named *Mercury Bay*, oysters were found in such plenty, that they might have loaded not only their boats, but even their ship, with them. They were about the same size with those met with in this country; and on account of their being found in such plenty, and likewise that the adjacent country abounds with conveniencies, Captain Cook was at great pains to point out the situation of the place. By his observations the latitude of Mercury Bay is 36. 48. 28. S.

15 They arrive at New Zealand.

16 Rock of an extraordinary shape.

17 Natural products of the country.

Leaving this bay, our commander proceeded to explore other parts of the country, which by his account seems to abound with rivers. Two large ones were met with in Mercury bay; one of which, from the

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the abundance of oysters found at its mouth, was called *Oyster river;* the other they named *Mangrove river*, from the number of mangrove trees growing there. A third, which they called *Thames*, was met with in that part called the Bay of Islands, up which they sailed 14 miles. Its banks were everywhere adorned with lofty trees, which they had likewise observed in other parts of the country. They were too heavy for masts, but would make the finest planks imaginable; and as they resembled the pitch pine, the timber of which is lightened by tapping, the carpenter was of opinion, that they might thus be rendered more proper for masts than any European timber. One of these trees measured 19 feet 8 inches in circumference at the height of six feet from the ground, and was no less than 89, with very little taper, to the branches: so that the lieutenant supposed it must contain 356 feet of solid timber. In Queen Charlotte's Sound the country was little more than one vast forest, with plenty of excellent water, and the coast abounding with fish. As the ship lay at the distance of only a quarter of a mile from the shore, they were agreeably entertained with the singing of an infinite number of small birds, which formed a melody greatly superior to any thing they had ever heard before. The music of these little choristers seemed to be like small bells, most exquisitely tuned, though probably the distance and intervention of the water had a considerable effect in heightening it. They began to sing about two in the morning, and continued their song till sunrise, after which they were silent all the day, resembling in this respect the nightingales of our country.

18 General description of the country.

The time which Captain Cook spent in exploring the coasts of New Zealand was not less than six months. By his researches it was shown to consist of two large islands, the most northerly of which is called *Eaheinomauwe*, and the most southerly *Tovy* or *Tavai Poenammoo;* though it is not certain whether the whole southern island or only a part of it is comprehended under this name. This island seems to be barren and mountainous, but *Eaheinomauwe* has a much better appearance; and it was universally believed by the gentlemen on board, that all kinds of European grain, as well as garden plants and fruits, would flourish in the greatest abundance and perfection; and from the vegetables found here it was concluded that the winters are not more severe than those of England, and it was known by experience, that the summer was not hotter, though the heat was more equal than in this country. Here are no quadrupeds except dogs and rats; and the latter are so scarce, that they escaped the notice of many on board. The birds are not numerous, and the gannet is the only one of the European kind that was observed. The insects are equally scarce; but the sea makes abundant recompense for this scarcity of land animals; every creek swarms with fish, equally delicious with those in this country. The forests are of vast extent, and filled with excellent timber trees; the largest, straightest, and cleanest that Mr Cook had ever seen. There is here one plant which answers the purposes of both hemp and flax, and excels all others of the kind that have been met with in any other part of the world. If the settling of New Zealand therefore should ever be deemed an object worthy of the attention of Great Britain, Captain Cook was of opinion, that the best place for establishing a colony would be either on the banks of the Thames or in the Bay of Islands; each of these places having the advantage of an excellent harbour. Settlements might be extended, and a communication made with the inland parts of the country by means of the river; and vessels easily constructed of the excellent timber with which the country everywhere abounds.

19 Proper place for settling a colony there.

20 Account of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants of New Zealand are in a very barbarous state, and have a degree of ferocity unknown to the inhabitants of the South Sea islands, though they seem to have the same origin. During their residence there, our navigators had the most convincing evidences of their being cannibals, and accustomed to devour the bodies of their slain enemies. Notwithstanding these barbarous practices, however, they seemed to enjoy a state of uninterrupted health. In all the visits made to their towns, none was ever perceived who had the least bodily complaint, not even the slightest eruption on the skin. This extraordinary degree of health was likewise manifested by the ease with which their wounds were healed without the smallest application, as well as by the number of old men with which the island abounded. Many of these, by the loss of their hair and teeth, seemed to be extremely old, but none of them were decrepid; and though inferior in strength to the young men, they came not behind them in the least with regard to cheerfulness and vivacity. The universal and only drink of the New Zealanders is water.

Our navigator had now explored three-fourths of that part of the globe where the southern continent was supposed to lie, without being able to find it; and his voyage had demonstrated, that the lands seen by former navigators could not have been parts of such a continent, though, as he had never proceeded farther to the southward than 40 degrees, the arguments for it were not as yet entirely overthrown. Mr Cook, however, did not at this time proceed farther in the search of such a continent, but sailed from New Zealand to the coast of New Holland, where he anchored in Botany Bay on the 20th of April. Here he found a few savage inhabitants more barbarous and degenerate than any that had yet been observed. Their language was harsh and dissonant, totally unintelligible even to Tupia: they appeared to have little curiosity, and set no value upon any present that could be made them. The most remarkable circumstance in this country seems to be its extreme scarcity of water; not a single stream of any consequence having ever been observed by any navigator. Some were of opinion indeed, that Moreton's bay, in S. Lat. 26. 59. and W. Long. 206. 28. opens into a river; though the only reason they had for this opinion was, that the sea looked paler in that part than usual, and the land at the bottom part of the bay could not be seen. At this time, however, the matter could not be determined by experiment, on account of the wind being contrary. The scarcity of water here is the more surprising, on account of the vast extent of the country, and likewise its having abundance of tolerably high hills. In this island there were found many curious plants and animals; and it was found, that in several places the magnetical needle was affected to such a degree, as to vary its position even to 30 degrees. At one time it varied no less than

21 Discoveries at New Holland.

22 Magnetic needle surprisingly affected.

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than two points on being removed to the distance of only 14 feet. Some of the loose stones being taken up and applied to the needle produced no effect; but Mr Cook was of opinion that the whole phenomenon was to be ascribed to iron ore in some of the mountaios, and of which traces had been already met with. This irregularity contioued in some degree even at sea; for when the ship was close under Cape Upstart, the variation of the needle in the evening of the 4th of June was 9° east, and next morning only 5° 35′; and this was in like maoner accounted for from iron ore, or some magnetical matter below the surface of the ground. The great island has many other small ones round it, several of which were visited by our navigators. One of them, named *Eagle Island*, seemed to be inhabited by a monstrous kind of birds, the nest of one of which measured no less than 26 feet in circumference, and two feet eight inches in height; and in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. xx. there is an account of one of these nests still larger; but the bird to which it belonged was not seen. That which our navigators saw was built of sticks, and lay upon the ground.

23 Birds nests of an immense size.

24 Vast extent of the country.

The country, which goes by the name of *New Holland*, is by far the largest island in the world. Its eastern part, called *New South Wales*, now first explored by Captain Cook, extends upwards of 2000 miles in length, if the coast were reduced to a straight line. Though inhabited, as we have already said, by very barbarous savages, their number appears to bear no proportion to the extent of their territory. The intercourse they had with our navigators was so small, that they could pick up but a few words of their language. As a British settlement is now made in that country, there is no doubt that much more exact accounts will soon be obtained than even the diligence and attention of Captain Cook could collect on such a transient visit.

25 Separated by straits from New Guinea.

In this voyage our navigator, besides exploring the eastern part of the island, which had never been done before, discovered that it was separated from the island of New Guinea, to which it had formerly been thought to join. The two countries are separated by a strait to which the commander gave the name of *Endeavour Strait*. The north entrance of this lies in S. Lat. 10. 39. and W. Long. 218. 36.; the passage is formed by the main land and a congeries of islands to the north, on which our navigator bestowed the name of *Prince of Wales's Islands*. These are very different both in height and extent; and the captain was of opinion, that several passages might be found out among them.

26 Cockles of vast size, sea-scum, &c.

On the coast of New Holland opposite to New Guinea are found cockles of an immense size; some of them being as much as two men could move, and containing 20 pounds of good meat. In these seas, as well as on the coasts of Brazil, our navigators found the surface of the water covered with a kind of scum called by the sailors *sea-spawn*. It was examined by Mr Banks and Dr Solander; but they could determine nothing farther than that it was of vegetable origin.

The natives of New Guinea were so hostile that no discoveries of any consequence could be made. They resembled the New Hollanders in stature, and having short cropped hair. Like them too they were absolutely naked, but somewhat less black and dirty. They had a surprising method of letting off a kind of fires, exactly resembling the flashes of fire-arms, but without any explosion. It was not known in what manner this was done, as they were never near enough to make a particular observatioo. Those who discharged them had a short piece of stick which they swung sidewise from them, from which there issued the fire and smoke just mentioned. This seems to have been intended as a defiance; for they had no effect as offensive weapoos, and others were armed with bows and arrows. The country appeared extremely pleasant and fertile. The place at which they touched lies in S. Lat. 6. 15.

27 Unaccountable method of the natives of letting off fires.

As the condition of the Endeavour was now very much shattered by having sailed so long in these dangerous seas, the commander determined to make the best of his way for Batavia in order to refit. In this voyage he first passed two unknown islands without touching at either of them. They were supposed to belong to the Aurora islands; but if this be the case, the latter must be laid down at too great a distance from New Guinea. The Weasel isles, laid down by former navigators at about 28 or 25 leagues from the coast of New Holland, were not seen; for which reason Mr Cook is of opinion that they are erroneously laid down.

Passing by the islands of Timor, Timor-lavet, Rotta, and Seman, they next arrived at the island of Savu, where a settlement had lately been made by the Dutch. In this voyage they had the satisfaction of observing the aurora australis, which here seemed to differ in some respects from that in the northern hemisphere. It consisted of a dull reddish light extending about 20 degrees above the horizon; and though it varied sometimes in extent, it was never less than eight or ten degrees. From this general mass of light there sometimes issued rays of a brighter colour, which vanished and were renewed like those of the aurora borealis, but without any of that tumultuous motion observed in the aurora borealis. The body of the light bore S. S. E. from the ship, and contioued without aoy diminution of its brightness from 10 to 12 at night.

28 Aurora australis.

The middle part of the island of Savu lies in 10. 35. south, and 237. 30. west longitude, and afforded a most beautiful prospect from the ship. The people are remarkable for the purity of their morals, which are said to be irreproachable, even on the principles of Christianity. Though no man is allowed to have more than one wife, instances of illicit commerce betwixt the sexes are scarcely known among them. Instances of theft are likewise very rare; and so far are they from revenging a supposed injury by murder, that when any differences arise among them, they are immediately and implicitly referred to the determioation of the king. They will not even make it the subject of private debate, lest they should be provoked to resentment and ill-nature; and the delicacy and cleanliness of their persons are said to be proportionable to the purity of their morals.

29 Excellent character of the inhabitants of Savu.

On the arrival of the Endeavour at Batavia, our navigator had an opportunity of observing the good effects of the electrical chains applied to ships, in securing them from the effects of lightning. A dreadful storm of thunder happened one evening, during which the main-mast

30 Good effects of the electrical chains in preserving from the effects of lightning.

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main-maſt of one of the Dutch Eaſt Indiamen was ſplit and carried away cloſe by the deck, the main-top-maſt, and top-gallant-maſt being ſhivered to pieces. This ſhip lay ſo near the Endeavour, that the latter would probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had it not been for the conducting chain, which fortunately was juſt put up. The exploſion ſhook her like an earthquake, the chain at the ſame time appearing like a line of fire. The ſtroke ſeemed to have been directed to the Dutch veſſel by an iron ſpindle at the maſt head: which practice our commander diſcommends, but ſtrongly inculcates the uſe of the electrical chain.

31 Death of Tupia.

On their landing at Batavia, Tupia was confined by ſickneſs, ſo that he appeared quite lifeleſs and dejected when put into the boat: but on his arrival at land recovered his ſpirits ſurpriſingly. The ſcene, to him ſo new and extraordinary, ſeemed to produce an effect ſimilar to what is produced by enchantment. His attention was particularly engaged by the various dreſſes of the people: and being informed that at Batavia every one appeared in the dreſs of his own country, he expreſſed a deſire of likewiſe appearing in the garb of Otaheite. Having therefore been furniſhed with South ſea cloth from the ſhip, he equipped himſelf with great quickneſs and dexterity. After the firſt flow of ſpirits had ſubſided, however, he ſoon began to feel the fatal effects of the climate; and his boy Tayeto, whoſe ſpirits had been ſtill more elevated on his arrival, was attacked with an inflammation of the lungs, and in a little time fell a victim to the diſeaſe. Tupia himſelf did not long ſurvive him, and his death was not attributed ſolely to the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. Having been accuſtomed from his infancy to ſubſiſt chiefly upon vegetable food, and particularly on ripe fruit, he had ſoon contracted the diſorders incident to a ſea life, and could ſcarce have been expected to reach England, even if the unwholeſome climate of Batavia had been out of the queſtion.

32 Prince's iſland, a proper place for ſhips to touch at.

The Endeavour left Batavia on the 27th of December 1770, and on the 5th of January 1771 reached Prince's iſland. This place had been formerly much frequented by the India ſhips, but of late entirely deſerted on account of the ſuppoſed bad quality of the water: but this our navigator has diſcovered to be a miſtake; and that, though the water near the ſea is brackiſh, it may be had of excellent quality by going a little way up the country. He is of opinion, that this iſland is a more proper place for ſhips to touch at than either North Iſland or New Bay, becauſe neither of theſe can afford other refreſhments, which may be had at Prince's iſland.

The reſt of the voyage affords but little intereſting matter. The Cape of Good Hope, which was their next ſtage, has been ſo fully deſcribed by former navigators that there was little room for addition. At St Helena the commander made ſome remarks on the rigorous treatment of the ſlaves, which was repreſented as worſe than that of the Dutch either at Batavia or the Cape of Good Hope. In the account of his ſecond voyage, however, this accuſation was retracted.

33 Second voyage.

Captain Cook's ſecond voyage was undertaken in an eſpecial manner to determine finally the queſtion concerning the exiſtence of a ſouthern continent. It commenced in the year 1772; and, as in the former, he proceeded firſt to Madeira. From thence he proceeded to St Jago, one of the Cape de Verd iſlands; where an opportunity was taken of delineating and giving ſuch a deſcription of Port Praya, and the ſupplies to be there obtained, as might be of uſe to future navigators. On the 8th of September he croſſed the line in 8° weſt longitude, and had the ſatisfaction to meet with good weather, though he had been informed that he had ſailed at an improper time of the year, in conſequence of which he would probably be becalmed. From his account, however, it appears, that though in ſome years ſuch weather may be expected, it is by no means univerſally the caſe. In this part of the ocean he had alſo an opportunity of obſerving the cauſe of the luminous property of ſea-water, which in his former voyage had been attributed to inſects. Mr Forſter being of a different opinion, the matter was again particularly inquired into, but the reſult was entirely conformable to the former determination. Some buckets of water being drawn up from alongſide the ſhip, were found to be filled with thoſe inſects of a globular form, and about the ſize of a ſmall pin's head. No life indeed could be perceived in them; but Mr Forſter was thoroughly convinced of their being living animals when in their proper element.

34 Calms not always to be feared near the equinoctial.

35 Luminous quality of ſea water further determined.

36 Ice iſlands.

Proceeding ſouthward in queſt of a continent, they fell in with ice iſlands in S. Lat. 50. 40. and two degrees of longitude eaſt from the Cape of Good Hope. One of theſe was ſo much concealed by the hazineſs of the weather, that it could not be ſeen at the diſtance of more than a mile. Captain Cook judged it to be about 50 feet in height and half a mile in circumference; its ſides riſing in a perpendicular direction, and the ſea breaking againſt them with great violence. Two days after, they paſſed ſix others, ſome of which were two miles in circumference and 60 feet in height; yet ſuch was the ſtrength and violence of the waves that the ſea broke quite over them. On the 14th they were ſtopped by a vaſt field of low ice, of which they could perceive no end. In different parts of this field there were ſeen iſlands, or hills of ice like thoſe already deſcribed, and ſome of the people imagined that they ſaw land over them; but upon a narrow examination this was found to be a miſtake. On getting clear of the field of ice they again fell in with looſe iſlands; and as it was a general opinion that theſe are only formed in bays and rivers, our navigators concluded that they could not be at a great diſtance from land. They were now in the latitude of 55° 40′ ſouth; and as they had ſailed for more than 30 leagues along the edge of the ice without finding any opening, the captain determined to run 30 or 40 leagues farther to the eaſtward, in hopes of then getting to the ſouthward. If in this attempt he met with no land or other impediment, his deſign was to ſtretch behind the ice altogether, and thus determine the matter at once. In a ſhort time, however, it became evident that the field of ice along which they had ſailed ſo long, did not join with any land; and the captain now came to a reſolution of running as far to the weſt as the meridian of Cape Circumciſion. In the proſecution of this deſign he met with a very ſevere ſtorm, which was rendered the more dangerous by the pieces of looſe ice among

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among which they were ſtill entangled, and a vaſt field of which they could not perceive the boundaries about three miles to the northward. Of this they could not get clear without receiving ſome ſevere ſtrokes; and after all, when they arrived at the place where they ought to have found Cape Circumciſion, it could not be diſcovered; ſo that the captain concluded that what Bouvet took for land could have been nothing but ice.

37 Ice not always found in the vicinity of land.

During this run the fallacy of the general opinion had been diſcovered, that the ice with which the polar regions abound has been formed in the vicinity of land. It was found likewiſe, that the water produced from the melting of ice, even though formed in the ocean, was perfectly ſweet and well taſted. Of this circumſtance the captain took advantage to ſupply himſelf with water; and gave it as his opinion that it was the moſt expeditious method of watering he had ever known. He had likewiſe an opportunity of detecting another popular error, viz. that penguins, albatroſſes, and other birds of that kind, never go far from land. This indeed may be the caſe in open ſeas, but in ſuch as are covered with ice it is very different; for they then inhabit the ice iſlands, and float out with them to ſea to a great diſtance.

38 Irregularity of the magnetic needle.

When in the latitude of 49. 13. S. ſome ſigns of land were perceived; but as the wind did not admit of any ſearch being made in the direction where it was ſuppoſed to lie, the captain proceeded in his voyage to the eaſtward. A very remarkable alteration in the direction of the needle was now perceived, and which could not be ſuppoſed owing to the vicinity of any magnetic matters, as it happened while the ſhips were far out at ſea. The circumſtance was, that when the ſun was on the ſtarboard ſide of the ſhip the variation was leaſt, but greateſt when on the oppoſite ſide. An aurora auſtralis was again obſerved, which broke out in ſpiral or circular rays, and had a beautiful appearance; but did not ſeem to have any particular direction, being conſpicuous at various times in different parts of the heavens, and diffuſing its light over the whole atmoſphere.

39 Extreme cold of the ſouthern ſeas.

The extreme cold and ſtormy weather which now began to take place, determined Captain Cook not to croſs the antarctic circle a ſecond time, as he had once deſigned. His obſervations confirmed the accounts of former navigators, that the cold of the ſouthern ſeas is much more intenſe than in equal latitudes in the northern hemiſphere; but at the ſame time it ſhowed that this cold cannot be owing to the vicinity of a continent, as had been formerly imagined. On the contrary, it was now determined beyond diſpute, that if any ſuch continent exiſted in the eaſtern part of the ſouthern ocean, it muſt be confined within the latitude of 60 degrees. No farther diſcoveries therefore being practicable in higher latitudes, as the winter ſeaſon was approaching, the commander ſteered for New Zealand, where he anchored in Duſky Bay on the 25th of March, having been at ſea 117 days without once coming in ſight of land. Here the time was ſpent in procuring proper refreſhments for the people, and exploring the ſea-coaſt and country for the benefit of future navigators. Nor was our commander unmindful of the inhabitants. Here he left the five geeſe which yet remained, choofing for them a place where there were no people at the time to diſturb them; and as they had there great plenty of food, he had no doubt of their breeding, and in a ſhort time ſpreading over the country. Some days after a piece of ground was cleared by ſetting fire to the topwood, after which it was dug up and ſowed with garden ſeeds. Duſky Bay is ſituated in the weſtern iſland of New Zealand, called *Tavai Poenammoo*, which, as has already been ſaid, is leſs fertile than the other. The inland part is full of rugged mountains of a vaſt height: but the ſea-coaſt is covered with trees, among which is the true ſpruce, which was found to be of great uſe. It was remarked, that though a vaſt quantity of rain fell during the time of reſidence here, it was not attended with any bad effects on the health of the people: which furniſhes an additional argument for the healthineſs of the place. Duſky Bay is reckoned by Captain Cook to be the moſt proper place in New Zealand for the procuring of refreſhments, though it is attended with ſome diſagreeable circumſtances, particularly being infeſted with great numbers of black ſand-flies, which were troubleſome to an extreme degree. The natives ſeen at Duſky Bay were apparently of the ſame race with thoſe ſeen in other parts of the country, and led a wandering life, without any appearance of being united in the bonds of ſociety or friendſhip.

40 Further account of New Zealand.

From Duſky Bay the captain proceeded to Queen Charlotte's Sound, where he met with the Adventure, which had been ſeparated from the Reſolution for above 14 weeks. In his paſſage thither he had an opportunity of obſerving ſix water-ſpouts, one of which paſſed within 50 yards of the Reſolution. It has been a common opinion, that theſe meteors are diſſipated by the firing of a gun, and the captain was ſorry he had not made the experiment; but he acknowledges, that though he had a gun ready for the purpoſe, and was near enough, his attention was ſo much engaged in viewing them, that he forgot to give the neceſſary orders.

41 Water ſpouts.

Having planted another garden in this part of the country, and left two goats, two breeding ſows and a boar, in as private a ſituation as poſſible, that they might be for ſome time out of the reach of the natives, the captain ſet ſail for Otaheite. During the long abſence of the Adventure, Captain Furneaux had viſited the coaſt of New Holland, and diſcovered that there was no probability of Van Diemen's land being ſeparated from it by ſtraits: he had likewiſe found additional proofs that the natives of New Zealand were accuſtomed to eat human fleſh. Captain Cook alſo remarked with concern, that the morals of the New Zealanders were by no means mended by the viſit he had formerly paid them. At that time he looked upon the women to be more chaſte than thoſe of moſt of the nations he had viſited; but now they were ready to proſtitute themſelves for a ſpikenail, and the men to force them to ſuch an infamous traffic, whether agreeable to the inclination of the females or not.

42 Diſcoveries of Captain Furneaux.

In the run from New Zealand to Otaheite, our commander paſſed very near the ſituation aſſigned by Captain Carteret to Pitcairn's iſland, diſcovered by him in 1767, but without being able to find it, though a ſight of it would have been uſeful for correcting its longitude as well as that of others in the neighbourhood;

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hood; but there was not at present any time to spend in searching for it. Proceeding farther on in his voyage, however, he fell in with a cluster of islands supposed to be those discovered by M. Bougainville; and named by him the *Dangerous Archipelago*. To four of these Captain Cook gave the names of *Resolution*, *Doubtful*, *Furneaux*, and *Adventure Islands*. Resolution Island is situated in S. Lat. 17. 24. W. Long. 141. 39. Doubtful Island in S. Lat. 17. 20. W. Long. 141. 38. Furneaux Island in S. Lat. 17. 5. W. Long. 143. 16. and Adventure Island in S. Lat. 17. 14. and W. Long. 144. 30.

43 New islands discovered.

44 Mistake concerning the women of Otaheite.

No discovery of any great consequence was made at the island of Otaheite or those in its neighbourhood, excepting that the captain had an opportunity of correcting the opinion, which till now had prevailed, of the excessive dissoluteness and immodesty of the women of Otaheite; and which had been enlarged upon by Dr Hawkesworth more than seemed to be consistent with decency. The charge, however, according to the accounts of this second voyage, is far from being indiscriminately true, even of the unmarried females of the lower class. Some additions were made to the knowledge of the geography of those islands; and from Huaheine Captain Furneaux took on board of his ship one of the natives of Ulietea, named *Omai*, afterwards so much spoken of in England. Captain Cook at first appeared dissatisfied with his choice of this youth, as being inferior in rank to many others, and having no particular advantage in shape, figure, or complexion; however, he had afterwards reason to be better pleased. During the captain's residence at Otaheite, he used his utmost endeavours to discover whether the venereal disease was endemic among them, or whether it had been imported by Europeans; but in this he could not meet with any perfectly satisfactory account, though it was universally agreed, that if it had been introduced by Europeans, it must have been by the French under M. Bougainville.

45 Harvey's island discovered.

Captain Cook having left Ulietea on the 17th of September 1773, directed his course westward, with an inclination to the south. In this course he discovered land in S. Lat. 19. 8. and W. Long. 158. 54. to which he gave the name of *Harvey's Island*. From thence he proceeded to the island of Middleburg, where he was treated in the most hospitable manner possible. To such an excess did the people carry their generosity, that they seemed to be more fond of giving away their goods than in receiving any thing for them; insomuch that many, who had not an opportunity of coming near the boats, threw over the heads of others whole bales of cloth, and then retired, without either waiting or asking for any thing in return. From Middleburg he proceeded to Amsterdam island, where the beauty and cultivation of the island afforded the most enchanting prospect. There was not an inch of waste ground; the roads were no wider than what was absolutely necessary, and the fences were not above four inches thick. Even this was not absolutely lost; for many of these contained useful trees or plants.

46 South sea islands generally surrounded with coral rocks.

It is observable of the isles of Middleburg and Amsterdam, as well as of most others in the South sea, that they are guarded from the waves by a reef of coral rocks, which extend about one hundred fathoms from the shore. Thus they are effectually secured from the encroachments of the ocean; by which they would probably soon be swallowed up, as most of them are mere points in comparison of the vast quantity of water which surrounds them. Here he left a quantity of garden vegetable seeds and pulse, which it was not doubted would be taken care of by the industrious inhabitants. In the last-mentioned islands our navigators found no animals but hogs and fowls; the former being of the same kind with those usually seen in the other islands of the South sea; but the latter greatly preferable, equalling those of Europe in their size, and even preferable in respect of the goodness of their flesh.

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On the 7th of October, Captain Cook left the island of Amsterdam, with a design to pay another visit to New Zealand, in order to take in wood and water for his voyage in quest of a southern continent. The day after he left Amsterdam he fell in with the island of Pilstart, formerly discovered by Tasman, and situated in S. Lat. 26'. W. Long. 175. 59. thirty-two leagues distant from the east end of Middleburg. On his arrival at New Zealand, he exerted himself as much as possible to leave a proper assortment of vegetables and animals for the benefit of the inhabitants. One of the first things he did, therefore, was to make a present to a chief, who had come off in a canoe, of a quantity of the most useful garden seeds, such as cabbage, turnips, onions, carrots, parsneps, and yams; together with some wheat, French and kidney beans, and pease. With the same person also he left two boars, two sows, four hens, and two cocks. This present, however valuable in itself, seems to have been but indifferently received; for the chief was much better satisfied with a spikenail half the length of his arm than with all the rest; notwithstanding which, he promised to take care of the seeds, and not to kill any of the animals. On inquiring about those animals left in the country in the former part of his voyage, the captain was informed, that the boar and one of the sows had been separated, but not killed. The other he saw in good condition, and very tame. The two goats, he was informed, had been killed by a native of the name of Gaubiah. The gardens had met with a better fate; all the articles being in a very flourishing condition, though left entirely to nature, excepting the potatoes. Captain Cook, however, still determined to supply these islanders with useful animals, put on shore a boar, a young sow, two cocks and two hens, which he made a present of to the adjacent inhabitants. Three other sows and a boar, with two cocks and hens, he ordered to be left in the country without the knowledge of the Indians. They were carried a little way into the woods, and there left with as much food as would serve them for 10 or 12 days, in order to prevent them from coming down to the coast in quest of it, and thus being discovered.

47 Another visit to New Zealand.

A second separation from the Adventure had now taken place; notwithstanding which, Captain Cook set out alone with his vessel in quest of a southern continent; and such was the confidence put in him by the sailors, that all of them expressed as much satisfaction and alacrity as if not only the Adventure, but ever so many ships had been in company.

48 Voyage in quest of a southern continent.

On the 26th of November the captain set sail from New Zealand; and on the 12th of December began to sail

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fall in with the ice, but considerably farther to the southward than they had met with it in the former part of his voyage; being now in the Lat. of 62. 10. S. and 172° W. Long. As they proceeded southward, the number of ice islands increased prodigiously; and in Lat. 67. 31. and W. Long. 142. 54. they all at once got in among such a cluster of these islands, that it became a matter of the utmost difficulty and danger to keep clear of them. Finding it impossible, therefore, to get any farther to the southward at present, the captain determined to explore a considerable tract of sea to the north of his present situation, and then again to stand to the south. But in this he was still unsuccessful; no land being discovered either in sailing northward, eastward, westward, or southward; though he proceeded as far in the last direction as 71. 10. S. Lat. and 106. 54. W. It was now impossible to proceed; and the opinion of the captain himself, as well as most of the gentlemen on board, was that the ice by which they were now stopped extended as far as the pole. As there was still room, however, in parts of the ocean entirely unexplored, for very large islands, our commander determined not to abandon the pursuit in which he was engaged until there should not be any possibility of doing more: and besides the possibility of making new discoveries, he was conscious that many of the islands already discovered were so obscurely known, that it was of consequence to pay them a second visit. With this view he proposed to go in quest of Easter or Davis's Island; the situation of which was known with so little certainty, that none of the attempts lately made to discover it had been successful. He next intended to get within the tropic, and then to proceed to the west, touching at any islands he might meet with, and settling their situations, until he should arrive at Otaheite, where it was necessary for him to make some stay in order to look for the Adventure. It was part of his design also to run to the eastward as far as Terra Austral del Espiritu Santo, discovered by Quiros, and which M. Bougainville had named *The Great Cyclades*. From this land he proposed to sail to the southward, and from thence to the east between the latitude of 50° and 60°. In the execution of this design, he determined if possible to reach Cape Horn, during the ensuing November, when he would have the best part of the summer before him to explore the southern part of the Atlantic ocean.

49 Is stopped by ice.

In pursuing his course to the northward, it had been part of his design to find out the land said to have been discovered by Juan Fernandez in about the latitude of 38°; but he was soon convinced, that if any such land existed, it could only be a very small island; but the prosecution of the design was for some little time interrupted by a violent bilious disorder by which the captain was attacked. In this, when he began to recover, as there was no fresh meat on board, he was obliged to have recourse to dog's flesh; and a favourite animal belonging to Mr Forster was sacrificed on the occasion. The captain was able to eat not only of the broth made of this, but likewise of the flesh, when his stomach could bear nothing else. On the 11th of March they arrived at Easter Island, before which time the captain was tolerably recovered. Here they made but few discoveries farther than determining the situation of it to be in S. Lat. 27. 5. 30. and W. Long. 109. 46. 20. The island itself was found barren and desolate, having every appearance of being lately ruined by a volcanic eruption; without either wood, fuel, or fresh water worth taking on board. The inhabitants were few in number; and the women in very small proportion to the men, but remarkable for their lewdness. A number of gigantic statues were observed, which had also been taken notice of by Commodore Roggewein, and the origin of which could not be accounted for.

50 Nutritive property of dog's flesh.

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51 Visit Easter Island,

On leaving Easter Island, Captain Cook was again attacked by his bilious disorder; but happily recovered before he reached the Marquesas, which they did on the 6th and 7th of April. One of these, being a new discovery, received the name of *Hood's Island*, from the young gentleman by whom it was first observed. These are five in number; situated between 9 and 10 degrees of south latitude, and between 138. 47. and 139. 13. of west longitude. They were discovered by Mendana a Spaniard; and their names are, La Magdalena, St Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Christina, and Hood's Island. The inhabitants are, without exception, the finest race of people in the South sea, surpassing all others in that part of the world in the symmetry of their persons and regularity of their features. Their origin, however, from the affinity of language, was evidently the same with that of Otaheite. It was in St Christina that our commander anchored; and he has left particular directions for finding a particular cove in Resolution bay in that island, which is the most convenient for procuring wood and water.

52 and the Marquesas.

In the passage from the Marquesas to Otaheite, our navigators passed several low and small islands connected together by reefs of coral rocks. One of these, named by the inhabitants *Tiookea*, was visited by Lieutenant Cooper. It was discovered and visited by Captain Byron; and is situated in S. Lat. 27. 30. W. Long. 144. 56. The inhabitants are much darker in their complexion, and seem to be of a fiercer disposition than those of the neighbouring islands. They have the figure of a fish marked upon their bodies; a very proper emblem of their profession, deriving their subsistence almost entirely from the sea. Passing by St George's islands, which had been also discovered and named by Captain Byron, our commander now discovered four others, which he named *Pallifer's Islands*. One of these is situated in S. Lat. 15. 26. and W. Long. 146. 20. another in S. Lat. 15. 27. and W. Long. 146. 3. They were inhabited by people resembling those of Tiookea, and like them were armed with long pikes. Here our navigator observes, that from W. Long. 138° to 148° or 150°, the sea is so full of small low islands, that one cannot proceed with too much caution.

53 Island Tiookea.

54 Pallifer's Islands.

On his arrival at Otaheite, provisions were met with in great plenty; and they were now very acceptable, by reason of the long time the ship had been at sea without obtaining any considerable supply. Two goats which had been given by Captain Furneaux to a chief named *Otoo*, appeared to be in a very promising situation. The female had brought forth two kids, which were almost large enough to propagate; and as she was again with kid, there was little doubt that the island

55 Arrival at Otaheite.

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island would soon be stocked with these useful animals; though it was otherwise with the sheep, all of which had died except one. On this occasion, also, the captain furnished the natives with cats, of which he gave away twenty; so that there was little danger of the stock of these animals decaying. During his residence at this time, he had an opportunity of making some computation of the number of inhabitants on the island, which he supposed to be no less than 200,000.

56 Huaheine, Ulietea, Howe island, &c.

Huaheine and Ulietea islands were next visited, but without any remarkable occurrence. From the latter our commander set sail on the 5th of June 1774; and next day came in sight of Howe island, discovered by Captain Wallis, and situated in S. Lat. 16. 46. and W. Long. 154. 8. On the 16th a new island, named *Palmerstone Island*, was discovered, in S. Lat. 18. 4. W. Long. 163. 10.; and four days after, another was observed in S. Lat. 19. 1. W. Long. 169. 37. As it was evidently inhabited, the captain determined to land; but found the people so extremely hostile, that no intercourse could be had: nay, he himself was in danger of losing his life by a lance thrown by one of the natives, which passed close over his shoulder. From the extreme hostility of the people of this island, it was named by Captain Cook *Savage Island*. It is of a round shape, pretty high, and has deep water close to the shore, but has no good harbour.

57 Rotterdam island.

Passing by a number of small islands, Captain Cook next anchored at that of Anamocka or Rotterdam, discovered by Tasman. It is situated in 20. 15. S. Lat. and 174. 31. W. Long. Its form is triangular, each side extending about three and a half or four miles. From the north-west to the south it is encompassed by a number of small islands, sand banks, and breakers; of which no end can be seen from the island on the northern side, and may possibly be as far extended as Amsterdam or Tongataboo. While the captain remained on this island, he learned the names of more than 20 of the adjacent isles, some of which were in sight, between the north-west and north-east. Two of these, which lie more to the eastward than the others, are named *Amattafoa* and *Oghoo*. They are remarkable for their height; and from a great smoke visible about the middle of Amattafoa, it was supposed to have a volcano. The island of Rotterdam, Middleburg, or Eaoowe, with Pilstart, form a group extending about three degrees of longitude, and two of latitude. The whole group was named *The Friendly Isles* by Captain Cook, on account of the friendship which seemed to subsist among the inhabitants, and their courteous behaviour to strangers. The people of Rotterdam island are similar to those of Amsterdam; but the island is not in such a high state of cultivation as Amsterdam, nor do its fruits come to such perfection. It is also inferior in the articles of cloth, matting, &c. which are accounted the wealth of these parts.

58 Supposed volcano.

59 New Hebrides visited.

From Rotterdam island our navigator continued his course to the westward, where he first discovered a small island in S. Lat. 19. 48. W. Long. 178. 2. It was named Turtle island, from the great number of these animals found upon it. Sixteen days after he fell in with the cluster of islands named by M. Bougainville the *Great Cyclades*. The first island on which he landed was Mallicollo, where, though the people were at first very hostile, they were soon conciliated, and a friendly intercourse took place. The language of these people is considerably different from that of the other South sea islands; they are diminutive in their persons, and of ugly features; their hair black or brown, short and curling, but less soft than that of the negroes. They had no name for a dog in their language, and had never seen the animal; so that they were extremely fond of a dog and bitch, of which Captain Cook made them a present. The harbour in this island, in which the ship came to an anchor, was named Sandwich harbour, and lies on the north-east side, in S. Lat. 16. 25. 20. E. Long. 167. 57. 53. It is very commodious for the carrying on any operations at land, having a good depth of water, and many other advantages.

60 Shepherd's isles.

The next discovery was that of the group named *Shepherd's Isles*, in honour of Dr Shepherd, Plumian professor of astronomy at Oxford. Numbers more were every day observed; of which one peaked rock, named the *Monument*, was uninhabited, being apparently inaccessible to any other creature but birds. Sandwich island is of a considerable extent, and exhibits a most beautiful prospect. It is surrounded with other smaller islands, the principal of which were named *Montague* and *Hinchinbrooke*. At Erromango they found the people hostile and treacherous; and from a skirmish they had with them near a promontory on the north-east point of the island, it was named *Traitor's Head*. Its situation is in S. Lat. 10. 43. E. Long. 169. 28.

61 Tanna island.

From Erromango our navigators proceeded to Tanna, an island they had formerly discovered at a distance, and which is surrounded by some others, three of which are named *Immer*, *Footoona* or *Erronan*, and *Anatom*. At Tanna they staid for some time, on account of their wanting some quantity of wood. A volcano was seen about the middle of this island, which burned with great violence, particularly in moist and wet weather; but notwithstanding the friendly terms on which they were with the natives, the latter would never allow them to approach this mountain. There were some spots on the sea-coast which emitted a hot and sulphureous smoke; and the people also expressed much uneasiness when these were approached or meddled with. The port which the ship entered in this island was named *Resolution Harbour*, and is situated in S. Lat. 19. 32. 25¼. E. Long. 169. 44. 35. It is a small creek three quarters of a mile long, and about half as broad. It is extremely convenient, having plenty of wood and water close to the shore. Among the vegetable productions of this island, there is reason to suspect the nutmeg tree to be one, a pigeon having been shot, in the craw of which was a wild nutmeg. The inhabitants are two distinct races of people, and speak two different languages; one that of the Friendly Islands, the other peculiar to Tanna and those in the neighbourhood. The people are very expert in the use of their weapons; on which Mr Wales makes the following remarks: "I must confess I have often been led to think the feats which Homer represents his heroes as performing with their spears, a little too much of the marvellous to be admitted in an heroic poem, I mean when confined within

62 Volcano.

63 Dexterity of the inhabitants in the use of their lances.

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within the ſtrait ſtays of Ariſtotle; nay, even ſo great an advocate for him as Mr Pope acknowledges them to be ſurpriſing; but ſince I have ſeen what theſe people can do with their wooden ſpears, and them badly pointed, and not of an hard nature, I have not the leaſt exception to any one paſſage in that great poet on this account. But if I ſee fewer exceptions, I can find infinitely more beauties in him, as he has, I think, ſcarcely an action, circumſtance, or deſcription of any kind whatever relating to a ſpear, which I have not ſeen and recogniſed among theſe people; as their whirling motion and whiſtling noiſe as they fly; their quivering motion in the ground when they fall; their meditating their aim when they are going to throw; and their ſhaking them in their hand as they go along."

The archipelago, in which Captain Cook had now remained a conſiderable time, is ſituated between 14. 29. and 20. 4. S. Lat. and between 166. 41. and 170. 21. E. Long. extending 125 leagues in the direction of N. N. W. ½ W. and S. S. E. ½ E. The principal iſlands are the Peak of the Etoile, Terra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St Bartholomew, the iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide iſle, Ambrym, Paoom, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Erromango, Tanna, Immer, and Anatom. They were firſt diſcovered in 1606 by Quiros, who ſuppoſed them to be part of a ſouthern continent; nor were they viſited from that time till the year 1768, when M. Bougainville beſtowed upon them the name of the *Great Cyclades*, as already mentioned. This gentleman, however, beſides landing in the iſle of Lepers, only diſcovered that the country was not connected, but conſiſted of iſlands. Captain Cook examined the whole in ſuch an accurate manner, aſcertaining the ſituation of many of the iſlands, and diſcovering ſuch numbers of new ones, that he thought he had an undoubted right to impoſe a new name upon them, and therefore called them the *New Hebrides*.

64 New Caledonia diſcovered.

From the New Hebrides Captain Cook ſet ſail for New Zealand, in order to proſecute his voyage in ſearch of a ſouthern continent, but in three days diſcovered a large iſland, which he named *New Caledonia*; and which, next to New Zealand, is the largeſt in the Pacific ocean. It lies between 19. 37. and 22. 30. S. Lat. and between 163. 37. and 167. 14. E. Long. lying N. W. ½ W. and S. E. ½ E. extending about 87 leagues in that direction, though its breadth does not anywhere exceed 10 leagues. The natives are ſtrong, active, well made, and ſeem to be a middle race between thoſe of Tanna and the Friendly Iſles; and the women were more chaſte than thoſe of the iſlands farther to the eaſtward. The iſland afforded a conſiderable variety of plants for the botaniſts, and ſome excellent timbers of the ſpecies of the pitch pine, for maſts and ſpars. The wood is cloſe-grained, white, and tough; and very fit for the purpoſe. One of the ſmall iſlands ſurrounding the large one was named the *Iſle of Pines*, from the quantity of theſe trees found upon it; and another, from the number and variety of plants it afforded, had the name of *Botany Iſland*. The coaſt, however, was ſo dangerous, that our navigator, having no more time to ſpare, was obliged to leave ſome part of it unexplored, though the extent was determined, as has been already related. Mr Forſter was of opinion, that the language of this people is totally different from that of any other of the South Sea iſlands.

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65 Norfolk iſland.

Proceeding from New Caledonia, our navigator next fell in with an iſland about five leagues in circumference, and of a good height, ſituated in S. Lat. 29. 2. 30. and E. Long. 168. 16.; on which he beſtowed the name of *Norfolk Iſland*. It was entirely uninhabited. Various trees and plants common in New Zealand were obſerved here, particularly the flax plant, which is more luxuriant in this iſland than in any part of New Zealand. The chief produce of the iſland is a kind of ſpruce-pine, many of the trees of which are 10 or 12 feet in circumference. The palm cabbage likewiſe abounds here; and the coaſts are well ſtocked with excellent fiſh. On the 18th of October they arrived at Queen Charlotte's Sound in New Zealand; the ſituation of which was now aſcertained by Mr Wales with the utmoſt accuracy, its latitude being found 41. 5. 56½. S. and its longitude 174. 25. 7½. E. On examining the gardens which had been made, it was found that they were in a thriving condition, though they had been entirely neglected by the natives. Some of the cocks and hens were ſuppoſed to be ſtill in exiſtence, as a new laid hen's egg was found, though none were ſeen.

66 Arrival at New Zealand;

On the 10th of November Captain Cook ſet ſail from New Zealand in ſearch of a ſouthern continent; but having traverſed a vaſt extent of ſea for 17 days, from S. Lat. 43. 0. to 55. 48. he gave up all thoughts of finding any more land in this part of the ocean, and therefore determined to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the ſtraits of Magellan, with a deſign of coaſting the ſouthern part of Terra del Fuego quite round Cape Horn to Le Maire's Straits. As the world had hitherto received but very imperfect accounts of this coaſt, he thought a ſurvey of it would be of more advantage to navigation and geography than any thing he could expect to meet with in a higher latitude. On the 17th of December he reached the coaſt of Terra del Fuego, and in three days more anchored in a place to which the gave the name of *Chriſtmas Sound*. The land appeared deſolate beyond any thing he had hitherto experienced. It ſeems to be entirely compoſed of rocky mountains, without the leaſt appearance of vegetation. Theſe mountains terminate in horrid precipices, the craggy ſummits of which ſpire up to a vaſt height; ſo that ſcarcely any thing in nature can have a more barren and ſavage proſpect than the whole of the country. In the courſe of his voyage along this coaſt, he could not but obſerve, that at no time had he ever made one of ſuch length where ſo little occurred of an intereſting nature. Barren and dreary, however, as the coaſt was, it was not totally deſtitute of accommodations about Chriſtmas Sound. Freſh water and wood for fuel were found about every harbour; and the country everywhere abounds with fowl, particularly geeſe.—A conſiderable number of plants were alſo found upon it, almoſt every ſpecies of which was new to the botaniſts. In paſſing by Cape Horn, it was wiſhed to determine whether it belonged to the land of Terra del Fuego, or to a ſmall iſland ſouth from it; but this was found impracticable on account of the foggy weather and dangerous ſea. Its latitude was now

67 at Terra del Fuego.

68 Remarks on a voyage round Cape Horn.

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now determined to be 55. 58. S. and its longitude 67. 46. W. The coaſt apppeared leſs dreary here than on the weſtern ſide of Terra del Fuego; for though the ſummits of ſome of the hills were rocky, the ſides and valleys ſeemed covered with a green turf and wooded in tufts. In paſſing this cape a remark was made by the captain, that if he were on a voyage round Cape Horn, to the weſt, and not in want of wood or water, or any other thing which might make it neceſſary to put into port, he would ſail a conſiderable way to the ſouthward, ſo as to be out of the reach of land altogether. By this method he would avoid the currents, whoſe force, he was of opinion, would be broken at 10 or 12 leagues diſtance from the ſhore, and farther off would be entirely deſtroyed. The extent of Terra del Fuego, and conſequently of Magellan's Straits, was found to be leſs than what is commonly laid down in maps and charts, and the coaſts, in general, leſs dangerous than has been uſually repreſented; though this muſt undoubtedly have been owing in a great meaſure to the weather, which happened to be remarkably temperate. In one of the ſmall iſlands near Staten Land, and which from their being diſcovered on new year's day, were called *New Year's Iſles*, a remarkable harmony was obſerved among the animals of different ſpecies with which theſe deſolate regions abound. The ſea-lions occupy the greateſt part of the ſea-coaſt; the bears occupy the inland; the ſhags are poſted in the higheſt cliffs; the penguins in ſuch places as have the beſt acceſs to and from the ſea; and the other birds chooſe more retired places. Occaſionally, however, all theſe animals were ſeen to mix together like domeſtic cattle and poultry in a farm yard, without one attempting to hurt the other in the leaſt. Even the eagles and vultures were frequently obſerved ſitting together on the hills among the ſhags, while none of the latter, either old or young, appeared to be diſturbed at their preſence. It is probable, therefore, that theſe birds of prey ſubſiſt by feeding on the carcaſes of the animals which die naturally or by various accidents, and which muſt be very numerous, from the immenſe quantity exiſting on the iſland.

69 Surpriſing concord of the animals in theſe parts.

70 Farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern regions.

Our navigater now ſet out in queſt of that extenſive coaſt laid down in Mr Dalrymple's chart, and in which is marked the gulf of St Sebaſtian; but when he came into the place where it is ſuppoſed to lie, neither land nor any certain ſigns of it could be met with. Some iſlands, however, were diſcovered, particularly Willis's iſland, in S. Lat. 54. 0. W. Long. 38. 23.; another named *Bird Iſland* and *South Georgia*, ſituated between 53. 37. and 54. 57. S. Lat. and between 38. 13. and 35. 34. W. Long. All theſe were covered with ſnow and ice to a great height. Not a tree was to be ſeen, not even a ſhrub, nor were there any rivulets or ſtreams of water: the only vegetables to be met with were a coarſe ſtrong-bladed graſs, wild burnet, and a kind of moſs. A conſiderable quantity of ſeals and penguins were met with, whoſe fleſh, though very coarſe, was preferred by the ſhip's company, even by Captain Cook himſelf, to the ſalt proviſions, which were now greatly decayed. The moſt ſoutherly land diſcovered by our navigator was that on which he beſtowed the name of *Southern Thule*, and which is ſituated in S. Lat. 59. 13. 30. W. Long. 27. 45. This was ſtill more deſolate than South Georgia, being forſaken even by the ſeals and penguins which abounded on it. Not a ſingle herb of any kind was ſeen upon it, but vaſt high and barren mountains, the tops of ſome of which reached above the clouds; and it may be remarked, that this ſeems to be the only part of the world, hitherto diſcovered, entirely unfit for the ſupport of animal life.

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71 Of the exiſtence of a ſouthern continent.

Southern Thule was diſcovered on the 31ſt of January 1775; and from this to the 6th of February ſeveral other iſlands were diſcovered, and named *Cape Briſtol*, *Cape Montague*, *Saunders's Iſles*, *Candlemas Iſle*, and *Sandwich's Land*. With regard to this laſt, Captain Cook was undetermined whether it was a group of iſlands or part of a continent lying near the pole, as after all his diſappointments, he was ſtill inclined to think that ſuch a continent has an exiſtence, on account of the vaſt quantity of ice met with in the ſouthern ſeas, and which from its great height appears to be formed in bays and gulfs of the land, and not in the ocean itſelf. The greateſt part of the ſouthern continent, however, if it has any exiſtence, muſt be within the polar circle, where the ſea is ſo encumbered with ice, that the land muſt be inacceſſible. So great is the danger in navigating theſe ſouthern ſeas, that Captain Cook aſſerts, on the moſt probable grounds in the world, that ſuch lands as lie to the ſouthward of his diſcoveries could not be explored; and that even no man would venture further than he had done. Thick fogs, ſnow ſtorms, intenſe cold, and every thing that can render navigation difficult or dangerous, muſt be encountered; all which difficulties are greatly heightened by the inexpreſſibly horrid aſpect of the country itſelf. It is a part of the world doomed by nature never once to feel the warmth of the ſun's rays, but to be buried in everlaſting ſnow and ice. Whatever ports there may be on the coaſt, they are almoſt entirely covered with frozen ſnow of a vaſt thickneſs. If, however, any of them ſhould be ſo far open as to invite a ſhip into it, ſhe would run the riſk of being fixed there for ever, or of coming out in an ice iſland. To this it may be added, that the iſlands and floats on the coaſt, the great falls from the ice clefts in the port, or a ſudden ſnow ſtorm, might be attended with equally fatal effects. For theſe reaſons our commander determined to abandon the purſuit of a land whoſe exiſtence was ſo equivocal, but whoſe inutility, if it ſhould be diſcovered was certain. One thing only remained to complete what he wiſhed to accompliſh, and that was to determine the exiſtence of Bouvet's land. In this inquiry he ſpent 16 days; but having run for 13 of theſe directly in the latitude aſſigned to that land, and found no appearance of it, or of Cape Circumciſion, he concluded that neither of them had any exiſtence, but that the navigators had been deceived by the appearance of ice iſlands. Two days more were ſpent in queſt of ſome land which had been obſerved more to the ſouthward, but with the like bad ſucceſs; after which our commander abandoned all further thoughts of ſouthern diſcoveries, and prepared for returning to England. On his way home, however, he determined to direct his courſe in ſuch a manner as to fall in with the iſlands of Denia and Marſeveen. Theſe are laid down in Dr Halley's variation chart in latitude 41. 30. S. and about 4. 0. E. from the meridian of [illegible]

72 Voyage in queſt of Bouvet's land.

73 Of the iſles of Denia and Marſeveen.

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of the Cape of Good Hope. None of these islands could be found; and therefore our commander having very little time to spare either in searching for them or attempting to disprove their existence, made the best of his way to the Cape of Good Hope, and from thence to England. In his passage thither, he visited the isles of St Helena, Ascension, and Fernando de Noronha. An experiment was made on the use of the still for procuring fresh water at sea; the result of which was, that though the invention was useful upon the whole, yet it would not by any means be advisable to trust entirely to it. Provided indeed that there was not a scarcity of fuel, and that the coppers were good, as much might thus be procured as would support life; but that no efforts would be sufficient to procure the quantity necessary for the preservation of health, especially in hot climates. He was likewise convinced that nothing contributes more to the health of seamen than having plenty of fresh water. His last stage in this second voyage before his arrival in England was at Fayal, one of the Azores islands; and his only design in stopping here was to give Mr Wales an opportunity of finding the rate of the watches going, that so he might be enabled to find the longitude of these islands with the greater certainty.

74 Of the usefulness of distilling sea-water.

75 Third voyage.

76 Visits the isle of Teneriffe.

In our commander's third voyage he touched at the island of Teneriffe instead of Madeira, looking upon the former to be a better place for procuring refreshments; and was convinced of the justness of his conjecture by the facility with which provisions of all kinds were obtained. The air of the country is exceedingly healthy, and proper for those subject to pulmonary complaints. This was accounted for by a gentleman of the place from the great height of the island, by which it was in the power of any person to change the temperature of the air as he pleased; and he expressed his surprise that physicians, instead of sending their patients to Nice or Lisbon, did not send them to Teneriffe. From the same gentleman it was learned, that the tea shrub grows in that island as a common weed, which is constantly exterminated in large quantities. The Spaniards, however, sometimes use it as tea, and ascribe to it all the qualities of that brought from the East Indies. They gave it also the name of tea, and say that it was found in the country when the islands were first discovered. Another botanical curiosity is the fruit called the *impregnated lemon*, which is a perfect and distinct lemon inclosed within another, and differing from the outer only in being a little more globular.

77 Tea shrub.

78 Impregnated lemon.

79 Prince Edward's islands discovered.

From Teneriffe Captain Cook proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope, and from thence to the southward, where he fell in with two islands, the larger of which is about 15 leagues in circuit, and the smaller about nine; their distance from one another being about five leagues. The one of these islands lies in S. Lat. 46. 53. and E. Long. 37. 46.; the other in S. Lat. 46. 4. E. Long. 38. 8. As the ships passed through between them, they could not discern either tree or shrub upon any of them, even with the assistance of their best glasses. The shore seemed to be bold and rocky, their internal parts full of mountains, whose sides and summits were covered with snow. These two, with four others, which lie from 9 to 12 degrees of longitude more to the east, and nearly in the same latitude, had been discovered in the year 1772 by Captain Marion du Fresne and Crozet, two French navigators, in their passage from the Cape of Good Hope to the Philippines. As no names had been assigned to them in a chart of the Southern ocean communicated to Captain Cook in 1775, the two larger ones were by him distinguished by the name of *Prince Edward's Islands*, in honour of his majesty's fourth son; the other four, with a view to commemorate the discoverers, were called *Marion's* and *Crozet's islands*.

80 Voyage in quest of Kerguelen's land.

From these our commander steered to the southward in search of Kerguelen's land, which he had been instructed to touch at, in order to discover, if possible, a good harbour there. In his passage to it several new islands were discovered; one, to which Kerguelen had given the name of the *Island of Rendezvous*, Captain Cook, on account of its shape, changed to that of *Blight's Cap*. It is situated in S. Lat. 48. 29. E. Long. 68. 40. and is a high round rock, inaccessible to all creatures but birds. Next day he fell in with Kerguelen's land, at first thought to be a part of the southern continent, but afterwards found by Kerguelen himself to be an island. The extent of it, however, was not determined either by the French navigator or by Captain Cook. The former reckons it at 200 leagues in circumference, but Captain Cook estimates it at much less. Our navigator could not get any extensive view of it on account of the foggy weather; but as far as could be discovered, it was barren and desolate, insomuch that there was neither food nor covering for cattle of any kind, so that they would inevitably perish if any were left. Even the sea-coasts were in a great measure destitute of fish; but the shore was covered with innumerable multitudes of seals, together with penguins and other birds; all of which were so void of fear that any quantity whatever might be killed without any difficulty. Not a single tree nor shrub could be seen, nor a piece of drift wood on the shore; and herbage of every kind was likewise very scarce. A prodigious quantity of the sea-weed called by Sir Joseph Banks *fucus giganteus* was found in one of the bays. The whole variety of plants found in this island did not exceed sixteen or eighteen species. The harbour in which our navigator made his longest stay on this desolate coast was named *Port Pallifer*, and is situated in S. Lat. 49. 3. E. Long. 69. 37. In this voyage our navigator undoubtedly displayed superior nautical abilities to those of M. Kerguelen, who in two voyages to the place had never been able to bring his ships to anchor on any part of the coast.

81 Description of that island.

82 Of Van Diemen's land.

From Kerguelen's land, our navigator proceeded to the coast of New Holland, where he now touched at the southern part, called *Van Diemen's Land*, where he anchored in Adventure Bay. Here they found plenty of wood and water, with abundance of grass, coarse indeed, where they went first ashore, but afterwards much finer and proper for the cattle. Here, as everywhere else, the latitudes and longitudes were settled with the greatest exactness. The bottom of Adventure Bay was found to lie in S. Lat. 43. 21. 6.; E. Long. 147. 29. The inhabitants visited them in a friendly manner, but seemed as stupid and insensible as those they had formerly seen. They seemed to be totally ignorant of the use of iron, and set no value upon any thing in the ornamental way excepting beads;

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beads; nor did they ſeem to be acquainted even with the uſe of fiſh-hooks. Here they found the ſtories of the ancient fauns and ſatyrs living in hollow trees realized. Some huts covered with bark, and of a moſt wretched conſtruction, were indeed found near the ſhore; but the moſt commodious habitations were afforded by the largeſt trees. Theſe had their trunks hollowed out by fire to the height of ſix or ſeven feet; and there was room enough in one of them for three or four perſons to ſit round a hearth made of clay; and it may juſtly ſeem ſurpriſing, that notwithſtanding the extreme violence offered to the vegetative powers of the tree by forming this habitation, it ſtill continued to flouriſh in conſequence of one ſide being left entire. The people, notwithſtanding their extreme barbarity, were ſuppoſed to proceed from the ſame ſtock with thoſe of the South ſea iſlands. As in one of their viſits the natives had ſeized upon two pigs which had been brought aſhore, apparently with an intention to kill them, the commander determined to make them a preſent of thoſe animals; though from their exceſſive ſtupidity and inattention there was no probability of their allowing them to propagate, if they had been put directly into their hands. To prevent this, Captain Cook ordered the two they had attempted to ſeize, being a boar and a ſow, to be carried about a mile within the head of the bay, and ſaw them left by the ſide of a freſh-water rivulet. He was prevented from leaving any other ſpecies by a conſideration of the barbarity of the inhabitants.

83 Viſit to New Zealand.

From New Holland our navigator proceeded to New Zealand, where he arrived on the 12th of February 1777, and anchored in Queen Charlotte's ſound. Here he was deſirous of leaving a further ſupply of animals; but the inhabitants had hitherto ſhown ſuch careleſſneſs about thoſe which had been left, that he durſt not venture to leave any other than two goats, a male and female with kid, and two hogs, a boar and ſow. He was informed, however, that one chief had ſeveral cocks and hens in his poſſeſſion, ſo that there was ſome probability of theſe animals being allowed to multiply; and as ten or a dozen hogs had at different times been left by Captain Cook, beſides thoſe put on ſhore by Captain Furneaux, it ſeems alſo to be likely that this race of creatures will increaſe either in a wild or domeſtic ſtate, or both. The gardens had ſtill been almoſt totally neglected, and ſome of them deſtroyed. Thoſe which remained, however, produced cabbages, onions, leeks, purſlain, radiſhes, and a few potatoes. Theſe laſt had been brought from the Cape of Good Hope, and were ſo greatly meliorated by the change of ſoil, that with proper cultivation they ſeemed to bid fair for excelling thoſe of other countries.

Our navigator's next courſe was towards the iſland of Otaheite; in the run to which he diſcovered the iſland of Mangea, ſituated in S. Lat. 22. 57. E. Long. 201. 53. From thence he proceeded to Wateoa, where Omai, on his way home, recogniſed three of his countrymen, natives of the Society iſlands, who had arrived here by the following accident. About 12 years before, 20 of the natives of Otaheite had embarked in a canoe, in order to viſit the neighbouring iſland of Ulietea. A violent ſtorm aroſe, which drove them out of their courſe, and they ſuffered incredible hardſhip by famine and fatigue, ſo that the greateſt part of them periſhed. Four men continued hanging by the ſide of the veſſel for four days after it was overſet, when they were at laſt brought within ſight of the people of this iſland. The latter immediately ſent out their canoes, and brought them aſhore, treating them afterwards with ſo much kindneſs, that the three who now ſurvived expreſſed no deſire of returning to their own country, though they had now an opportunity, but choſe rather to remain where they were. This iſland is ſituated in S. Lat. 20. 1. E. Long. 201. 45. and is about 6 leagues in circumference. The inhabitants are ſaid to be equally amiable in their perſons and diſpoſitions.

84 Extraordinary preſervation of ſome of the natives of Otaheite.

Viſiting a ſmall iſland named *Wenooa-ete*, or *Otakootaia*, ſituated in S. Lat. 19. 15. and E. Long. 201. 37. our commander found it without inhabitants, though there were undoubted marks of its being occaſionally frequented. Harvey's iſland, which in his former voyage had been deſtitute of inhabitants, was now found to be well peopled; but the inhabitants ſhowed ſuch an hoſtile diſpoſition that no refreſhments could be procured; for which reaſon it was determined to ſteer for the Friendly iſlands, where there was a certainty of meeting with an abundant ſupply. In his way thither he touched at Palmerſtone iſland, from a ſmall iſle near which a ſupply of 1200 cocoa nuts was obtained, beſides abundance of fiſh and birds of various kinds. Had this iſland been capable of furniſhing water, the captain would have preferred it to any of the inhabited ones for the purpoſe of procuring refreſhments, as they could be had in any quantity without moleſtation from the petulance of the inhabitants. As water at this time happened to be a ſcarce article, our navigator was obliged to ſupply himſelf from the ſhowers which fell, and which afforded as much in an hour as he could procure by diſtillation in a month.

85 Palmerſtone iſland a proper place of refreſhment, but without water.

During the time of reſidence at the Friendly iſlands, our navigator viſited one named *Hepace*, at which no European ſhip had ever touched before. Here he was entertained in a friendly manner, ſupplied with refreſhments, and left ſome uſeful animals. Great additions were made to the geography of theſe iſlands, and many curious remarks made on the inhabitants and natural products. It was obſerved by Mr Anderſon, that the people had very proper notions of the immateriality and immortality of the human ſoul; and he thought himſelf authorized to aſſert, that they did not worſhip any part of the viſible creation.

86 Reception of Omai at Otaheite.

Paſſing by a ſmall iſland named *Toobouai*, about five or ſix miles in extent, and ſituated in S. Lat. 23. 25. E. Long. 210. 37. our navigator now arrived at Otaheite. Here Omai met with his relations, ſome of whom received him with apparent indifference; but his meeting with an aunt and a ſiſter was marked with expreſſions of the moſt tender regard. It was Huaheine, however, that was deſtined for the place of Omai's final reſidence, and thither the captain repaired on purpoſe to ſettle him. The affair was conducted with great ſolemnity; and Omai brought with him a ſuitable aſſortment of preſents to the chiefs, went through a great number of religious ceremonies, and made a ſpeech, the ſubject of which had been dictated to him by Captain Cook. The reſult of the negociation was, that a ſpot of ground was aſſigned him,

87 He is ſettled at Huaheine.

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him, extending about two hundred yards along the shore of the harbour, with a proportionable part of an adjacent hill. The carpenters of both ships were then employed in constructing a house for him, in which he might secure his European commodities. At the same time a garden was made for his use, in which were planted shaddocks, vines, pine-apples, melons, and several other garden vegetables. Here he met with a brother, sister, and sister-in-law, by whom he was very affectionately received; but it was discovered with concern, that none of his relations were able to protect him in case of any attack on his person or property; so that there was too much reason to fear that he would be plundered immediately on the departure of the English. To prevent this, if possible, Captain Cook advised him to conciliate the favour and engage the patronage and protection of some of the most powerful chiefs by proper presents; at the same time that he himself took every opportunity of letting the inhabitants know that it was his intention to return to the island again, and if he did not find Omai in the same state of security in which he left him, those by whom he had been injured would certainly feel the weight of his resentment. About a fortnight after leaving Huaheine, the captain had a message from Omai; in which he informed him that every thing went well, only that his goat had died in kidding, for which he desired another might be sent; and accompanied this request with another for two axes, which were sent along with a couple of kids, male and female. On taking his final leave of the Society islands, Captain Cook observes that it would have been far better for these poor people never to have known the superiority of the Europeans in such arts as render life comfortable, than after once being acquainted with it to be again abandoned to their original incapacity of improvement; as, if the intercourse between them and us should be wholly discontinued, they could not be restored to that happy state of mediocrity in which they were found. It seemed to him that it was become in a manner incumbent on the Europeans to visit these islands once in three or four years, in order to supply them with those conveniences of which they have taught them the use. It is indeed to be apprehended, that by the time the iron tools which were then among them are worn out, they will have forgotten the use of their own; as in this last voyage it was observed that the use of their former tools was almost totally abolished.

88 Remarks on the Society islands.

Having left the Society Islands, Captain Cook now proceeded to the northward, crossing the equator on the 22d and 23d of December; and on the 24th discovered a low uninhabited island about 15 or 20 leagues in circumference. Here the longitude and latitude were exactly determined by means of an eclipse of the sun. The west side of it, where the eclipse was observed, lies in N. Lat. 1. 59. E. Long. 202. 30. From the time of its discovery it obtained the name of *Christmas Island*. Plenty of turtle was found upon it, and the captain caused the seeds of the cocoa-nut, yams, and melons, to be planted.

89 Christmas island discovered.

Proceeding still to the northward, our navigator next fell in with five islands, to which he gave the general name of *Sandwich Isles*, in honour of his patron. Their names in the language of the country are Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheeow, Oreehoua, and Tehoora. They are situated between latitude 21. 30. and 22. 15. North, and between 199. 20. and 201. 30. E. Long. The longitude was deduced from no fewer than 72 sets of lunar observations. The largest of these islands is Atooi, and does not in the least resemble the other islands of the South sea formerly visited by our navigator, excepting only that it has hills near the centre, which slope gradually towards the sea-side. The only domestic animals found upon it were hogs, dogs, and fowls. Captain Cook designed to have made the inhabitants of this island a present of some others; but being driven out of it by stress of weather, he was obliged to land them upon a smaller one named *Oneeheeow*. They were a he-goat and two females, and a boar and sow of the English breed, which is much superior to that of the South Sea islands. He left also the seeds of melons, pumkins, and onions. The soil of this island seemed in general to be poor: it was observable that the ground was covered with shrubs and plants, some of which had a more delicious fragrancy than had been experienced before. The inhabitants of these islands are much commended, notwithstanding their horrid custom of eating human flesh. In every thing manufactured by them there is an ingenuity and neatness in an uncommon degree; and the elegant form and polish of some of their fishing-hooks could not be exceeded by an European artist, even assisted by all his proper tools. From what was seen of their agriculture also, it appeared that they were by no means novices in that art, and that the quantity and goodness of their vegetable productions might with propriety be attributed as much to their skilful culture as to the fertility of the soil. The language of the Sandwich isles is almost identically the same with that of Otaheite.

90 Sandwich isles.

Proceeding farther to the northward, our navigators discovered the coast of New Albion on the 7th of March 1778. Its appearance was very different from that of the countries with which they had been hitherto conversant. The land was full of mountains, the tops of which were covered with snow; while the valleys between them, and the grounds on the sea-coast, high as well as low, were covered with trees, which formed a beautiful prospect as of one vast forest. The place where they landed was situated in N. Lat. 44. 33. E. Long. 235. 20. At first the natives seemed to prefer iron to every other article of commerce; but at last they showed such a predilection for brass, that scarcely a bit of it was left in the ships, except what belonged to the necessary instruments. It was observed also, that these people were much more tenacious of their property than any of the savage nations that had hitherto been met with, insomuch that they would part neither with wood, water, grass, nor the most trifling article, without a compensation, and were sometimes very unreasonable in their demands; with which, however, the captain always complied as far as was in his power.

91 American coast discovered.

The place where the Resolution was now anchored was by our navigator called *St George's Sound*, but he afterwards understood that the natives gave it the name of *Nootka*. Its entrance is situated in the east corner of Hope Bay, in N. Lat. 49. 33. E. Long. 233. 12. The climate, as far as they had an opportunity of observing it, was much milder than that on the eastern coast

92 Nootka found.

93 Mildness of the climate.

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coast of the American continent in the same parallel of latitude; and it was remarkable that the thermometer, even in the night, never fell lower than 42°, while in the day time it frequently rose to 60°. The trees met with here are chiefly the Canadian pine, white cypress, and some other kinds of pine. There seemed to be a scarcity of birds, which are much harassed by the natives, who ornament their clothes with the feathers, and use the flesh for food. The people are no strangers to the use of metals, having iron tools in general use among them; and Mr Gore procured two silver spoons of a construction similar to what may be observed in some Flemish pictures, from a native who wore them round his neck as an ornament. It is most probable that these metals have been conveyed to them by the way of Hudson's bay and Canada: nor is it improbable that some of them have been introduced from the north-western parts of Mexico.

94 Natives acquainted with the use of metals.

While Captain Cook sailed along this coast, he kept always at a distance from land when the wind blew strongly upon it; whence several large gaps were left unexplored, particularly between the latitudes of 50° and 55°. The exact situation of the supposed straits of Anian was not ascertained, though there is not the least doubt, that if he had lived to return by the same way in 1779, he would have examined every part with his usual accuracy. On departing from Nootka sound, our navigator first fell in with an island in N. Lat. 59. 49. E. Long. 216. 58. to which he gave the name of *Kay's Island*. Several others were discovered in the neighbourhood; and the ship came to an anchor in an inlet named by the captain *Prince William's sound*. Here he had an opportunity of making several observations on the inhabitants, as well as on the nature of the country. From every thing relative to the former, it was concluded, that the inhabitants were of the same race with the Esquimaux or Greenlanders. The animals were much the same with those met with at Nootka, and a beautiful skin of one animal, which seemed to be peculiar to the place, was offered to sale. Mr Anderson was inclined to think that it was the same to which Mr Pennant has given the name of the *casan marmot*. The alcedo, or great king's-fisher, was found here, having very fine and bright colours. The humming bird also came frequently, and flew about the ship when at anchor; though it is scarce to be supposed that it can live throughout the winter on account of the extreme cold. The water-fowl were in considerable plenty; and there is a species of diver which seemed to be peculiar to the place. Almost the only kinds of fish met with in the place were torsk and holibut. The trees were chiefly the Canadian and spruce pine, some of which were of a considerable height and thickness. The sound is judged by Captain Cook to occupy a degree and a half of latitude and two of longitude, exclusively of its arms and branches, which were not explored. There was every reason to believe that the inhabitants had never been visited by any European vessel before; but our navigator found them in possession not only of iron but of beads, which it is probable are conveyed to them across the continent from Hudson's bay.

95 Prince William's sound.

96 Cook's river.

Soon after leaving Prince William's sound, our navigators fell in with another inlet, which it was expected would lead either to the northern sea or to Hudson's or Baffin's bay; but upon examination it was found to end in a large river. This was traced for 210 miles from the mouth, as high as N. Lat. 61. 30. and promises to vie with the most considerable ones already known, as it lies open by means of its various branches to a very considerable inland communication. As no name was given by our commander to this river, it was ordered by Lord Sandwich to be named *Cook's river*. The inhabitants seemed to be of the same race with those of Prince William's sound; and like them had glass beads and knives; they were also clothed in very fine furs; so that it seemed probable that a valuable fur trade might be carried on from that country. Several attempts have accordingly been made from the British settlements in the East Indies to establish a traffic of that kind; but little benefit accrued from it except to the proprietors of the first vessel, her cargo having greatly lowered the price of that commodity in the Chinese market. It must be observed, that on the western side of the American continent, the only valuable skins met with are those of the sea otter; those of the other animals, especially foxes and martens, being of an inferior quality to such as are met with in other parts.

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97 They fall in with the islands discovered by the Russians.

Proceeding farther to the northward, our navigators now fell in with a race of people who had evidently been visited by the Russians, and seemed to have adopted from them some improvements in dress, &c. In the prosecution of this part of their voyage, it appeared that they had been providentially conveyed in the dark through a passage so dangerous, that our commander would not have ventured upon it in the day time. They were now got in among those islands which had lately been discovered by Captain Beering and other Russian navigators, and came to an anchor in a harbour of Oonalashka, situated in N. Lat. 53. 55. E. Long. 193. 30. Here it was remarked that the inhabitants had as yet profited very little by their intercourse with the Russians; so that they did not even dress the fish they used for their food, but devoured them quite raw.

From Oonalashka our navigator proceeded again towards the continent, which he continued to trace as far as possible to the northward. In N. Lat. 54. 48. E. Long. 195. 45. is a volcano of the shape of a perfect cone, having the crater at the very summit. On the coast farther to the north the soil appears very barren, producing neither tree nor shrub, though the lower grounds are not destitute of grass and some other plants. To a rocky point of considerable height, situated in N. Lat. 58. 42. E. Long. 197. 36. our commander gave the name of *Cape Newnham*.

98 A volcano.

Here Mr Anderson, the surgeon of the Resolution, died of a consumption, under which he had laboured for more than twelve months. Soon after he had breathed his last, land being seen at a distance, it was named *Anderson's island*; and on the 9th of August the ship anchored under a point of the continent, which he named *Cape Prince of Wales*. This is remarkable for being the most westerly point of the American continent hitherto known. It is situated in N. Lat. 65. 46. E. Long. 191. 45. It is only 39 miles distant from the eastern coast of Siberia; so that our commander had the pleasure of ascertaining the vicinity of the two continents to each other, which had only been imperfectly

99 Cape Prince of Wales.

100 Vicinity of the continents of Asia and America.

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fectly done by the Ruſſian navigators. Setting ſail from this point next day, he ſteered to the weſt and north, when he ſoon fell in with the country of the Tſchutſki, which had been explored by Beering in 1728. Here he had an opportunity of correcting M. Stœhlin's map, who had placed in theſe ſeas an imaginary iſland, on which he beſtowed the name of *Alaſchka*. Being convinced that the land he had now reached was part of the Aſiatic continent, our commander directed his courſe eaſtward, in order to fall in with that of America; and on the 17th reached the latitude of 70. 33. and E. Long. 197. 41. Here they began to perceive that brightneſs in the horizon called by mariners the *blink of the ice;* and in 70. 41. they had got quite up to it, ſo that no farther progreſs could be made. Next day they made a ſhift to get as far as 70. 44.; but the ice was now as compact as a wall, and about ten or twelve feet in height. Its ſurface was extremely rugged, and farther to the northward appeared much higher. Its ſurface was covered with pools of water; and great numbers of ſea-lions lay upon it, whoſe fleſh they were now glad to uſe as food. Our commander continued to traverſe the Icy ſea till the 29th; but the obſtructions becoming every day greater and greater, it was thought proper to give over all further attempts of finding a paſſage to Europe for that year. He did not, however, omit the inveſtigation of the Aſiatic and American coaſts until he had fully aſcertained the accuracy of Captain Beering's accounts as far as he went, and corrected the errors of M. Stœhlin. Great additions were thus made to the geographical knowledge of this part of the globe; and Mr Coxe obſerves, that "it reflects no ſmall honour upon the Britiſh name, that our great navigator extended his diſcoveries much farther in one expedition, and at ſo great a diſtance from the point of his departure, than the Ruſſians accompliſhed in a long ſeries of years, and in parts belonging or contiguous to their own empire."

101 Their progreſs northward ſtopped by ice.

102 Arrival at Oonalaſhka.

An end of this celebrated navigator's diſcoveries, however, was now at hand. From Beering's ſtraits he ſailed for Oonalaſhka, where he arrived on the 2d of October, and ſtaid for ſome time in order to repair his ſhips. While the carpenters were employed in this work, one-third of the people had permiſſion to go on ſhore by turns, in order to gather berries, with which the iſland abounds, and which, though now beginning to decay, were of great ſervice, in conjunction with the ſpruce beer, to preſerve the people from the ſcurvy. Such a quantity of fiſh was likewiſe procured, as not only ſerved to ſupply the ſhips for the preſent, but likewiſe allowed a great number to be carried out to ſea; ſo that hence a conſiderable ſaving was made of the proviſions of the ſhips, which was an article of very conſiderable conſequence. On the 8th of the month our commander received a very ſingular preſent from ſome perſons unknown, by the hands of an Oonalaſhka man named *Derramouſhk*. It conſiſted of a rye-loaf, or rather a ſalmon-pye in the form of a loaf, and highly ſeaſoned with pepper. This man had the like preſent for Captain Clerke, and each of them was accompanied with a note which none on board could underſtand: a few bottles of rum, with ſome wine and porter, were ſent in exchange: it being ſuppoſed that ſuch a preſent would be more acceptable than any other thing that could be ſpared. Corporal Lediard of the marines, an intelligent man, was at the ſame time directed to accompany Derramouſhk, for the purpoſe of gaining a more ſatisfactory account of the country. On the tenth of the month he returned with three Ruſſian ſeamen or furriers, who with ſeveral others reſided at Egooſhac, where they had a dwelling-houſe, ſome ſtore-houſes, and a ſloop about 30 tons burden. One of theſe people was either maſter or mate of the veſſel, and all of them were very ſober and decent in their behaviour. The greateſt difficulty aroſe from the want of an interpreter; for which reaſon the converſation was carried on by ſigns. However, the captain obtained a ſight of two ſea-charts, both of which he was allowed to copy. One of them included the ſea of Penſhinſk, part of the coaſt of Tartary down to the latitude 41°, the Kurile iſlands, and the peninſula of Kamtſchatka. The other comprehended all the diſcoveries that had been made from the time of Captain Beering to the year 1777; but theſe were found to be very trifling. Indeed our navigator was aſſured by all the Ruſſians whom he had occaſion to ſee, that they knew of no other iſlands than thoſe laid down in the charts juſt mentioned, and that none of them had ever ſeen any part of the American continent, excepting what lies oppoſite to the country of the Tſchutſki. With regard to the natives of Oonalaſhka, they are to appearance the moſt inoffenſive and peaceable people in the world, not to be in a ſtate of civilization; though perhaps this may be owing in ſome meaſure to the connection they have long had with the Ruſſians. From the affinity obſerved between the language of the Eſquimaux Greenlanders, and thoſe of Norton's ſound in N. Lat. 64. 55. there is great reaſon to believe that all thoſe nations are of the ſame extraction; and if that be the caſe, there is little reaſon to doubt that a communication by ſea exiſts between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of the American continent; which, however, may very probably be ſhut up by ice in the winter time, or even for the moſt part throughout the year.

103 Character of the inhabitants.

104 A communication probable betwixt the eaſt and weſt coaſts of America.

105 Conſequences of Captain Cook's diſcoveries.

The return of Captain Cook to the Sandwich iſlands, with the lamentable cataſtrophe that enſued, have been already related under the former article. We ſhall now briefly enumerate the conſequences of his diſcoveries with reſpect to the advancement of ſcience. Theſe are principally his having overthrown the hypotheſis of a ſouthern continent of immenſe extent, uſually ſpoken of under the name of *Terra auſtralis incognita;* his demonſtration of the impracticability of a northern paſſage either by Aſia or America to the Eaſt Indies; and his having eſtabliſhed a ſure method of preſerving the health of ſeamen through the longeſt ſea voyages. It is remarked by the biſhop of Carliſle, that one great advantage reſulting from the late ſurveys of the globe, is the refutation of fanciful theories, too likely to give birth to impracticable undertakings. The ingenious reveries of ſpeculative philoſophers will now be obliged to ſubmit, perhaps with reluctance, to the ſober dictates of truth and experience; nor is it only by diſcouraging future unprofitable ſearches that the late voyages are likely to be of ſervice to mankind, but likewiſe by leſſening the dangers

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dangers and diſtreſſes formerly experienced in thoſe ſeas which are within the actual line of commerce and navigation.

The intereſts of ſcience, as well as of commerce, are highly indebted to the labours of our illuſtrious navigator. Before his time almoſt half the ſurface of the globe was involved in obſcurity and confuſion: but now ſuch improvements have been made, that geography has aſſumed a new face, and become in a manner a new ſcience; having attained ſuch completeneſs as to leave only ſome leſs important parts to be explored by future voyagers. Other ſciences beſides geography have been advanced at the ſame time. Nautical aſtronomy, which was in its infancy when the late voyages were undertaken, is now brought to much greater perfection; and, during Captain Cook's laſt expedition, many even of the petty officers could take the diſtance of the moon from the ſun, or from a ſtar, the moſt delicate of all obſervations, with ſufficient accuracy; and the officers of ſuperior rank would have been aſhamed to have it thought that they did not know how to obſerve for, and compute, the time at ſea: a thing before hardly mentioned among ſeamen. It muſt, however, be remembered, that a great part of the merit in this reſpect is due to the board of longitude. In conſequence of the attention of that board to the important object juſt mentioned, liberal rewards have been given to mathematicians for perfecting the lunar tables and facilitating calculations: and artiſts have been amply encouraged in the conſtruction of watches, and other inſtruments better adapted to the purpoſes of navigation than any that formerly exiſted.

A vaſt addition of knowledge has been gained with reſpect to the ebbing and flowing of the tides; the direction and force of the currents at ſea; the nature of the polarity of the needle, and the cauſe of its variations. Natural knowledge has been increaſed by experiments on the effects of gravity in different and very diſtant places; and from Captain Cook's having penetrated ſo far into the ſouthern regions, it is now aſcertained, that the phenomenon uſually called the *aurora borealis*, is not peculiar to high northern latitudes, but belongs equally to all cold climates, whether north or ſouth.

No ſcience, however, perhaps ſtands more indebted to theſe voyages than that of botany. At leaſt 1200 new ſpecies of plants have been added to thoſe formerly known; and every other department of natural hiſtory has received large additions. Beſides all this, there have been a vaſt many opportunities of obſerving human nature in its different ſituations. The iſlands viſited in the middle of the Pacific ocean are inhabited by people who, as far as could be obſerved, have continued unmixed with any different tribe ſince their firſt ſettlement. Hence a variety of important facts may be collected with reſpect to the attainments and deficiencies of the human race in an uncultivated ſtate, and in certain periods of ſociety. Even the curioſities brought from the newly diſcovered iſlands, and which enrich the Britiſh muſeum and the late Sir Aſhton Lever's (now Mr Parkinſon's) repoſitory, may be conſidered as a valuable acquiſition to this country, and affording no ſmall fund of inſtruction and entertainment.

There are few inquiries more generally intereſting than thoſe which relate to the migrations of the various colonies by which the different parts of the earth have been peopled. It was known in general, that the Aſiatic nation called the *Malayans*, poſſeſſed in former times much the greateſt trade of the Indies, and that their ſhips frequented not only all the coaſts of Aſia, but even thoſe of Africa likewiſe, and particularly the large iſland of Madagaſcar; but that from Madagaſcar to the Marqueſas and Eaſter iſland, that is, nearly from the eaſt ſide of Africa till we approach the weſt coaſt of America, a ſpace including almoſt half the circumference of the globe, the ſame nation of the oriental world ſhould have made their ſettlements, and founded colonies throughout almoſt every intermediate ſtage of this immenſe tract, in iſlands at amazing diſtances from the mother continent, is a hiſtorical fact that before Captain Cook's voyages could not be known, or at leaſt but very imperfectly. This is proved, not only by a ſimilarity of manners and cuſtoms, but likewiſe by the affinity of language; and the collections of words which have been made from all the widely diffuſed iſlands and countries viſited by Captain Cook, cannot fail to throw much light on the origin of nations, and the manner in which the earth was at firſt peopled.

Beſides this, information has been derived concerning another family of the earth formerly very much unknown. This was the nation of the Eſquimaux or Greenlanders, who had formerly been known to exiſt only on the north-eaſtern part of the American continent. From Captain Cook's accounts, however, it appears, that theſe people now inhabit alſo the coaſts and iſlands on the weſt ſide of America oppoſite to Kamtſchatka. From theſe accounts it appears alſo, that the people we ſpeak of have extended their migrations to Norton ſound, Oonalaſhka, and Prince William's ſound; that is, nearly to the diſtance of 1500 leagues from their ſtations in Greenland and the coaſt of Labradore. Nor does this curious fact reſt merely on the evidence ariſing from the ſimilitude of manners; for it ſtands confirmed by a table of words, exhibiting ſuch an affinity of language as muſt remove every doubt from the mind of the moſt ſcrupulous inquirer.

From the full confirmation of the vicinity of the two great continents of Aſia and America, it can no longer be ſuppoſed ridiculous to believe, that the latter received its inhabitants from the former; and by the facts recently diſcovered, a degree of further evidence is added to thoſe which might formerly be derived from nature concerning the authenticity of the Moſaic accounts. It is not indeed to be doubted, that the inſpired writings will ſtand the teſt of the moſt rigorous inveſtigation; nor will it ever be found, that true philoſophy and divine revelation, can militate againſt each other. The rational friends of religion are ſo far from dreading the ſpirit of inquiry, that they wiſh for nothing more than a candid and impartial examination of the ſubject, according to all the lights which the improved reaſon and enlarged ſcience of man can afford.

Another good effect of the voyages of Captain Cook is, that they have excited in other nations a zeal for ſimilar undertakings. By order of the French government, Meſſ. de la Peyrouſe and de Langle ſailed from Breſt in Auguſt 1785, in the frigates Bouſſole and Aſtrolabe, on an enterpriſe, the purpoſe of which was

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to improve geography, aſtronomy, natural hiſtory, and philoſophy, and to collect an account of the cuſtoms and manners of different nations. For the more effectual proſecution of the deſign, ſeveral gentlemen were appointed to go out upon the voyage, who were known to excel in different kinds of literature. The officers of the Bouſſole were men of the beſt information and firmeſt reſolution; and the crew contained a number of artificers in various branches of mechanics. Marine watches, &c. were provided, and M. Dagelet the aſtronomer was particularly directed to make obſervations with M. Condamine's invariable pendulum, to determine the difference in gravity, and to aſcertain the true proportion of the equatorial to the polar diameter of the earth. It has likewiſe been made evident, that notwithſtanding all that has been done by Captain Cook, there is ſtill room for a farther inveſtigation of the geography of the northern parts of the world. The object accordingly was taken up by the empreſs of Ruſſia, who committed the care of the enterpriſe to Captain Billings, an Engliſhman in her majeſty's ſervice. We ſhall only make one obſervation more concerning the benefits likely to accrue from the voyages of Captain Cook, and that is relative to the ſettlement in Botany bay. Whatever may be ſuppoſed to accrue to the nation itſelf from the ſettlement, it muſt undoubtedly give the higheſt ſatisfaction to every friend to humanity to be informed, that thus a number of unhappy wretches will be effectually prevented from returning to their former ſcenes of temptation and guilt, which may open to them the means of induſtrious ſubſiſtence and moral reformation. If the ſettlement be conducted with wiſdom and prudence, indeed it is hard to ſay what beneficial conſequences may be derived from it, or to what height it may ariſe. Rome, the greateſt empire the world ever ſaw, proceeded from an origin little, if at all, ſuperior to Botany bay. For an account of this ſettlement ſee the article *New-HOLLAND*.

One other object remains only farther to be conſidered with regard to theſe voyages, and that is the advantages which may reſult from them to the diſcovered people. Here, however, it may perhaps be difficult to ſettle matters with preciſon. From the preceding accounts, it muſt be evident that the intentions of Captain Cook were in the higheſt degree benevolent; and if at any time the people were the ſufferers, it muſt have been through their own fault. In one inſtance indeed it might be otherwiſe, and that is with reſpect to the venereal diſeaſe. The evidence in this caſe cannot be altogether ſatisfactory. Mr Samwell, who ſucceeded Mr Anderſon as ſurgeon of the Reſolution, has endeavoured to ſhow, that the natives of the lately explored parts of the world, and eſpecially of the Sandwich iſlands, were not injured by the Engliſh; and it was the conſtant care and ſolicitude of Captain Cook to prevent any infection from being communicated to the people where he came. But whether he was univerſally ſucceſsful in this reſpect or not, it is evident that the late voyages were undertaken with a view exceedingly different from thoſe of former times. The horrid cruelties of the Spaniſh conquerors of America cannot be remembered without concern for the cauſe of religion and human nature; but to undertake expeditions with a deſign of civilizing the world, and meliorating its condition, is certainly a noble object. From the long continued intercourſe betwixt this country and the South ſea iſlands, there cannot be any doubt that ſome degree of knowledge muſt already have been communicated to them. Their ſtock of ideas muſt naturally be enlarged by the number of uncommon obſervations which has been preſented to them, and new materials furniſhed for the exerciſe of their rational faculties. A conſiderable addition muſt be made to their immediate comfort and enjoyment by the introduction of uſeful animals and vegetables; and if the only benefit they ſhould ever receive from Britain ſhould be the having obtained freſh means of ſubſiſtence, this of itſelf muſt be conſidered as a valuable acquiſition. Great conſequences, however, may ſoon be expected. The connexion formed with theſe people may be conſidered as the firſt ſtep towards their improvement; and thus the bleſſings of civilization may be ſpread among the various tribes of Indians in the Pacific ocean, which in time may prepare them for holding an honourable place among the nations of the earth.

106 Account of Captain Clerke's voyage.

As a ſupplement to this account of the diſcoveries made by Captain Cook himſelf, we ſhall here ſubjoin a narrative of the ſubſequent part of the voyage by Captain Clerke, &c. until the return of the ſhips to England. At the time of Captain Cook's death, the great point of a north-weſt paſſage remained in ſome meaſure to be ſtill determined: for though, by the event of the former attempt, it had been rendered highly improbable that they ſhould ſucceed in this, it was ſtill reſolved to try whether or not, at certain ſeaſons of the year, the ice might not be more open than they had hitherto found it. The firſt object that naturally occurred, however, was the recovery of Captain Cook's body; for which Mr King was of opinion that ſome vigorous meaſure ought inſtantly to be purſued. His motives for this, beſides the perſonal regard he had for the captain, were to abate the confidence which muſt be ſuppoſed to enſue on the part of the natives, which would probably incline them to dangerous attempts; and this the more particularly, as they had hitherto diſcovered much leſs fear of the fire-arms than other ſavage nations were accuſtomed to do. Mr Samwell alſo takes notice of the intrepidity of the natives in this reſpect; but aſcribes it, in the firſt inſtance, to ignorance of their effects; and in the next, to a notion, that as the effects of theſe arms were occaſioned by fire, they might be counteracted by water. For this purpoſe they dipped their war-mats in water; but finding themſelves equally vulnerable after this method had been purſued, they became more timid and cautious.

107 Methods taken for the recovery of Captain Cook's body.

As matters ſtood at preſent, there was even reaſon to dread the conſequences of a general attack upon the ſhips; and therefore Mr King was the more confirmed in his opinion of the neceſſity of doing ſomething to convince them of the prowes of their adverſaries. In theſe apprehenſions he was ſeconded by the opinion of the greater part of the officers on board; and nothing ſeemed more likely to encourage the iſlanders to make the attempt than an appearance of being inclined to an accommodation, which they would certainly attribute to weakneſs or fear. Captain Clerke, however, and thoſe who were in favour of conciliatory meaſures, urged,

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urged, that the mischief was already irreparable; that the natives, by reason of their former friendship, had a strong claim to the regard of the English; and that the more particularly, as the late calamitous accident did not appear to have taken its rise from any premeditated design; they urged also the ignorance of the king concerning the theft, and the mistake of the islanders who had armed themselves on a supposition that some attempt would be made to carry off the king. To all this was added, that the ships were in want of refreshments, particularly water; that the Resolution's foremast would require seven or eight days before it could be properly repaired; and as the spring was fast advancing, the speedy prosecution of the voyage to the northward ought now to be the only object; that a vindictive contest with the natives might not only justify an imputation of needless cruelty, but would occasion great delay in the equipment of the ships.

In consequence of the prevalence of these sentiments lenient measures were adopted, though the behaviour of the natives continued to be very insolent. A great body still kept possession of the shore; many of whom came off in their canoes within pistol-shot of the ships, and provoking the people by every kind of insult and defiance. A train of negociations for Captain Cook's body took place; in which the natives showed the most hostile and treacherous disposition, and, as afterwards appeared, had cut the flesh from the bones and burnt it. A piece of about ten pounds weight was brought by two natives at the hazard of their lives, who gave information that the rest had been burnt, and that the bones were in the possession of the king and some of the principal chiefs. Information was given, at the same time, that the chiefs were very desirous of war, in order to revenge the death of their countrymen.

Thus it appeared that the pacific plan had answered no good purpose. No satisfactory answer had been given to the demands made of the bodies of the slain; nor was any progress made in the great work intended, viz. a reconciliation with the natives; they still remained on shore in an hostile posture, as if determined to oppose any endeavours that might be made by our people to land; at the same time that a landing was become absolutely necessary, in order to complete the stock of water. Had this spiritless conduct been persisted in, there is not the least doubt that neither this purpose or any other could have been effected. The insolence of the natives became every day greater and greater: insomuch that one of them had the audacity to come within musket shot of the Resolution, and after throwing several stones, waved Captain Cook's hat over his head, while his countrymen on shore were exulting and encouraging his audacity. By this insult the people were so highly enraged, that coming on the quarter-deck in a body, they begged that they might no longer be obliged to put up with such reiterated provocation, but might be allowed to make use of the first opportunity of revenging the death of their captain. The necessity of more vigorous measures, therefore, being now apparent, a few discharges of the great guns, with the burning of a village and some other acts of severity, at last produced the mangled remains of Captain Cook. They were wrapped up in a bundle, in which were found both his hands entire, which were easily known by a scar in one of them dividing the fore-finger from the thumb the whole length of the metacarpal bone. Along with these was the skull, but with the scalp separated from it, and the bones of the face wanting; the scalp, with the ears adhering to it, and the hair cut short; the bones of both the arms, and the skin of the fore-arms hanging to them; the bones of the thighs and legs joined together, but without the feet. The ligaments of the joints were observed to be entire; the whole showing evident marks of being in the fire, except the hands which had the flesh remaining upon them, and were cut in several places and crammed with salt, most probably for the purpose of preserving them. The skull was not fractured; but the scalp had a cut in the back part of it. The lower jaw and feet were wanting, having been seized by different chiefs.

108 His remains at last obtained.

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109 Unsuccessful attempts to make farther discoveries.

Having accomplished the purposes of their stay in this place, Captain Clerke set sail from Karakakooa bay in O-why-hee towards Mowee, with a design to explore the coasts of that island more fully than had been done, but were unable to accomplish their purpose; nor indeed was it in their power to accomplish any discovery of consequence among these islands. The only intelligence worth mentioning which they were able to procure was, that wars had ensued about the property of the goats which were left by Captain Cook on the island of Oneeheow, as has been already mentioned, and that during the contest all these poor animals, who had already begun to multiply, were destroyed; so that the benevolent attempts of our illustrious navigator in favour of these islanders had proved abortive.

On quitting the island of Oneeheow, our navigators set sail for another named Modoopappa, which they were assured by the natives lay within five hours sailing of Tahoora, a small island in the neighbourhood of Oneeheow. In this they proved unsuccessful; on which it was determined to steer for the coast of Kamtschatka. In the passage thither they arrived at the place where De Gama is said to have discovered a great extent of land; but of this they could discover no appearance. This imaginary continent is said to have been discovered by a navigator called John de Gama, but who seems also to have been imaginary, as no person can find out either the country where he lived, or the time when he made the discovery. We are informed by Muller, that the first account of it was published by Texeira in a chart of 1649, who places it between the latitude of 44 and 45 degrees, and about 160. east longitude, and calls it "land seen by John de Gama, in a voyage from China to New Spain." By the French geographers it is removed five degrees farther to the east. When they arrived at Kamtschatka they were entertained in the most hospitable manner, and furnished with every thing that could be procured in that desert and barren region. "In this wretched extremity of the earth (says the narrator of the voyage), beyond conception barbarous and inhospitable, out of the reach of civilization, bound and barricaded with ice, and covered with summer snow, we experienced the tendereſt feelings of humanity, joined to a nobleness of mind and elevation of sentiment which would have done honour to any clime

110 Their favourable reception at Kamtschatka.

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clime or nation." From Major Behm, in particular, they received so many and so great obligations, that an handsome acknowledgment was made him by the Royal Society, as has been already observed. Even the sailors were so struck with gratitude, that they voluntarily requested that their allowance of grog might be withheld, in order to compliment the garrison of Bolcheretsk with the spirits; saying, that they knew brandy was extremely scarce in that country, the soldiers on shore having offered four roubles a bottle for it. The officers, however, would not allow them to suffer by their generosity in this inclement country and season of the year (the month of March not being yet expired); but in room of the small quantity of brandy which Major Behm consented to accept, substituted an equal quantity of rum.

111 Tschutski submit to the empress.

It is worth observing, that the kindness with which the empress had ordered the British navigators to be treated in this part of her dominions was amply rewarded, even with no less than the addition of a new kingdom to the Russian empire, which hitherto her arms had not been able to subdue. Among the northern Asiatics none had been able to maintain their independence except the Tschutski, who inhabit the north-east extremity of the continent. No attempt to subdue these people had been made since the year 1750, when the Russian forces had at last been obliged to retreat, after having lost their commanding officer. The Russians afterwards removed their frontier fortress from the river Anadyr to the Ingiga, which runs into the northern extremity of the sea of Okotsk, and gives its name to a gulf to the west of the sea of Penshinsk. On the day that Captains Clerke and Gore arrived at Bolcheretsk, Major Behm received dispatches from this fort, acquainting him that a party of the Tschutski had been there with voluntary offers of friendship and a tribute. That on asking the reason of such an unexpected alteration in their sentiments, they had acquainted his people that two large Russian boats had visited them towards the end of the preceding summer; that they had been shown the greatest kindness by the people who were in them, and had entered into a league of amity with them; and that, in consequence of this, they came to the Russian fort in order to settle a treaty upon terms agreeable to both nations. This incident had occasioned much speculation, and could never have been understood without the assistance of those who were now present; the large *Russian boats* having been in truth no other than the Resolution and Discovery, under Captains Cook and Clerke.

112 Vast quantity of fish.

About the middle of May the snow began to melt very fast in this inhospitable region, and the ships being now on their passage northward, met with an excellent opportunity of supplying themselves with fish. The beach was cleared of ice on the 15th of the month; from which time vast quantities came in from every quarter. Major Behm had ordered all the Kamtschadales to employ themselves in the service of the English ships; so that often they found it impossible to take on board the quantities that were sent. They chiefly consisted of herrings, trout, flat fish, and cod. These fish were here found in such plenty, that once the people of the Discovery surrounded such an amazing quantity with the seine, that they were obliged to throw out a very considerable number, left the net should have been broken to pieces; and the cargo was still so abundant, that, besides having a stock for immediate use, they filled as many casks as they could conveniently spare for salting; and after sending on board the Resolution a tolerable quantity for the same purpose, they left behind several bushels on the beach.

113 Spirituous liquors pernicious in the sea-scurvy.

While they remained in this country an opportunity offered of observing the pernicious effects of spirituous liquors in producing the sea-scurvy. All the Russian soldiers were in a greater or lesser degree afflicted with that disorder, some of them being in the last stage of it; and it was particularly observed that a serjeant, with whom our people had kept up a most friendly intercourse, had, *in the course of a few days*, brought upon himself the most alarming scorbutic symptoms, by drinking too freely of the liquors with which he had been presented by the English. Captain Clerke soon relieved them by putting them under the care of the surgeons of the ships, and supplying them with sour-krout, and malt for sweet-wort. In consequence of this a surprising alteration was soon observed in the figures of most of them; and their speedy recovery was principally attributed to the sweet-wort.

114 Eruption of a volcano.

On the 12th of June they began to proceed northward along the coast of Kamtschatka, and three days after had an opportunity of observing an eruption of one of the volcanoes of that peninsula. On the 15th before day-light, they were surprised with a rumbling noise like distant thunder; and when the day appeared, found the decks and sides of the ships covered near an inch thick with fine dust like emery. The air was at the same time loaded and obscured with this substance; and in the neighbourhood of the volcano itself it was so thick that the body of the hill could not be discovered. The explosion became more loud at 12 o'clock, and during the afternoon, being succeeded by showers of cinders, generally of the size of pease, though some were as large as hazel-nuts. Along with these there also fell some small stones which had undergone no alteration from the action of the fire. In the evening there were dreadful claps of thunder, with bright flashes of lightning, which, with the darkness of the sky, and the sulphureous smell of the air, produced a most awful and tremendous effect. The ships were at this time about 24 miles distant from the volcano; and it appeared that the volcanic shower had been carried to a still greater distance, as they next day found the bottom of the sea to consist of such small stones as had fallen upon the decks of the ships. The mountain was still observed to be in a state of eruption on the 18th.

115 Voyages to the northward.

For some time Captain Clerke kept the coast of Kamtschatka in view, with a design to make an accurate survey of it; but in this he was disappointed by foggy and squally weather; however, he determined the position of some remarkable promontories, and at last finding the season too far advanced to accomplish his design, set sail for Beering's straits, chiefly with a view to ascertain the situation of the projecting points of the coast.

On the 3d of July our navigators came in sight of the

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the island of St Lawrence, and another which was supposed to lie between it and Anderson's island. The latter being entirely unknown to Captain Clerke, he was inclined to have approached it, but was unable to effect his purpose. All these islands, as well as the coast of the Tschutski on the continent, were covered with snow, and had a dismal appearance.

In the preceding year Captain Cook had determined the situation of the islands of St Diomede to be in 65° 48′ latitude; but now being somewhat at a loss to reconcile this with the position of the continent, they stood for some time over to the latter, till fully convinced of the accuracy of the former observation. At this time they approached within two or three leagues of the eastern cape of Asia, which is an elevated round head of land extending about five miles from north to south, and forms a peninsula connected with the continent by a narrow isthmus of low land. It has a bold shore, and three lofty detached spiral rocks are seen off its northern part. It was still encompassed with ice, and covered with snow. Here they found a strong current setting to the northward, which at noon had occasioned an error in the computation of the latitude of no less than 20 miles. A similar effect had been observed the preceding year in passing this strait. On steering to the north-east the weather cleared up, so that they had a view of the eastern cape of Asia, Cape Prince of Wales on the western coast of America, with a remarkable peaked hill on the latter, and the two islands of St Diomede lying between them. Here they met with great numbers of very small hawks, having a compressed bill rather large in proportion to the body; the colour dark brown, or rather black, the breast whitish, and towards the abdomen of a reddish hue.

116 Are stopped by the ice.

On the 6th of July, at 12 o'clock, the ships were in N. Lat. 67. 0. E. Long. 191. 6. when having already passed many large pieces of ice, and observed that in several places it adhered to the continent of Asia, they were suddenly stopped about three in the afternoon by an extensive body, which stretched towards the west. By this their hopes of reaching any higher latitude than what had been attained last year were considerably diminished; but finding the course obstructed on the Asiatic side, they proceeded to the north-eastward, in order to explore the continent of America between the latitudes of 68 and 69°; which had last year been found impracticable on account of the foggy weather; but in this also they were partly disappointed; for on the 7th, about six in the morning, they met with another large body of ice stretching from north-west to south-east; but not long afterwards, the horizon becoming clear, they had a view of the American coast at the distance of about ten leagues, extending from north-east by east, to east, and lying between N. Lat. 68° and 68° 20′. As the ice was not very high, the view extended a great way over it, so that they could perceive it exhibiting a compact solid surface, and apparently adhering to the land. Soon after the weather became hazy, so that they lost sight of the land; and it being impossible to get nearer, they continued to steer northward close by the side of the ice. This course was continued till next morning, during which time the ships passed some drift wood; but the morning following, the wind shifting to the north, they were obliged to stand to the westward. At two in the afternoon they were again close to an immense expanse of ice; which from the mast-head seemed to consist of very large compact bodies, united towards the exterior edge, though in the interior parts some pieces floated in the water; it extended from west-south-west to north-east by north. There was now a necessity for steering towards the south, as the strong northerly winds had drifted down such numbers of loose pieces that they had encompassed the ships for some time, and it was impossible to avoid very severe strokes while sailing among them. Thus, however, they reached the latitude of 69. 12. and E. Long. 188. 5.; but having now sailed almost 40 leagues to the west along the edge of the ice without perceiving any opening, Captain Clerke determined to bear away south by east, the only quarter which was clear at present, and to wait till the season was somewhat farther advanced before any further attempts were made. The intermediate time he proposed to employ in surveying the bay of St Lawrence, and the coast situated to the southward of it; as it must be a great satisfaction to have a harbour so near in case of the ship's receiving any damage from the ice; and the captain was also desirous of paying another visit to the Tschutski, especially in consequence of the accounts of them that had been given by Major Behm. In this navigation they killed several sea-horses, and had an opportunity of observing the strength of parental affection in those monstrous animals. On the approach of the boats towards the ice, all of them took their young ones under their fins, and attempted to make their escape with them into the sea. Some whose cubs were killed or wounded, and left floating upon the surface of the water, rose again, and carried them down, sometimes just as they were on the point of being taken into the boat; and could be traced bearing them to a considerable distance through the water, which was stained with their blood. They were afterwards observed bringing them at intervals above the surface, and again plunging under its surface with an horrid bellowing; and one female, whose young one had been killed and taken on board, became so furious, that she struck her tusks through the bottom of the cutter.

117 Remarkable affection of the sea-horses towards the young.

118 The ships finally stopped by ice.

Our navigators still found themselves disappointed in their attempts. On approaching the coast of the Tschutski they met with a large and compact body of ice, extending to the north-east, south-west, and south-east, as far as the eye could reach; so that they were again obliged to sail back to the northward. Here also their course was soon stopped; for, on the 13th, being in N. Lat. 69. 37. and about the middle of the channel between the two continents, they once more fell in with a compact body of ice, of which they could perceive no limit. Captain Clerke therefore determined to make a final attempt on the coast of America, the passage northward having been found last year practicable much farther on that than the Asiatic side. Thus they attained the latitude of 70. 8. at the distance, as was supposed, of 25 leagues from the coast of America; and some days after got about three minutes farther to the northward, about the distance of seven or eight leagues from the Icy Cape. This, however, was the utmost limit of the voyage to the north-east; and they were soon obliged to relinquish

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quish all hopes of proceeding farther on the American side. Another effort was still resolved on to try the practicability of a north-west passage; and for this purpose our navigators altered their direction on the 21st of July, passing through a great quantity of loose ice. About ten at night the main body was discovered at a very small distance, so that they were obliged to proceed to the southward. During this perilous navigation, the Discovery, after having almost got clear out from the ice, became so entangled by several large pieces, that her progress was stopped, and she immediately dropped to leeward, falling broadside foremost on the edge of a considerable body of ice, on which she struck with violence, there being an open sea to windward. At length the mass was either broken or moved so far, that the crew had an opportunity of making an effort to escape. But unluckily, before the ship gathered way sufficient to be under command, she fell to leeward a second time upon another piece of ice; and the swell rendering it unsafe to lie to windward, and finding no prospect of getting clear, they pushed into a small opening, and made the vessel fast to the ice with hooks. Here the Resolution for some time lost sight of her consort, which occasioned no small uneasiness in both vessels; but at length, on a change of wind, the Discovery, setting all her sails, forced a passage, though not without losing a considerable part of her sheathing, and becoming very leaky by reason of the blows she had received.

119 Dangerous situation of the Discovery.

Thus the two vessels continued to make every effort to penetrate through the immense quantities of ice with which those seas are filled winter and summer, but without success. Captain Clerke therefore finding that it was impossible either to get to the northward, or even to reach the Asiatic continent, the ships being also greatly damaged, determined to proceed southward to the bay of Awatska, on the Kamtschadale coast, to refit, and afterwards take a survey of the coasts of Japan before the winter should set in.

120 Of the extent of the Asiatic continent to the northward.

During this navigation, two general conclusions were adopted relative to the extent of the Asiatic coast, in opposition to the opinion of Mr Muller. One is, that the promontory, called the *East Cape*, is in reality the most easterly point of Asia; and that no part of that quarter of the globe extends farther than the longitude of 190° 22′ E. The other conclusion is, that the latitude of the most north-easterly point of Asia does not exceed 70° N. but is rather somewhat below it. As the present discoveries, however, were terminated on the Asiatic side on the 68th degree of latitude, the probable direction of the coast afterwards can only be conjectured. The only sources of knowledge in this case are the Russian charts and journals, and these in general are so defective and contradictory, that the particulars of their real discoveries can scarce be collected. Hence the Russian geographers are greatly divided in their opinions concerning the extent and figure of the peninsula of the Tschutski. Mr Muller, in a map published 1751, supposes it to extend north-east as far as the latitude of 75°, and E. Long. 190°, ending in a round cape, which he calls *Tschukotskoi Noss*. To the southward of this cape he supposes the coast to form a bay to the west, bounded in the latitude of 67° 18′ by Serdze Kamen, the most northerly point observed by Beering in his expedition in 1728. A new form is given to the whole peninsula in a map published by the academy at Petersburgh in 1776. Here its most north-easterly extremity is placed in N. Lat. 73°, E. Long. 178. 30.; and its most easterly point in N. Lat. 65. E. Long. 189. 30.. All the other maps vary between these two situations: and the only thing in which all of them agree is the position of the East cape in N. Lat. 66. The form of the coast, however, is very erroneous in the map published by the academy, and may be entirely disregarded. In Mr Muller's map, the northern part of the coast has some resemblance to that laid down in Captain Cook's and Clerke's survey, as far as the latter extends; only that Mr Muller does not make it trend sufficiently to the west, but supposes it to recede only five degrees of longitude between the latitudes of 66° and 69°; whereas it really recedes almost ten.

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We must next examine Mr Muller's authority for supposing the coast to bend round to the north and north-east in such a manner as to form a large promontory. Mr Coxe, whose accurate researches into this matter must give great weight to his opinion, thinks, that the extremity of the promontory was never doubled by any person except Deshneff and his party; who sailed, in the year 1648, from the river Kovyma, and are imagined to have got round to the river Anadyr. The account of this voyage, however, gives no geographical delineation of the coast, so that its figure must be determined by other circumstances; and from these it evidently appears, that the Tschukotskoi Noss of Deshneff is in reality the East cape of Captain Cook. Speaking of this noss, he says, that a person, with a favourable wind, may sail from the isthmus to the Anadyr in three days and three nights. This agrees entirely with the situation of the East cape, which is about 120 leagues from the mouth of the river Anadyr; and there being no other isthmus to the north between that and the latitude of 69°, it seems evident, that by this description he certainly means either the East cape or some other situated to the southward of it. In another place he says, that opposite to the isthmus there are two islands upon which some of the Tschutski nation were observed, having pieces of the teeth of sea-horses fixed in their lips; and this exactly coincides with the two islands that lie to the south-east of the East cape. Our navigators indeed did not observe any inhabitants upon these islands; but it is by no means improbable, that some of those of the American coast, whom the above description perfectly suits, might have accidentally been there at the time, and been mistaken for a tribe of Tschutski.

Other circumstances, though less decisive than those just mentioned, concur in the same proof. Deshneff says, that in sailing from the Kovyma to the Anadyr, a great promontory, which projects far into the sea, must be doubled; and that this promontory extends between north and north-east. From these expressions, perhaps, Mr Muller was induced to represent the country of the Tschutski in the form we find in his map; but if he had been acquainted with the position of the East cape as determined by Captain Cook, and the striking agreement between that and the promontory or isthmus in the circumstances above mentioned, it

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it is most probable that he would not have deemed these expressions of sufficient weight to authorise his extending the north-eastern extremity of Asia either as far to the north or to the east as he has done.

Another authority used by Mr Muller seems to have been the deposition of the Cossack Popoff, taken at the Anadirskoi Ostrog in 1711. Popoff was sent by land, in company with several others, to demand tribute of the independent Tschutski tribes, who inhabited the country about the Noss. In the account of this journey, the distance betwixt Anadirsk and Tschukotskoi Noss is represented as a journey of ten weeks with loaded rein-deer. From such a vague account, indeed, we can judge but very little: but as the distance between the East cape and Anadirsk does not exceed 200 leagues, and consequently might be accomplished in the space above mentioned at the rate of 12 or 14 miles a day, we cannot reckon Popoff's account of its situation inconsistent with the supposition of its being the East cape. It may likewise be observed, that Popoff's route lay along the foot of a rock named *Matkol*, situated at the bottom of a spacious gulf, which Muller supposes to have been the bay he lays down between the latitudes of 66° and 72°; and he accordingly places the rock Matkol in the centre of it; but it seems more probable that it might be a part of the gulf of Anadyr, which they would undoubtedly pass in their journey towards the East cape.

But what seems to put the matter beyond all doubt, and to prove that the cape which Popoff visited cannot be to the northward of 69° Lat. is that part of his deposition which relates to an island lying off the Noss, from whence the opposite coast might be discerned; for as the opposite continents, in the latitude of 69°, diverge so far as to be upwards of 100 leagues distant, it is highly improbable that the Asiatic coast should again trend eastward in such a manner as to come almost in sight of that of America. As an additional proof of the position in question, we may observe, that the Tschukotskoi Noss is constantly laid down as dividing the sea of Kovyma from that of Anadyr; which could not possibly be the case if any large cape had projected to the north-east in the higher latitudes.

The next question to be determined is, to what degree of latitude the northern coast of Asia extends before it inclines directly westward? Captain Cook was always strongly inclined to believe, that the northern coast of this continent, from the Indigirka eastward, has hitherto been usually laid down above two degrees to the northward of its true situation; for which reason, and on the authority of a map that was in his possession, as well as from intelligence received at Oonalashka, he placed the mouth of the Kovyma in the latitude of 68°. Should he be right in his conjecture, it is probable that the coast of Asia does not anywhere extend beyond the latitude of 70° before it trends to the west; and consequently our navigators must have been only one degree from its northern extremity. This seems to be confirmed by the silence of the Russian navigators concerning any extent of continent to the northward of Shelatskoi Noss; nor do they mention any remarkable promontory, except the East cape, between the Anadyr and the Kovyma. Another particular which Deshneff relates may perhaps be deemed a farther confirmation of this opinion, viz. that he met with no obstruction from ice in sailing round the northern extremity of Asia; though he adds, that this sea is not at all times so free of it, which indeed appears evidently to be the case. That part of the continent which lies between Cape North and the mouth of the Kovyma is about 125 leagues in extent. A third part of this space, from Kovyma eastward, was explored in the year 1723 by Feodot Amossoff, who informed Mr Muller that its direction was easterly. Since that time it has been surveyed with some accuracy by Shalauroff, whose chart makes it trend north-east-by-east as far as Shelatskoi Noss, which he places at the distance of about 43 leagues east of the Kovyma. The space, therefore, between the Noss and Cape North, somewhat more than 80 leagues, is the only part of the Russian dominions now remaining unexplored. But if the Kovyma be erroneously laid down in point of longitude as well as latitude, a supposition far from being improbable, the extent of the undiscovered coast will be considerably diminished.

The following are the reasons why it may be supposed that the mouth of the Kovyma is placed too far to the westward in the Russian charts: 1. Because the accounts that have been given of the navigation of the Frozen ocean from that river round the north-eastern extremity of Asia to the gulf of Anadyr, do not agree with the supposed distance between those places. 2. Because the distance from the Anadyr to the Kovyma over land is by some Russian travellers represented as a journey of no very great length, and easily performed. 3. Because the coast from the Shelatskoi Noss of Shalauroff appears to trend directly south-east towards the East cape. From all which it may be inferred, with some degree of probability, that only 60 miles of the northern Asiatic coast remain to be explored.

121 Impracticability of a north-west or north-east passage into the Pacific ocean.

With regard to a north-west passage from the Atlantic into the Pacific ocean, it is highly probable that no such thing exists to the southward of the 56th degree of latitude. If, in reality, it exists anywhere, it must certainly be either through Baffin's bay, or by the north of Greenland in the western hemisphere, or in the eastern, through the Frozen sea to the north of Siberia; so that in whichever continent it is seated the navigator must pass through Beering's straits.

All that remains now to be considered therefore is, the impracticability of penetrating into the Atlantic ocean through these straits. From the voyages of our navigators it appears, that the sea to the northward of Beering's straits is more free from ice in August than in July, and perhaps may be still more so in some part of September. But after the autumnal equinox the length of the day diminishes so fast, that no farther thaw can be expected; and it would be unreasonable to attribute so great an effect to the warmth of the last fortnight of September as to imagine it capable of dispersing the ice from the most northern part of the American coast. Even admitting this to be possible, it must at least be allowed that it would be highly imprudent to endeavour to avoid the Icy cape, by running to the known parts of Baffin's bay, a distance of about 1260 miles, in so short a time as that passage can be supposed to be open. On the side of Asia there appears still less probability of success, as appears from the

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the testimony of the Russian as well as the English navigators. The voyage of Deshneff indeed proves the possibility of circumnavigating the north-eastern extremity of Asia; but even this affords a very slender foundation to hope for any great benefit, as no person besides himself appears to have succeeded in the attempt, though more than a century and a half has now elapsed since the time of his voyage. But even supposing that, in some very favourable season, this cape might be doubled, still the cape of Taimura remains, extending as far as the 78th degree of latitude, and round which none pretend ever to have sailed.

These arguments seem conclusive against any expectation of a north-west or north-east passage to the East Indies, unless on the supposition of an open sea very near the polar regions. The probability of getting into the polar seas is considered under the article POLE; and indeed from what has already been advanced must appear very little. Waving this subject therefore at present, we shall return to the remarks made by our navigators during their second voyage.

122 Remarks during the voyage of Captain Clerke towards the Icy sea.

In this they did little more than confirm what had been observed during the first: for it never was in their power to approach the continent of Asia in any higher latitude than 67°, nor that of America in any part, excepting a few leagues, between 68° and 68° 20′, which they had not seen before. In both years the ice was met with sooner on the Asiatic than the American coast; but in 1779 they met with it in lower latitudes than in 1778. As they proceeded northward, the ice was found universally more compact and solid, though they were ascertained at the same time that the greatest part of what they met with was moveable. Its height on a medium was estimated at eight or ten feet; though some of the highest might be about 16 or 18. The currents were generally at the rate of one mile in the hour, and more generally set from the south-west than from any other quarter. Their force, however, was so inconsiderable, whatever their direction might be, that no conclusion could possibly be drawn from them concerning the existence or non-existence of a northern passage. With regard to the temperature of the weather, July was found much colder than August. In the former, the thermometer was once at 20°, and very frequently at 30°; whereas during the last year it was very uncommon in August to have it as low as the freezing point. High winds were experienced in both seasons, all of which blew from the south-west. The air was foggy whenever the weather became calm; but the fogs were observed to accompany southerly winds much more than others.

The straits, in the nearest approach of the continents to each other, in the latitude of 66°, are about 13 leagues over; beyond which they diverge to N. E. by E. and W. N. W.; so that in the latitude of 69°, their distance from each other is about 300 miles. A great resemblance is observed betwixt the continents on both sides of the straits. Both are destitute of wood; the shores are low, with mountains further inland, rising to a great height. The soundings in the mid way between them were from 29 to 30 fathoms, gradually decreasing as either continent was approached; with this difference, however, that the water was somewhat shallower on the coast of America than that of Asia, at an equal distance from land. The bottom, towards the middle, was a soft slimy mud; and near either shore was a brownish sand intermixed with a few shells and small fragments of bones. There was but little tide or current, and what there was came from the west.

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123 Death of Captain Clerke. See *Clerke*.

Before the ships could reach the peninsula of Kamtschatka, Captain Clerke expired; in consequence of which the command of the Discovery devolved upon Mr King, Captain Gore being now the superior officer. On the return to Kamtschatka, Captain Clerke was buried in the spot on which a church was to be erected; it having been his own desire to be interred in the church.

124 Return to Kamtschatka, with a description of the bay of Awatska.

By the time they arrived at this peninsula, the face of the country was greatly improved; the fields being covered with the most lively verdure, and every plant in the most flourishing state. The eruption of the volcano which they had observed on their last departure from Kamtschatka, had done little or no damage, notwithstanding its violence. Several stones had fallen about the size of a goose's egg, but none larger. At this visit it was observed by our navigators, that the complexions of the Russians seemed to be much more unhealthy and sallow than when they saw them formerly; and the Russians made the same observation upon the complexions of their guests. As no certain cause for this alteration could be perceived, the blame was by both parties laid on the verdure of the country; which, by contrasting itself with the colour of the people, made the latter appear to disadvantage.

Having repaired as well as they could the damages sustained by the ships among the ice, our navigators now began to proceed on their voyage southward; but the shattered condition of their vessels, with the little time they had now to spare on voyages of discovery, after having been so long at sea, now rendered them much less successful than formerly. Before leaving the peninsula, however, they took care to give such a description of the bay of Awatska as must be of great service to future navigators. This bay lies in 52. 51. N. Lat. and 158. 48. E. Long. in the bight of another bay formed by Cape Gavareea to the south, and Cheeponskoi Noss to the north. The latter of these bears from the former N. E. by N. and is 32 leagues distant. From Cape Gavareea to the entrance of Awatska bay the coast takes a northerly direction, and extends about 11 leagues. It consists of a chain of rugged cliffs and rocks, and in many parts presents an appearance of bays or inlets; but on a nearer view, low grounds were perceived by which the headlands were connected. From the entrance of Awatska bay, Cheeponskoi Noss bears E. N. E. distant 17 leagues. The shore on this side is flat and low, with hills behind gradually rising to a considerable height. The latitude of Cape Gavareea is 52. 21. By this remarkable difference of the land on both sides the cape, navigators may be directed in their course towards it from the southward. When they approach it from the northward, Cheeponskoi Noss becomes very conspicuous; it being a high projecting headland, and united to the continent by a large extent of level ground lower than the Noss: and presents the same

appearance

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appearance whether viewed from the north or south. Should the weather happen to be sufficiently clear to admit a view of the mountains both on the sea coast and in the neighbourhood, the situation of Awatska bay, may be known by the two high ones to the south of it. That nearest the bay is in the form of a sugar-loaf, the other flat at top, and not quite so high. Three very conspicuous mountains appear on the north side of the bay; of which that to the west appears to be the highest; the next, being a volcano, is readily known by the smoke which it emits; the third is the most northerly, and might properly be called a cluster of mountains, as it presents several flat tops to view. When got within the capes, the entrance of the bay of Awatska to the north is pointed out by a lighthouse on a perpendicular headland. Many sunken rocks lie to the eastward of this headland, stretching two or three miles into the sea; and which with a moderate sea or swell will always show themselves. A small round island lies four miles to the south of the entrance, principally composed of high pointed rocks, one of which is very remarkable. The entrance into the bay is at first about three miles wide, and one and a half in the narrowest part; the length is four miles in a north-west direction. Within the mouth is a noble bason about 25 miles in circumference; in which are the harbours of Rakoweera to the east, Tarcinska, to the west, and St Peter and St Paul to the north.

125 Account of the voyage from the time of leaving Kamtschatka.

On leaving Kamtschatka, it was unanimously judged improper to make any attempt to navigate the seas between the continent of Asia and Japan. Instead of this, it was proposed to steer to the eastward of that island, and in the way thither to sail along the Kuriles; examining particularly those that are situated nearest to the northern coast of Japan, which are said to be considerable, and neither subject to the Russians nor Japanese. In case they should have the good fortune to meet with some secure and commodious harbour in one of these islands, it was supposed that they might prove of considerable importance, as convenient places for shelter for subsequent navigators, who might be employed in exploring these seas, as the means of producing a commercial intercourse among the adjacent dominions of the two above-mentioned empires. The next object was to take a survey of the coasts of the islands of Japan; after which they designed to sail for the coasts of China as far north as possible, and then sail along it southward to Macao.

In pursuance of this plan, they sailed along the coast of Kamtschatka, till they came to the southern point called *Cape Lopatka*, whose situation they determined to be in Lat. 51. 0. E. Long. 156. 45. To the north-west they observed a very lofty mountain, whose summit was lost in the clouds; and the same instant the first of the Kurile islands, named *Shoomska*, made its appearance in the direction of west, half south. The passage betwixt the southern extremity of Cape Lopatka and the island of Shoomska, though only one league in breadth, is extremely dangerous, both on account of the rapidity of the tides, and of the sunk rocks which lie off the cape. In the course of this voyage, they had occasion to observe, that a violent swell from the north-west frequently took place, though the wind had been for some time in the western quarter; a circumstance for which they seem to have been altogether unable to account.

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The tempestuous weather which now occurred, prevented any discoveries from being made among the Kurile isles; however, they again sailed over the space assigned to the land of De Gama, without being able to find it; and, from comparing several accounts of the Russian navigators with one another, it was judged extremely probable, that the land of Jeso, so frequently laid down in former maps, is no other than the most southerly of the Kurile isles. On coming in view of the coast of Japan, they had the mortification to find that they could not approach the land by reason of the tempestuous weather and bad state of the ships; the coasts of these islands being extremely dangerous. Passing from thence in quest of the Bashee islands, they found amazing quantities of pumice-stone floating in the sea; so that they seemed inclined to believe, with Mr Muller, that if there had formerly been any part of the continent, or large island, called the *Land of Jeso*, it must have disappeared in a volcanic convulsion; which also must have been the case with that called the *Company's Land* and *Staten Island*. Though they had not the good fortune to find the Bashee islands, they discovered one in 24. 48. N. Lat. 141. 20. E. Long. which from its appearance, and the sulphureous smell emitted by it, they named *Sulphur island*. After this nothing remarkable occurred till their arrival at Canton in China, where, having staid for some time in order to put their ships in repair, they at last set sail for Britain; but through stress of weather were driven as far north as Stromness in Orkney. From thence Captain Gore sent a dispatch to the lords of the admiralty to inform them of his arrival; and on the 4th of October 1780, the ships reached the Nore, after an absence of four years, two months, and twenty two days.

COOKERY, the art of preparing and dressing victuals for the table: An art, in its simplest and ordinary modes, sufficiently familiar to every housekeeper; and, in its luxurious refinements, too copiously detailed in manuals and directories published for the purpose, to require any enlargement here, were it even a topic that at all deserved consideration in a work of this nature.

COOLERS, in *Medicine*, those remedies which were supposed to produce an immediate sense of cold, being such as have their parts in less motion than those of the organs of feeling; as fruits and all acid liquors. Or they are such as were supposed, by a particular viscidity or grossness of parts, to give the animal fluids a greater consistency than they had before, and consequently retard their motion, having less of that intestine force on which their heat depends: this property was ascribed to cucumbers and similar substances.

COOM, a term applied to the soot that gathers over an oven's mouth; and also to the black, greasy substance, which works out of the wheels of carriages.

COOMB, or Comb. *of corn*, a dry measure containing four bushels, or half a quarter.

COOP, in *Husbandry*, a tumbrel or cart enclosed with boards, and used to carry dung, grains, &c.

Coop, is also the name of a pen, or enclosed place, where

where lambs, poultry, &c. are ſhut up in order to be fed.

COOPER, an artificer who makes caſks, coops tubs and barrels, and all kinds of wooden veſſels which are bound together with hoops. It would appear, that the art of the cooper is of great antiquity, and ſoon attained all the perfection which it at preſent poſſeſſes.

But although this art is very ancient, there are ſome countries in which it is yet unknown; and in other countries from the ſcarcity of wood, or from ſome other cauſes, earthen veſſels and ſkins lined with pitch are uſed for containing liquors. The Latin word *dolium*, is uſually tranſlated "caſk;" but it was employed by the Romans to denote earthen veſſels uſed for the ſame purpoſes. The word *dolare*, to "plane, or ſmooth," from which dolium is derived, and the word *dolariüs*, "a cooper," may be naturally enough applied, the former to the conſtruction of caſks, which are made of ſeveral pieces of the ſame tree planed and fitted for joining together, and the latter to the artificer himſelf.

Pliny aſcribes the invention of caſks to the people who lived at the foot of the Alps. In his time they lined them with pitch. From the year 70 of the Chriſtian era, in the time of Tiberius and Veſpaſian, the art of conſtructing veſſels of different pieces of wood ſeems to have been well known. Indeed, previous to this period, Varro and Columella, in detailing the precepts of rural economy, ſpeak diſtinctly of veſſels formed of different pieces, and bound together with circles of wood or hoops. The deſcription which they have given accords exactly with the conſtruction of caſks. The fabrication of caſks, on account of the great abundance of wood, was probably very early introduced into France. When this art was firſt practiſed in Britain is unknown; but it ſeems not improbable that it was derived from the French.

The figure of a caſk is that of two truncated cones, or rather conoids, joined together; for the lines are not ſtraight, as in the cone, but are curved from the vertex to the baſe. As the place where the junction ſeems to take place is the moſt capacious, it is commonly called the belly of the caſk. In the choice of wood, old, thick, and ſtraight trees are preferred, from which thin planks are hewn which are to be formed into ſtaves. In France, the wood is prepared in winter; the ſtaves and bottoms are then formed, and they are put together, or, in the language of the artificer, the caſk is mounted, in ſummer. Planing the ſtaves is one of the moſt difficult parts of the work; and it is at the ſame time one of the moſt important in the fabrication of caſks. In dreſſing ſtaves with the plane, the workman is directed to cut acroſs the wood; the reaſon of which is probably to prevent the inſtrument following the courſe of the fibres, which may not always be in the ſame plane with the ſurface of the ſtave, and thus render it of unequal thickneſs.

In the formation of the ſtaves, it ought to be recollected, that each is to conſtitute part of a double conoid. It muſt therefore be broader at the middle, and muſt gradually become narrower, but not in ſtraight lines, towards the extremities. The outſide of the ſtaves, acroſs the wood, muſt be wrought into the ſegment of a circle; and it muſt be thickeſt near the middle, growing gradually thinner towards the ends. Great experience, it is obvious, muſt be requiſite for the nice adjuſtment of the different curves to the ſize and ſhape of the caſk. Leſs attention, as it is leſs neceſſary, is paid to the rounding or dreſſing of the inſide of the ſtave.

After the ſtaves are dreſſed and ready to be arranged in a circular form, it might be ſuppoſed neceſſary, for the purpoſe of making the ſeams tight, to trim the thin edges in ſuch a manner, that the contiguous ſtaves may be brought into firm contact throughout the whole joint, or ſloped ſimilar to the arch-ſtones of a bridge. But this is not the practice which is uſually followed by the artificer. Without attempting to ſlope them, ſo that the whole ſurface of the edge may touch in every point, he brings the contiguous ſtaves into contact only at the inner ſurface; and in this way, by driving the hoops hard, he can make a cloſer joint than could be done by ſloping them from the outer to the inner ſide. In this, perhaps, with giving the proper curvature to the ſtaves, conſiſts the principal part of the cooper's art.

COOPER, *Anthony Aſhley*, firſt earl of Shafteſbury, a moſt able ſtateſman, was the ſon of Sir John Cooper, Bart. of Rockburn in Hampſhire, and was born in 1621. He was elected member for Tewkeſbury, at 19 years of age, in the ſhort parliament that met April 13. 1640. He ſeems to have been well affected to the king's ſervice at the beginning of the civil wars; for he repaired to the king at Oxford with offers of aſſiſtance: but Prince Maurice breaking articles to a town in Dorſetſhire that he had got to receive him, furniſhed him with a pretence for going over to the parliament, from which he accepted a commiſſion. When Richard Cromwell was depoſed, and the Rump came again into power, they nominated Sir Anthony one of their council of ſtate, and a commiſſioner for managing the army. At that very time he had engaged in a ſecret correſpondence for reſtoring Charles II. and, upon the king's coming over, was ſworn of his privy council. He was one of the commiſſioners for the trial of the regicides; was ſoon after made chancellor of the exchequer, then a commiſſioner of the treaſury; in 1672 was created earl of Shafteſbury; and ſoon after was raiſed to the poſt of lord chancellor. He filled this office with great ability and integrity; and though the ſhort time he was at the helm was in a tempeſtuous ſeaſon, it is doing him juſtice to ſay, nothing could either diſtract or affright him. The great ſeal was taken from him in 1673, 12 months after his receiving it; but, though out of office, he ſtill made a diſtinguiſhed figure in parliament, for it was not in his nature to remain inactive. He drew upon himſelf the implacable hatred of the duke of York, by ſteadily promoting, if not originally inventing, the famous project of an excluſion-bill. When his enemies came into power, he found it neceſſary to conſult his ſafety, by retiring into Holland, where he died ſix weeks after his arrival, in 1683. While his great abilities are confeſſed by all, it has been his misfortune to have his hiſtory recorded by his enemies, who ſtudied to render him odious. Butler has given a very ſevere character of him in his Hudibras.

COOPER, *Anthony Aſhley*, earl of Shafteſbury, was ſon of Anthony earl of Shafteſbury, and grandſon of Anthony

Cooper.

Anthony first earl of Shaftesbury, lord high chancellor of England. He was born in 1671, at Exeter-house in London, where his grandfather lived, who from the time of his birth conceived so great an affection for him, that he undertook the care of his education; and he made so good a progress in learning, that he could read with ease both the Latin and Greek languages when only 11 years old. In 1683, his father carried him to the school at Winchester, where he was often insulted on his grandfather's account, whose memory was odious to the zealots for despotic power: he therefore prevailed with his father to consent to his desire of going abroad. After three years stay abroad, he returned to England in 1689, and was offered a seat in parliament in some of those boroughs where his family had an interest. But this offer he did not now accept, that he might not be interrupted in the course of his studies, which he prosecuted five years more with great vigour and success; till, on Sir John Trenchard's death, he was elected burgess for Pool. Soon after his coming into parliament, he had an opportunity given him of expressing that spirit of liberty by which he uniformly directed his conduct on all occasions. It was the bringing in and promoting "the act for regulating trials in cases of high treason." But the fatigues of attending the house of commons in a few years so impaired his health, that he was obliged to decline coming again into parliament after the dissolution in 1698. He then went to Holland, where the conversation of Mr Bayle, M. le Clerc, and several other learned and ingenious men, induced him to reside a twelvemonth. During this time, there was printed at London, in 8vo, an imperfect edition of Lord Ashley's Inquiry concerning Virtue. It had been surreptitiously taken from a rough draught, sketched when he was no more than 20 years of age. His lordship, who was greatly chagrined at this event, immediately bought up the impression before many books were sold, and set about completing the treatise, as it afterwards appeared in the second volume of the Characteristics. Soon after Lord Ashley's return to England, he became, by the decease of his father, earl of Shaftesbury. But his own private affairs hindered him from attending the house of lords till the second year of his peerage, when he was very earnest to support King William's measures, who was at that time projecting the grand alliance. So much was he in favour with King William, that he had the offer of secretary of state; but his declining constitution would not allow him to accept of it. Though he was disabled from engaging in business, the king consulted him on matters of very high importance; and it is pretty well known that he had the greatest share in composing that celebrated last speech of King William, December 31. 1701. On Queen Anne's accession to the throne, he returned to his retired manner of life, being no longer advised with concerning the public; and was then removed from the vice-admiralty of Dorset, which had been in the family for three generations. In 1703, he made a second journey to Holland, and returned to England the year following. The French prophets, soon after this, having by their enthusiastic extravagancies made a great noise throughout the nation, and among different opinions, some advising a prosecution, the lord Shaftesbury apprehended that such measures tended rather to inflame than to cure the disease. This was the origin of his Letter concerning Enthusiasm, which he sent to Lord Somers then president of the council; and which being approved of by that nobleman and other gentlemen to whom it was shown, was published in 1708, though without the name of the author, or that of the person to whom it was addressed. His Moralist, a philosophical Rhapsody, being a recital of certain conversations on natural and moral subjects, appeared in January 1709; and in the May following his *Sensus Communis*, an essay upon the freedom of Wit and Humour, in a Letter to a Friend. It was in the same year that he entered into the marriage state with Mrs Jane Ewer, the youngest daughter of Thomas Ewer, Esq. of Lee in Hertfordshire. By this lady, to whom his lordship was related, he had an only son, Anthony the late earl of Shaftesbury. In 1710, his Soliloquy, or Advice to an Author, was published at London in 8vo. While he was thus employing himself in literary composition, his health declined so fast, that it was recommended to him to seek assistance from a warmer climate. Accordingly, in July 1711, he set out for Naples, and pursuing his journey by way of France, was obliged to pass through the duke of Berwick's army, which at that time lay encamped near the borders of Piedmont. Here he was entertained by that famous general in the most friendly manner, and every assistance was given him to conduct him in safety to the duke of Savoy's dominions. Our noble author's removal to Italy was of no service to the re-establishment of his health; for after having resided at Naples about a year and a half, he departed this life on the 4th of February, O. S. 1712-13, in the 42d year of his age. The only pieces which he finished after he came to this city, were the Judgment of Hercules, and the Letter concerning Design, which last was added to that impression of the Characteristics which appeared in 1732. It was in 1711 that the first edition was published of all the Characteristics together, and in the order in which they now stand. But this publication not being entirely to his lordship's satisfaction, he chiefly employed the latter part of his life in preparing his writings for a more elegant edition; which was given to the world in 1713, soon after his decease. The several prints that were then first interspersed through the volumes were all invented by himself, and designed under his immediate inspection; and for this purpose he was at the pains of drawing up a most accurate set of instructions, the manuscript of which is still preserved in the family. That no mistakes might be committed, the earl did not leave to any other hands so much as the drudgery of correcting the press. In the three volumes of the Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, and Times, he completed the whole of his works which he intended for the public eye. Not long before his death he had formed a scheme of writing a discourse on painting, sculpture, and the other arts of design, which, if he had lived to have finished it, might have proved a very pleasing and useful work, as he had a fine taste in subjects of that kind: but his premature decease prevented his making any great progress in the undertaking. The earl of Shaftesbury had an esteem for the works of the best English divines; one remarkable instance of which was displayed in his writing a Preface to a volume of Dr Whichcot's

Cooper.

Whichcot's Sermons, publiſhed in 1698. Copies of theſe ſermons had been taken in ſhort-hand, as they were delivered from the pulpit; and the earl had ſo high an opinion of them, that he not only introduced them to the world by his preface, but had them printed under his own particular inſpection. In his Letters to a Young Man at the univerſity, he ſpeaks of Biſhop Burnet and Dr Hoadly in terms of great applauſe, and has done juſtice to the merits of Tillotſon, Barrow, Chillingworth, and Hammond, as the chief pillars of the church againſt fanaticiſm. But whatever regard his lordſhip might have for ſome of our divines, it was to the writings of antiquity that his admiration was principally directed. Theſe were the conſtant objects of his ſtudy, and from them he formed his ſyſtem of philoſophy, which was of the civil, ſocial, and theiſtic kind.

Of Lord Shafteſbury's character, as a writer, different accounts have been given. As one of his greateſt admirers, may be mentioned Lord Monboddo; who, ſpeaking of his Rhapſodiſt in particular, does not heſitate to pronounce it not only the beſt dialogue in Engliſh, out of all degree of compariſon, but the ſublimeſt philoſophy: and, if we will join with it the Inquiry, the completeſt ſyſtem both of morality and theology, that we have in our language, and, at the ſame time, of the greateſt beauty and elegance for the ſtyle and compoſition.

Even ſeveral of the authors who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their direct oppoſition to many of the ſentiments which occur in the Characteriſtics, have nevertheleſs mixed no ſmall degree of applauſe with their cenſures. "I have again peruſed, with freſh pleaſure and freſh concern (ſays Mr Balguy, in his Letter to a Deiſt), the volumes of Characteriſtics—I heartily wiſh the noble author had been as unprejudiced in writing as I was in reading. If he had, I am perſuaded his readers would have found double pleaſure and double inſtruction. It ſeems to me, that his lordſhip had little or no temptation to purſue any ſingularities of opinion by way of diſtinction. His fine genius would ſufficiently have diſtinguiſhed him from vulgar authors in the high road of truth and ſenſe; on which account his deviations ſeem the more to be lamented. The purity and politeneſs of his ſtyle, and the delicacy of his ſentiments, are and muſt be acknowledged by all readers of taſte and ſincerity. But nevertheleſs, as his beauties are not eaſy to be overlooked, ſo neither are his blemiſhes. His works appear to be ſtained with ſo many groſs errors, and his fine thoughts are ſo often mingled with abſurdities, that however we may be charmed with the one, we are forced to condemn the other." Mr Balguy hath farther obſerved, with regard to the Inquiry concerning Virtue, which is the immediate object of his animadverſion, that though he cannot agree in every particular contained in it, he finds little more to do than to tell how much he admires; and that he thinks it indeed, in the main, a performance ſo juſt and exact as to deſerve higher praiſes than he is able to give it.

Dr Brown, in his eſſay on the Characteriſtics, obſerves that the earl of Shafteſbury hath in that performance mingled beauties and blots, faults and excellencies, with a liberal and unſparing hand. At the ſame time, the doctor applauds that generous ſpirit of freedom which ſhines throughout the whole. Another direct antagoniſt of the earl of Shafteſbury, Dr Leland, has obſerved, that no impartial man will deny him the praiſe of a fine genius. "The quality of the writer (continues the doctor), his lively and beautiful imagination, the delicacy of taſte he hath ſhown in many inſtances, and the graces and embelliſhments of his ſtyle, though perhaps ſometimes too affected, have procured him many admirers. To which may be added his refined ſentiments on the beauty and excellency of virtue, and that he hath often ſpoken honourably of a juſt and good Providence, which miniſters and governs the whole in the beſt manner; and hath ſtrongly aſſerted, in oppoſition to Mr Hobbes, the natural difference between good and evil; and that man was originally formed for ſociety, and the exerciſe of mutual kindneſs and benevolence; and not only ſo, but for religion and piety too. Theſe things have very much prejudiced many perſons in his favour, and prepared them for receiving, almoſt implicitly, whatever he hath advanced." Dr Johnſon, as we are informed by Sir John Hawkins, bore no good-will to Lord Shafteſbury; neither did he ſeem at all to reliſh the cant of the Shafteſburian ſchool, nor inclined to admit the pretenſions of thoſe who profeſſed it, to taſtes and perceptions which are not common to all men; a taſte in morals, in poetry and proſe writing, in painting, in ſculpture, in muſic, in architecture, and in government! A taſte that cenſured every production, and induced them to reprobate every effort of genius that fell ſhort of their own capricious ſtandard.

The grand point in which our noble author has rendered himſelf juſtly obnoxious to the friends of religion, is his having interſperſed through the Characteriſtics a number of inſinuations that appear to be unfavourable to the cauſe of revelation. There have not however been wanting many among his admirers, who have thought that he ought not to be reckoned among the deiſtical writers. The author of animadverſions upon Dr Brown's three Eſſays on the Characteriſtics, obſerves, that it is "imprudent, to ſay no worſe, in ſome ſincere advocates for Chriſtianity, to reject the friendly advice and aſſiſtance of ſo maſterly a writer as the lord Shafteſbury, and to give him up to the Deiſts as a patron of infidelity." But it is matter of fact, and not conſiderations of prudence or imprudence, that muſt determine the queſtion. In ſupport of his lordſhip's having been a believer in our holy religion, may be alleged, his preface to Whichcot's Sermons, and his Letters to a Student at the univerſity: in both which works he conſtantly expreſſes himſelf in ſuch language as ſeems to indicate that he was really a Chriſtian. And with regard to the letters, it may be remarked, that they were written in 1707, 1708, and 1709, not many years before his lordſhip's death. Nevertheleſs, there are in the Characteriſtics ſo many ſceptical paſſages, that he muſt be conſidered as having been a doubter at leaſt, if not an abſolute diſbeliever, with reſpect to revelation. But if he muſt be ranked among the Deiſts, we agree with the obſervation of one of his biographers, that he is a very different Deiſt from numbers who have appeared in that character; his general principles being much leſs exceptionable.

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The ſtyle of Lord Shafteſbury's compoſitions is alſo a point upon which various and contradictory ſentiments

ments have been entertained. But for the fullest and most judicious criticism that has appeared upon that subject, we may refer the reader to Dr Blair's Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, vol. i. p. 192, 193, 207, 208, 234, 263, and 396—398.

COOPER, *Samuel*, a very eminent English miniature painter, born in 1609, and bred under the care of his uncle John Hoskins. He derived, however, his principal excellence from the study of the works of Vandyck, in whose time he lived; insomuch that he was commonly styled "Vandyck in little." His pencil was chiefly confined to the head, in which, with all its dependencies, especially the hair, he was inimitable; but if he descended lower his incorrectness was notorious. He died in 1672; and his pieces are universally admired all over Europe, selling for incredible prices.—He had a brother, Alexander, likewise a good miniature painter, who became limner to Christina queen of Sweden.

COOPER, *Thomas*, a pious and learned prelate in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, was born at Oxford about the year 1517. He was educated in the school adjoining to Magdalene college, of which he was a chorister, where also, in 1539, he was elected probationer, and fellow in the following year. About the year 1546, quitting his fellowship, he applied himself to the study of physic, in 1556 took the degree of bachelor in that faculty, and practised as physician at Oxford. Being inclined to the Protestant religion, probably this was only a prudent suspension of his final intentions during the popish reign of Queen Mary; for, on the accession of Elizabeth, he resumed the study of divinity, became a celebrated preacher, was made dean of Christ-church, and vice-chancellor of the university, having accumulated the degrees of bachelor and doctor in divinity. In 1569 he was made dean of Gloucester; and the year following, bishop of Lincoln: whence, in 1584, he was translated to the see of Winchester, in which city he died on the 28th of April 1594, and was buried in the cathedral there, on the south side of the choir. The several writers who have mentioned Dr Cooper, unanimously gave him the character of an eloquent preacher, a learned divine, and a good man. He had the misfortune, while at Oxford, to marry a lady whose gallantries became notorious: nevertheless he would not be divorced from her; knowing that he could not live without a wife, he did not choose "to charge his conscience with the scandal of a second marriage."—He wrote, 1. The Epitome of Chronicles from the 17th year after Christ to 1540, and thence after to 1560. 2. *Thesaurus linguæ Romanæ et Britannicæ*. This dictionary, which is an improvement upon Elyot's, was much admired by Queen Elizabeth, who thenceforward determined to promote the author. 3. A brief exposition of such chapters of the Old Testament as usually are read in the church, at common prayer, on Sundays throughout the year. 4. An admonition to the people of England. 5. Sermons.

COOPER, *John Gilbert*, a polite modern writer, was born in 1723; and was descended from an ancient family in the county of Nottingham, whose fortune was injured in the last century by their attachment to the principles of monarchy. He resided at Thurgarton priory in Nottinghamshire, which was granted by King Henry VIII. to William Cooper, one of his ancestors. This mansion Mr Cooper inherited from his father, who in 1739 was high sheriff of the county; and transmitted it to his son, who filled the same respectable office in 1783. After passing through Westminster school under Dr John Nicoll, along with the late Lord Albemarle, Lord Buckinghamshire, Major Johnson, Mr George Ashby, and many other eminent and ingenious men, he became in 1743 a fellow-commoner of Trinity-college, Cambridge, and resided there two or three years; but quitted the university on his marriage with Susanna the daughter of William Wrighte, Esq. son to the lord keeper of that name, and recorder of Leicester 1729—1763. In the year 1745 he commenced author by the publication of The Power of Harmony, a poem in 4to; and in 1746 and 1747 he produced several Essays and Poems under the signature of Philalethes, in a periodical work called *The Museum*, published by Mr Dodsley. In the same year he came forward as an author, with his name, by a work which received much assistance from his friend the Reverend John Jackson of Leicester, who communicated several learned notes, in which he contrived to manifest his dislike to his formidable antagonist Mr Warburton. It was entitled The Life of Socrates, collected from the Memorabilia of Xenophon, and the Dialogues of Plato, and illustrated farther by Aristotle, Diodorus Siculus, Cicero, Proclus, Apuleius, Maximus Tyrius, Boethius, Diogenes Laertius, Aulus Gellius, and others: 1749, 8vo. In this work Mr Cooper gave evident marks of superior genius; warm, impetuous, and impatient of restraint. In 1754, Mr Cooper published his Letters on Taste, 8vo; an elegant little volume, on which no small share of his reputation is founded; and in 1755, The Tomb of Shakespeare, a Vision, 4to; a decent performance, but in which there is more of wit and application than of nature or genius. In 1756 he assisted Mr Moore, by writing some numbers of the World; and attempted to rouse the indignation of his countrymen against the Hessians, at that juncture brought over to defend the nation, in a poem called the Genius of Britain, addressed to Mr Pitt. In 1758, he published Epistles to the Great, from Aristippus in Retirement, 4to; and The Call of Aristippus, Epistle IV. to Mark Akenside, M. D. Also, A Father's Advice to his Son, in 4to. In the Annual Register of the same year is his Translation of an Epistle from the King of Prussia to Monsieur Voltaire. In 1759, he published Ver Vert; or the Nunnery Parrot; an Heroic Poem, in four cantos, inscribed to the Abbess of D***; translated from the French of Monsieur Gresset, 4to: reprinted in the first volume of Dilly's Repository, 1777; and, in 1764, Poems on several subjects, by the Author of the Life of Socrates; with a prefatory Advertisement by Mr Dodsley. In this little volume were included all the separate poetical pieces which have been already mentioned, excepting Ver Vert, which is a sprightly composition. Mr Cooper died at his father's house in May Fair, after a long and excruciating illness arising from the stone, April 14th 1769.

CO-ORDINATE, something of equal order, rank, or degree with another.

COOT. See FULICA, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COPAIBA, or *Balsam* of COPAIBA, a liquid resinous

nous juice, flowing from incifions made in the trunk of the copaifera balfamum. See MATERIA MEDICA *Index*.

COPAIFERA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants belonging to the decandria elafs. See BOTANY *Index*.

COPAL, improperly called *gum copal*, is a gum of the refinous kind brought from New Spain, being the concrete juice of the *Rhus Copallinum*. It is employed as a varnifh. See VARNISHING and CHEMISTRY *Index*.

COPARCENARY, the fhare or quota of a coparcener.

COPARCENERS, (from *con*, and *particeps*, "partner"), or PARCENERS; fuch as have equal portions in the inheritance of their anceftor.

Coparceners are fo either by law or cuftom. Coparceners by law, are the iffue female; which, in default of a male or heir, come equally to the lands of their anceftors. Coparceners by cuftom, are thofe who, by fome peculiar cuftom of the country, challenge equal parts in fuch lands; as in Kent, by the cuftom of gavelkind. The crown of England is not fubject to coparcenary.

COPE, an ecclefiaftical ornament, ufually worn by chanters and fubchanters, when they officiate in folemnity. It reaches from the fhoulders to the feet. The ancients called it *Pluviale*.—The word is alfo ufed for the roof or covering of a houfe, &c.

COPE is alfo the name of an ancient cuftom or tribute due to the king or lord of the foil, out of the lead mines in fome part of Derbyfhire; of which Manlove faith thus:

Egrefs and regrefs to the king's highway,
The miners have; and *lot* and *cope* they pay;
The thirteenth difh of ore within their mine,
To the lord for *lot*, they pay at meafuring time;
Sixpence a load for *cope* the lord demands,
And that is paid to the *burghmafter's* hands.

This word by Doomfday-book, as Mr Hagar hath interpreted it, fignifies a hill: and cope is taken for the fupreme cover, as the *cope of heaven*.

COPEL. See CUPEL.

COPENHAGEN, the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, fituated on the eaftern fhore of the ifland of Zealand, upon a fine bay of the Baltic fea, not far from the ftrait called the Sound. E. Long. 13. 0. N. Lat 55. 30.

The precife date of the foundation of this city is difputed; but the moft probable account is, that it took its rife from a caftle built on the fpot in the year 1168, as a protection againft the pirates which at that time fwarmed in the Baltic. The conveniency of the fituation, and the fecurity afforded by the caftle, foon induced a number of the inhabitants of Zealand to refort thither: but it was not diftinguifhed by the royal refidence until 1443, during the reign of Chriftopher of Bavaria; fince which period it has been gradually enlarged and beautified, and is become the capital of Denmark.

Copenhagen is the beft built city of the north; for although Peterfburgh excels it in fuperb edifices, yet, as it contains no wooden houfes, it does not difplay that ftriking contraft of meannefs and magnificence; but in general exhibits a more equable and uniform appearance. The town is furrounded towards the land with regular ramparts and baftions, a broad ditch full of water, and a few outworks, its circumference meafures between four and five miles. The ftreets are well paved, with a foot-way on each fide, but too narrow and inconvenient for general ufe. The greateft part of the buildings are of brick; and a few are of free-ftone brought from Germany. The houfes of the nobility are in general fplendid, and conftructed in the Italian ftyle of architecture: the palace, which was erected by Chriftian VI. is a large pile of building; the front is of ftone, and the wings of brick ftuccoed; the fuit of apartments is princely; but the external appearance is more grand than elegant.

The bufy fpirit of commerce is vifible in this city, which contains about 80,000 inhabitants. The haven is always crowded with merchant fhips: and the ftreets are interfected by broad canals, which bring the merchandife clofe to the warehoufes that line the quays. This city owes its principal beauty to a dreadful fire in 1728, that deftroyed five churches and 67 ftreets, which have been fince rebuilt in the modern ftyle. The new part of the town, raifed by the late King Frederic V. is extremely beautiful, fcarcely inferior to Bath. It confifts of an octagon, containing four uniform and elegant buildings of hewn ftone, and of four broad ftreets leading to it in oppofite directions. In the middle of the area ftands an equeftrian ftatue of Frederic V. in bronze, as big as life, which coft 80,000l. The Royal Mufeum, or Cabinet of Rarities, merits the attention of travellers. This collection, which was begun by Frederic III. is depofited in eight apartments, and ranged in the following order: animals, fhells, minerals, paintings, antiquities, medals, dreffes, arms and implements of the Laplanders.

Part of Copenhagen, which is called *Chriftianfhafen*, is built upon the ifle of Amak, which generally attracts the curiofity of foreigners; (fee AMAK). From this place, to which the main city is joined by a bridge, the markets are fupplied with fowl, beef, mutton, venifon, corn, and culinary vegetables, which are produced here in the greateft abundance.

COPERNICAN, in general, fomething belonging to COPERNICUS. Hence

COPERNICAN Syftem or *Hypothefis*, that fyftem of the world wherein the fun is fuppofed to reft in the centre, and the planets, with the earth, to move in ellipfes round him. See COPERNICUS.

COPERNICUS, NICOLAUS, an eminent aftronomer, was born at Thorn in Pruffia, Jan. 10. 1472. He was taught the Latin and Greek languages at home; and afterwards fent to Cracovia, where he ftudied philofophy and phyfic. His genius in the mean time was naturally turned to mathematics, which he purfued through all its various branches. He fet out for Italy when he was 23 years of age; but ftaid at Bononia fome time, for the fake of being with the celebrated aftronomer of that place, Dominicus Maria: whofe converfation, however, and company, he affected, not fo much as a learner, as an affiftant to him in making his obfervations. From thence he paffed to Rome, where he was no fooner arrived than he was confidered as not inferior to the famous Regiomontanus; and acquired, in fhort, fo great a reputation, that he was chofen profeffor of mathematics, which he taught for a long time with great applaufe. He alfo made

Copernicus. made ſome aſtronomical obſervations there about the year 1500. Returning to his own country ſome years after, he began to apply his vaſt knowledge in mathematics to correct the ſyſtem of aſtronomy which then prevailed. He ſet himſelf to collect all the books which had been written by philoſophers and aſtronomers, and to examine all the various hypotheſes they had invented for the ſolution of the celeſtial phenomena, to try if a more ſymmetrical order and conſtitution of the parts of the world could not be diſcovered, and a more juſt and exquiſite harmony in its motions eſtabliſhed, than what the aſtronomers of thoſe times ſo eaſily admitted. But of all their hypotheſes none pleaſed him ſo well as the Pythagorean, which made the ſun to be the centre of the ſyſtem, and ſuppoſed the earth to move not only round the ſun, but round its own axis alſo. He thought he diſcerned much beautiful order and proportion in this; and that all that embarraſſment and perplexity from epicycles and excentrics, which attended the Ptolemaic hypotheſis, would here be entirely removed.

This ſyſtem, then, he began to conſider, and to write upon, when he was about 35 years of age. He employed himſelf in contemplating the phenomena carefully; in making mathematical calculations; in examining the obſervations of the ancients, and in making new ones of his own; and after more than 20 years chiefly ſpent in this manner, he brought his ſcheme to perfection, and eſtabliſhed that ſyſtem of the world which goes by his name, and is now univerſally received, (ſee ASTRONOMY *Index*). His ſyſtem, however, was then looked upon as a moſt dangerous hereſy; for which he was thrown into priſon by Pope Urban VIII. and not ſuffered to come out till he had recanted his opinion; that is, till he had renounced the teſtimony of his ſenſes. He died the 24th of May 1543, in the 70th year of his age.

This extraordinary man had been made canon of Worms by his mother's brother, Lucas Wazelrodius, who was biſhop of that place. He was not only the greateſt of aſtronomers, but a perfect maſter of the Greek and Latin tongues; to all which he joined the greateſt piety and innocence of manners.

The following is the account of the diſcoveries of Copernicus, by Dr Smith, in his *Eſſays on Philoſophical Subjects*.

"The confuſion (ſays Dr Smith) in which the old hypotheſis repreſented the heavenly bodies, was, as Copernicus himſelf tells us, what firſt ſuggeſted to him the deſign of forming a new ſyſtem, that theſe, the nobleſt works of nature, might no longer appear devoid of that harmony and proportion which diſcover themſelves in her meaneſt productions. What moſt of all diſſatisfied him was, the notion of the equalizing circle, which, by repreſenting the revolutions of the celeſtial ſpheres as equable only when ſurveyed from a point that was different from their centres, introduced a real inequality into their motions; contrary to that moſt natural, and indeed fundamental idea, with which all the authors of aſtronomical ſyſtems, Plato, Eudoxus, Ariſtotle, even Hipparchus and Ptolemy themſelves, had hitherto ſet out, that the real motions of ſuch beautiful and divine objects muſt neceſſarily be perfectly regular, and go on in a manner as agreeable to the imagination as the objects themſelves are to the ſenſes. He began to conſider, therefore, whether, by ſuppoſing the heavenly bodies to be arranged in a different order from that in which Ariſtotle and Hipparchus had placed them, this ſo much ſought for uniformity might not be beſtowed upon their motions. To diſcover this arrangement, he examined all the obſcure traditions delivered down to us, concerning every other hypotheſis which the ancients had invented for the ſame purpoſe. He found, in Plutarch, that ſome Pythagoreans had repreſented the earth as revolving in the centre of the univerſe, like a wheel round its own axis; and that others, of the ſame ſect had removed it from the centre, and repreſented it as revolving in the ecliptic like a ſtar round the central fire. By this central fire he ſuppoſed they meant the ſun; and though in this he was very widely miſtaken, it was, it ſeems, upon this interpretation that he began to conſider how ſuch an hypotheſis might be made to correſpond to the appearances. The ſuppoſed authority of thoſe old philoſophers, if it did not originally ſuggeſt to him his ſyſtem, ſeems at leaſt to have confirmed him in an opinion which, it is not improbable, he had beforehand other reaſons for embracing, notwithſtanding what he himſelf would affirm to the contrary.

"It then occurred to him, that if the earth was ſuppoſed to revolve every day round its axis, from weſt to eaſt, all the heavenly bodies would appear to revolve, in a contrary direction, from eaſt to weſt. The diurnal revolution of the heavens, upon this hypotheſis, might be only apparent; the firmament, which has no other ſenſible motion, might be perfectly at reſt; while the ſun, the moon, and the five planets, might have no other movement beſide that eaſtward revolution which is peculiar to themſelves. That, by ſuppoſing the earth to revolve with the planets round the ſun, in an orbit, which comprehended within it the orbits of Venus and Mercury, but was comprehended within thoſe of Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, he could, without the embarraſſment of epicycles, connect together the apparent annual revolutions of the ſun, and the direct, retrograde, and ſtationary appearances of the planets; that while the earth really revolved round the ſun on one ſide of the heavens, the ſun would appear to revolve round the earth on the other; that while ſhe really advanced in her annual courſe, he would appear to advance eaſtward in that movement which is peculiar to himſelf. That, by ſuppoſing the axis of the earth to be always parallel to itſelf, not to be quite perpendicular, but ſomewhat inclined to the plane of her orbit, and conſequently to preſent to the ſun the one pole when on the one ſide of him, and the other when on the other, he would account for the obliquity of the ecliptic; the ſun's ſeemingly alternate progreſſion from north to ſouth, and from ſouth to north; the conſequent change of the ſeaſons, and different lengths of days and nights in the different ſeaſons.

"If this new hypotheſis thus connected together all theſe appearances as happily as that of Ptolemy, there were others which it connected together much better. The three ſuperior planets, when nearly in conjunction with the ſun, appear always at the greateſt diſtance from the earth; are ſmalleſt, and leaſt ſenſible to the eye; and ſeem to revolve forward in their direct motion with the greateſt rapidity. On the contrary, when in oppoſition to the ſun, that is, when in their meridian about midnight,

midnight, they appear neareſt the earth, are largeſt, and moſt ſenſible to the eye, and ſeem to revolve backwards in their retrograde motion. To explain theſe appearances, the ſyſtem of Ptolemy ſuppoſed each of theſe planets to be at the upper part of their ſeveral epicycles in the one caſe, and at the lower in the other. But it afforded no ſatisfactory principle of connection, which could lead the mind eaſily to conceive how the epicycles of thoſe planets, whoſe ſpheres were ſo diſtant from the ſphere of the ſun, ſhould thus, if one may ſay ſo, keep time to his motion. The ſyſtem of Copernicus afforded this eaſily; and like a more ſimple machine, without the aſſiſtances of epicycles, connected together, by fewer movements, the complex appearances of the heavens. When the ſuperior planets appear nearly in conjunction with the ſun, they are then in the ſide of their orbits, which is almoſt oppoſite to, and moſt diſtant from, the earth, and therefore appear ſmalleſt and leaſt ſenſible to the eye. But as they then revolve in a direction which is almoſt contrary to that of the earth, they appear to advance forward with double velocity; as a ſhip that ſails in a contrary direction to another, appears from that other to ſail both with its own velocity and the velocity of that from which it is ſeen. On the contrary, when thoſe planets are in oppoſition to the ſun, they are on the ſame ſide of the ſun with the earth, are neareſt it, moſt ſenſible to the eye, and revolve in the ſame direction with it; but as their revolutions round the ſun are ſlower than that of the earth, they are neceſſarily left behind it, and therefore ſeem to revolve backwards; as a ſhip which ſails ſlower than another, though it ſails in the ſame direction, appears from that other to ſail backwards. After the ſame manner, by the ſame annual revolution of the earth, he connected together the direct and retrograde motions of the two inferior planets, as well as the ſtationary appearances of all the five.

"Thus far did this new account of things render the appearances of the heavens more completely coherent than had been done by any of the former ſyſtems. It did this, too, by a more ſimple and intelligible, as well as more beautiful machinery. It repreſented the ſun, the great enlightener of the univerſe, whoſe body was alone larger than all the planets taken together, as eſtabliſhed immoveable in the centre, ſhedding light and heat on all the worlds that circulated around him in one uniform direction, but in longer or ſhorter periods according to their different diſtances. It took away the diurnal revolution of the firmament, whoſe rapidity, upon the old hypotheſis, was beyond what even thought could conceive. It not only delivered the imagination from the embarraſſment of epicycles, but from the difficulty of conceiving theſe two oppoſite motions going on at the ſame time, which the ſyſtem of Ptolemy and Ariſtotle beſtowed upon all the planets; I mean, their diurnal weſtward, and periodical eaſtward revolutions. The earth's revolution round its own axis took away the neceſſity for ſuppoſing the firſt, and the ſecond was eaſily conceived when by itſelf. The five planets, which ſeem, upon all other ſyſtems, to be objects of a ſpecies by themſelves, unlike to every thing to which the imagination has been accuſtomed, when ſuppoſed to revolve along with the earth round the ſun, were naturally apprehended to be objects of the ſame kind with the earth, habitable, opaque, and enlightened only by the rays of the ſun. And thus this hypotheſis, by claſſing them in the ſame ſpecies of things, with an object that is of all others the moſt familiar to us, took off that wonder and uncertainty which the ſtrangeneſs and ſingularity of the appearance had excited; and thus far, too, better anſwered the great end of philoſophy.

"Neither did the beauty and ſimplicity of this ſyſtem alone recommend it to the imagination; the novelty and unexpectedneſs of that view of nature which it opened to the fancy, excited more wonder and ſurpriſe than the ſtrangeſt of thoſe appearances, which it had been invented to render natural and familiar, and theſe ſentiments ſtill more endeared it. For though it is the end of philoſophy to allay that wonder which either the unuſual or ſeemingly diſjointed appearances of nature excite, yet ſhe never triumphs ſo much as when, in order to connect together a few, in themſelves perhaps inconſiderable objects, ſhe has, if I may ſay ſo, created another conſtitution of things, more natural indeed, and ſuch as the imagination can more eaſily attend to, but more new, more contrary to common opinion and expectation, than any of thoſe appearances themſelves. As in the inſtance before us, in order to connect together ſome ſeeming irregularities in the motions of the planets, the moſt inconſiderable objects in the heavens, and of which the greater part of mankind have no occaſion to take any notice during the whole courſe of their lives, ſhe has, to talk in the hyperbolical language of Tycho Brahe, moved the earth from its foundations, ſtopt the revolution of the firmament, made the ſun ſtand ſtill, and ſubverted the whole order of the univerſe.

"Such were the advantages of this new hypotheſis, as they appeared to its author, when he firſt invented it. But though that love of paradox, ſo natural to the learned, and that pleaſure which they are ſo apt to take in exciting, by the novelty of their ſuppoſed diſcoveries, the amazement of mankind, may, notwithſtanding what one of his diſciples tells us to the contrary, have had its weight in prompting Copernicus to adopt this ſyſtem; yet when he had completed his Treatiſe of Revolutions, and began coolly to conſider what a ſtrange doctrine he was about to offer to the world, he ſo much dreaded the prejudice of mankind againſt it, that, by a ſpecies of continence of all others the moſt difficult to a philoſopher, he detained it in his cloſet for thirty years together. At laſt, in the extremity of old age, he allowed it to be extorted from him, but died as ſoon as it was printed, and before it was publiſhed."

COPERNICUS, the name of an aſtronomical inſtrument, invented by Mr Whiſton, to exhibit the motion and phenomena of the planets, both primary and ſecondary. It is built upon the Copernican ſyſtem, and for that reaſon called by his name.

COPHTI, COPHTS, or COPTI, a name given to the Chriſtians of Egypt, who are of the ſect of Jacobites.

The critics are extremely divided about the origin and orthography of the word; ſome write it Cophti, others Cophtites, Cophtitæ, Copts, &c. Scaliger derives the name from Coptos, an anciently celebrated town of Egypt, the metropolis of the Thebaid. Kircher refutes this opinion, and maintains, that the word originally ſignifies "cut" and "circumſcribed;" and

was

Cophti. was given these people by the Mahometans, by way of reproach, because of their practice of circumcising: but P. Sollier, another Jesuit, refutes this opinion. Scaliger afterwards changed his opinion, and derived the word from Αιγυπτος, the ancient name of Egypt, by retrenching the first syllable: but this opinion, too, P. Sollier disputes. John de Leo and others say, that the Egyptians anciently called their country *Elchibth*, or *Cibth*, from Cibth their first king, whence Cophtite, &c.; others say from Cobtim second king of Egypt. Vansleb derives the word Copht from Copt, son of Misraim, grandson of Noah. All these etymologies P. Sollier rejects, on this principle, that were they true, the Egyptians ought all equally to be called *Cophti;* whereas, in effect, none but the Christians, and among those none but the Jacobites, bear the name, the Melchites not being comprehended under it. Hence he chooses to derive the word from the name *Jacobite*, retrenching the first syllable; whence Cobite, Cobea, Copta, and Cophta.

The Cophts have a patriarch who resides at Cairo, but he takes his title from Alexandria: he has no archbishop under him, but 11 or 12 bishops. The rest of the clergy, whether secular or regular, is composed of the orders of St Anthony, St Paul, and St Macarius, who have each their monasteries. Besides the orders of priests, deacons, and subdeacons, the Cophts have likewise archimandrites, the dignity whereof they confer with all the prayers and ceremonies of a strict ordination. This makes a considerable difference among the priests; and besides the rank and authority it gives them with regard to the religious, it comprehends the degree and functions of archpriests. By a custom of 600 years standing, if a priest elected bishop be not already archimandrite, that dignity must be conferred on him before episcopal ordination. The second person among the clergy, after the patriarch, is the titular patriarch of Jerusalem, who also resides at Cairo, because of the few Cophts at Jerusalem; he is, in effect, little more than the bishop of Cairo: only he goes to Jerusalem every Easter, and visits some other places in Palestine near Egypt, which own his jurisdiction. To him belongs the government of the Cophtic church, during the vacancy of the patriarchal see.

To be elected patriarch, it is necessary the person have lived all his life in continence; it is he confers the bishoprics. To be elected bishop, the person must be in the celibate; or, if he has been married, it must not be above once. The priests and inferior ministers are allowed to be married before ordination; but are not obliged to it, as Ludolphus erroneously observes. They have a great number of deacons, and even confer the dignity frequently on children. None but the lowest rank among the people commence ecclesiastics; whence arises that excessive ignorance found among them; yet the respect of the laity towards the clergy is very extraordinary. Their office is longer than the Roman office, and never changes in any thing: they have three liturgies, which they vary occasionally.

The monastic life is in great esteem among the Cophts: to be admitted into it, there is always required the consent of the bishop. The religious Cophts make a vow of perpetual chastity; renounce the world, and live with great austerity in deserts; they are obliged to sleep in their clothes and their girdle, on a mat stretched on the ground; and to prostrate themselves every evening 150 times, with their face and breast on the ground. They are all both men and women, of the lowest class of the people; and live on alms. The nunneries are properly hospitals; and few enter but widows reduced to beggary.

F. Roderic reduces the errors and opinions of the Cophts to the following heads: 1. That they put away their wives, and espouse others while the first are living. 2. That they have seven sacraments, viz. baptism, the eucharist, confirmation, ordination, faith, fasting, and prayer. 3. That they deny the Holy Spirit to proceed from the Son. 4. That they only allow of three œcumenical councils; those of Nice, Constantinople, and Ephesus. 5. That they only allow of one nature, will, and operation, in Jesus Christ, after the union of the humanity with the divinity. For their errors in discipline, they may be reduced, 1. To the practice of circumcising their children before baptism, which has obtained among them from the 12th century. 2. To their ordaining deacons at five years of age. 3. To their allowing of marriage in the second degree. 4. To their forbearing to eat blood; to which some add their belief of a baptism by fire, which they confer by applying a hot iron to their forehead or cheeks. —Others palliate these errors, and show that many of them are rather abuses of particular persons than doctrines of the sect. This seems to be the case with regard to their polygamy, eating of blood, marrying in the second degree, and the baptism of fire; for circumcision, it is not practised as a ceremony of religion, nor as of any divine appointment, but merely as a custom, which they derive from the Ishmaelites; and which, perhaps, may have had its origin from a view to health and decency in those hot countries.

The Cophts, at different times, have made several reunions with the Latins; but always in appearance only, and under some necessity of their affairs. In the time of Pope Paul IV. a Syrian was dispatched to Rome from the patriarch of Alexandria, with letters to that pope; wherein he acknowledged his authority, and promised obedience; desiring a person might be dispatched to Alexandria, to treat about a reunion of his church to that of Rome; pursuant to which, Pius IV. successor to Paul, chose F. Roderic, a Jesuit, whom he dispatched in 1561, in quality of apostolical nuncio. But the Jesuit, upon a conference with two Cophts deputed for that purpose by the patriarch, was made to know, that the titles of father of fathers, pastor of pastors, and master of all churches, which the patriarch had bestowed on the pope in his letters, were no more than mere matters of civility and compliment; and that it was in this manner the patriarch used to write to his friends: they added, that since the council of Chalcedon, and the establishment of several patriarchs independent of one another, each was chief and master of his own church. This was the answer the patriarch gave the pope, after he had received a sum of money remitted to him from Rome, by the hands of the Venetian consul.

COPHTIC, or Coptic, the language of the Cophts, the ancient language of the Egyptians, mixed with

a great deal of Greek, the characters it is written in being all Greek. It has a form and construction peculiar to itself: it has no inflections of the nouns or verbs; but expresses number, case, gender, person, mood, tense, and possessive pronouns, by letters and particles prefixed.

F. Kircher is the first who published a grammar and vocabulary of the Cophtic. There is not known any book extant in the Cophtic, except translations of the Holy Scriptures, or of ecclesiastical offices; or others that have relation thereto, as dictionaries, &c.

The ancient Cophtic is now no longer found but in books; the language now used throughout the country is Arabic. The old Cophtic, which Kircher maintains to be a mother-tongue, and independent of all others, had been much altered by the Greeks: for besides that it has borrowed all its characters from the Greek, with a very little variation, a great number of the words are pure Greek. Vossius, indeed, asserts, that there was no Cophtic language till after Egypt became subject to the Arabs. The language, according to him, is a mixture of Greek and Arabic: the very name thereof not being in the world till after the Arabs were masters of the country. But this, M. Simon observes, proves nothing; except that what was anciently called *Egyptian*, has since by the Arabs been called *Cophtic*, by a corruption of speech. There are, it is true, Arabic words in the Cophtic; yet this by no means proves but that there was a language before that time, either Cophtic or Egyptian. Pietro de la Valle observes, that the Cophts have entirely lost their ancient tongue; that it is now no longer understood among them; that they have nothing extant therein but some sacred books; and that they still say mass in it.

All their other books have been translated into Arabic, which is their vulgar tongue; and this has occasioned the originals to be lost: it is added, that they rehearse the epistles and gospels in the mass twice; once in Arabic and once in Cophtic. Indeed, if we believe F. Vansleb, the Cophts say the mass in Arabic, all but the epistles and gospels, which they rehearse both in that and Cophtic.

Cophtic *Bible*. See Bible.

Cophtic *Liturgies* are three; one attributed to Basil, another to St Gregory, and the third to Cyril: they are translated into Arabic for the use of the priests and people.

COPIATA, under the western empire, a grave-digger. In the first ages of the church there were clerks destined for this employment. In the year 357 Constantine made a law in favour of the priests copiatæ, i. e. of those who had the care of interments; whereby he exempts them from the lustral contribution which all other traders paid. It was under him also that they first began to be called *copiatæ*, q. d. clerks destined for bodily labour, from κοπος, or κοπω *scindo, cedo, ferio*, "I cut, beat," &c. Before that time they were called *decani* and *lecticarii*; perhaps because they were divided by decades or tens, each whereof had a bier or litter for the carriage of the dead bodies. Their place among the clerks was the next in order before the chantors.

COPING *of a wall*, the top or cover of a wall, made sloping to carry off the water.

Coping over, in *Carpentry*, a sort of hanging over, not square to its upright, but bevelling on its under side till it end in an edge.

COPIST, in diplomatic science, signifies a transcriber or copier of deeds, books, &c.

COPPA, in *Law*, a cop or cock of grass, hay, or corn, divided into titheable portions; as the tenth cock, &c. This word in strictness denotes the gathering or laying up the corn in cops or heaps, as the method is for barley or oats, &c. not bound up, that it may be the more fairly and justly tithed: and in Kent they still retain the word, a *cop* or *cap* of hay, straw, &c.

COPPEL. See Cupel.

COPPER, one of the metals, called by the alchemists *Venus*, on account of its facility of uniting with a great number of different metallic substances. Its colour, when pure, is pale red, and its specific gravity from 8.7 to 9.3, which depends not only on its degree of purity, but also on its condensation by hammering. See Chemistry *Index*.

COPPERAS, a name given to the factitious sulphate of iron. See Chemistry *Index*.

COPPERPLATE. See Engraving.

COPPICE, or Copse, a little wood, consisting of under-woods, or such as may be raised either by sowing or planting.

COPTOS, in *Ancient Geography*, a famous trading town of the Thebais, inhabited by Egyptians and Arabs, some distance from the Nile; others place it in a small island in the Nile, on which, however, it had a port. Here Isis, on hearing of the death of Osiris, cut one of her locks, and put on mourning; and hence the name *Coptos*, signifying privation. A proof this of the antiquity of the place. And for this reason the Isiaci, or priests of Isis, were bald, according to Juvenal.

COPULATION, the act of generation, or the congress of the male and female, otherwise called *coition*. See Generation.

COPY, in a law sense, a transcript of a writing or instrument, made for the use and satisfaction of some of the parties concerned, or in order to preserve the memory thereof.

Copy is also used for an imitation of any original work; particularly a painting, draught, figure, &c.

Copy, among printers, denotes the manuscript or original of a book given to print from.

Copy-Hold, a tenure for which a tenant has nothing to show but the copy of the rolls made by the steward of the lord's court.

It is called a base tenure; because the tenant holds the land at the will of the lord. However, it is not simply at the will of the lord, but according to the custom of the manor by which such estate is descendible, and the tenant's heirs may inherit it; and a copy-holder, so long as he does his services, and does not break the custom, cannot be ejected by the lord; and if he be, he shall have trespass against him. See the articles Tenure and Villenage.

Copy-Holder, one who is admitted tenant of lands or tenements within a manor, which time out of mind, by use and custom of the manor, have been demisable, and demised to such as will take them in fee-simple, or fee-tail, for life, years, or at will, according to the custom

Copy-holder || Copy-right.

cuſtom of the manor by copy of court-roll; but is generally where the tenant has ſuch eſtate either in fee or for three lives.

COPY-Right, the right which an author may be ſuppoſed to have in his own original literary compoſitions; ſo that no other perſon, without his leave, may publiſh or make profit of the copies. When a man by the exertion of his rational powers has produced an original work, he has clearly a right to diſpoſe of that identical work as he pleaſes; and any attempt to take it from him, or vary the diſpoſition he has made of it, is an invaſion of his right of property. Now the identity of a literary compoſition conſiſts entirely in the ſentiment and the language; the ſame conceptions clothed in the ſame words, muſt neceſſarily be the ſame compoſition: and whatever method be taken of conveying that compoſition to the ear, or to the eye of another, by recital, by writing, or by printing, in any number of copies, or at any period of time, it is always the identical work of the author which is ſo conveyed; and no other man (it hath been thought) can have a right to convey or transfer it without his conſent, either tacitly or expreſsly given. This conſent may perhaps be tacitly given when an author permits his work to be publiſhed without any reſerve of right, and without ſtamping on it any marks of ownerſhip; it is then a preſent to the public, like the building of a church, or the laying out a new highway; but in caſe of a bargain for a ſingle impreſſion, or a total ſale or gift of the copy-right; in the one caſe the reverſion hath been thought to continue in the original proprietor; in the other the whole property, with its excluſive rights, to be perpetually transferred to the grantee. On the other hand, it is urged, that though the excluſive right of the manuſcript, and all which it contains, belongs undoubtedly to the owner before it is printed or publiſhed; yet from the inſtant of publication, the excluſive right of an author, or his aſſigns to the ſole communication of his ideas immediately vaniſhes and evaporates; as being a right of too ſubtile and unſubſtantial a nature to become the ſubject of property at the common law, and only capable of being guarded by poſitive ſtatute and ſpecial proviſions of the magiſtrate.

The Roman law adjudged, that if one man wrote any thing, though ever ſo elegantly, on the paper or parchment of another, the writing ſhould belong to the original owner of the materials on which it was written: meaning certainly nothing more thereby than the mere mechanical operation of writing, for which it directed the ſcribe to receive a ſatisfaction: eſpecially as, in works of genius and invention, ſuch as a picture painted on another man's canvas, the ſame law gave the canvas to the painter. We find no other mention in the law of any property in the works of the underſtanding, though the ſale of literary copies, for the purpoſes of recital or multiplication, is certainly as ancient as the times of Terence, Martial, and Statius. Neither with us in Britain hath there been (till very lately) any final determination upon the right of authors at the common law. It was determined in the caſe of *Miller* v. *Taylor*, in *B. R. Paſch.* 9 Geo. III. 1760, that an excluſive copy-right in authors ſubſiſted by the common law. But afterwards, in the caſe of *Donaldſon* v. *Becket*, before the houſe of lords, which was finally determined 22d February 1774, it was held, that no copy-right ſubſiſts in authors, after the expiration of the ſeveral terms created by the ſtatute 8 Ann. c. 19. This ſtatute declares, that the author and his aſſigns ſhall have the whole liberty of printing and reprinting his works for the term of 14 years, and no longer; and alſo protects that property by additional penalties and forfeitures; directing farther, that, if at the end of that term, the author himſelf be living, the right ſhall then return to him for another term of the ſame duration.

Copy-right || Cor-meille.

COQUES, GONZALO, an eſteemed painter of portraits and converſations, was born at Antwerp in 1618, and was a diſciple of the old David Ryckaert; under whoſe direction he applied himſelf diligently to cultivate thoſe promiſing talents which he poſſeſſed; not only by practiſing the beſt rules adminiſtered to him by his inſtructor, but alſo by ſtudying nature with ſingular attention. He was a great admirer of Vandyck; and fixing on the manner of that great artiſt as his model, had the happineſs of ſo far ſucceeding, that next to him he was eſteemed equal to any other painter of his time. In the ſchool of Ryckaert he had been accuſtomed to paint converſations, and he frequently compoſed ſubjects of fancy like Teniers, Oſtade, and his maſter; and by that habit he introduced a very agreeable ſtyle of portrait-painting, in a kind of hiſtorical converſation, which ſeemed much more acceptable to perſons of taſte than the general manner of painting portraits, and procured him great reputation and riches. In that way he compoſed ſeveral fine pictures for King Charles I. and likewiſe ſeveral for the archduke Leopold, and the prince of Orange; which latter prince, as a mark of reſpect, preſented Coques with a rich gold chain, and a gold medal, on which the buſt of that prince was impreſſed. He died in 1684. He had an excellent pencil; his portraits were well deſigned, with eaſy natural attitudes; he diſpoſed the figures in his compoſition ſo as to avoid confuſion or embarraſſment: he gave an extraordinary clearneſs of colour to his heads and hands; and his touch was free, firm, and broad, a circumſtance very uncommon in works of a ſmall ſize.

COQUIMBO, a port town of Chili, in South America, ſituated at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into the Pacific ocean. W. Long. 75. 10. N. Lat. 30. 8.

COR CAROLI, in *Aſtronomy*, an extra-conſtellated ſtar in the northern hemiſphere, ſituated between the *Coma Berenicis* and *Urſa major*, ſo called by Dr Halley in honour of King Charles.

COR-Hydræ, a fixed ſtar of the firſt magnitude, in the conſtellation of Hydra.

COR-Leonis, in *Aſtronomy*, a fixed ſtar of the firſt magnitude in the conſtellation Leo.

COR-Meille, a noted plant, common in the highlands of Scotland. Its roots dried are the ſupport of the highlanders in long journeys, amidſt the barren hills deſtitute of the ſupports of life; and a ſmall quantity, like the alimentary powders, will for a long time repel the attacks of hunger. Infuſed in liquor it is an agreeable beverage, and, like the nepenthe of the Greeks, exhilarates the mind. From the ſimilitude of

of ſound in the name, it ſeems to be the ſame with chara, the root diſcovered by the ſoldiers of Cæſar, at Dyrrhachium, which ſteeped in milk was ſuch a relief to the famiſhed army. Or we may reaſonably believe it to have been the Caledonian food deſcribed by Dio, of which the quantity of a bean would prevent both hunger and thirſt; and this, ſays the hiſtorian, they have ready for all occaſions.

CORACIAS, the ROLLER, a genus of birds of the order of picæ. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CORACO-BRACHIALIS, in *Anatomy*, the name of a muſcle in the arm, ſerving to raiſe it upwards.

CORACOIDES, in *Anatomy*, a ſmall ſhort proceſs of the ſcapula. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORACOMANTES, in antiquity, perſons who foretold events from their obſervations on crows.

CORALLINA, or CORAL, in *Zoology*, a genus belonging to the order of vermes zoophyta. See HELMINTHOLOGY *Index*.

CORAL FISHERY. Red coral is found in the Mediterranean, on the ſhores of Provence, from Cape de la Couronne to that of St Tropez; about the iſles of Majorca and Minorca; on the ſouth of Sicily; on the coaſts of Africa; and laſtly, in the Ethiopic ocean, about Cape Negro.

CORAL-Stone, a name for a kind of red and white agate which breaks in veins, and is found in Italy and ſome parts of Saxony. That of Rochlitz in Saxony is the moſt celebrated, and is found in globules which have a kind of cruſt about them.

CORALLINES, a genus belonging to the vermes zoophyta. See HELMINTHOLOGY *Index*.

CORALLODENDRON. See ERYTHRINA, BOTANY *Index*.

CORALLOIDES (FRUTICES). See ESCHARA and KERATOPHYTA.

CORAM, CAPTAIN THOMAS, a gentleman remarkably diſtinguiſhed by his humanity, was born about the year 1668, and ſpent the early part of his life in the ſtation of maſter of a veſſel trading to our colonies. Afterwards reſiding in the eaſtern part of the metropolis, among ſea-faring people, where buſineſs often obliged him to come early into the city, and return late, he frequently ſaw young children expoſed in the ſtreets through the indigence or cruelty of their parents. This excited his compaſſion, and induced him to project the foundation of an hoſpital for foundlings. In this humane deſign he laboured with indefatigable diligence for ſeventeen years; and by his application procured a number of the nobility and gentry to patronize and carry the ſcheme into execution, and at length obtained the royal charter for it. He was alſo highly inſtrumental in promoting the trade of America, by procuring a bounty upon naval ſtores imported from our colonies. He was likewiſe eminently concerned in ſetting on foot the colonies of Georgia and Nova Scotia. His laſt charitable deſign, in which he lived to make ſome progreſs, was a ſcheme for uniting the North American Indians more cloſely to the Britiſh intereſt, by an eſtabliſhment for the education of Indian girls. In ſhort, he ſpent the greateſt part of life in labouring for the public, and experienced a fate too common in thoſe who devote their talents to ſuch laudable purpoſes; being at laſt indebted for ſubſiſtence to the voluntary ſubſcriptions of ſome public-ſpirited perſons, at the head of whom was the late Frederic prince of Wales. Captain Coram died in 1751; and was interred, at his own deſire, in a vault under the chapel of the Foundling Hoſpital.

CORAN, or ALCORAN. See ALCORAN.

CORAX, the trivial name of a ſpecies of CORVUS. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CORANICH, among the Scotch and Iriſh, the cuſtom of ſinging at funerals, anciently prevalent in thoſe countries, and ſtill practiſed in ſeveral parts. Of this cuſtom Mr Pennant gives the following account. "I had not the fortune to be preſent at any in North Britain; but formerly aſſiſted at one in the ſouth of Ireland, where it was performed in the fulneſs of horror. The cries are called by the Iriſh the *ulogohne* and *hullulu*; two words very expreſſive of the ſound uttered on theſe occaſions; and being of Celtic ſtock, etymologiſts would ſwear to be the origin of the ολολυγων of the Greeks and *ululatus* of the Latins. Virgil is very fond of uſing the laſt whenever any of his females are diſtreſſed; as are others of the Roman poets, and generally on occaſions ſimilar to this. It was my fortune to arrive at a certain town in Kerry at the time that a perſon of ſome diſtinction departed this life; my curioſity led me to the houſe, where the funeral ſeemed conducted in the pureſt claſſical form.

Quodcunque aſpiceret luctus, gemituſque ſonabant,
Formaque non taciti funeris intus erat.

In ſhort, the *conclamatio* was ſet up by the friends in the ſame manner as Virgil deſcribes that conſequential of Dido's death;

Lamentis, gemituque, et fœmineo ululatu
Tecta fremunt.

Immediately after this followed another ceremony, fully deſcribed by Camden in his account of the manners of the ancient Iriſh; the earneſt expoſtulations and reproaches given to the deceaſed for quitting this world, where ſhe enjoyed ſo many bleſſings, ſo good a huſband, and ſuch fine children. This cuſtom is alſo of great antiquity, for Euryalus's mother makes the ſame addreſs to her dead ſon.

——Tunc illa ſenectæ
Sera meæ requies? potuiſti reliquere ſolam,
Crudelis?

But when the time approached for carrying out the corpſe, the cry was redoubled,

Tremulis ululatibus æthera complent;

a numerous band of femoles waiting in the outer court to attend the hearſe, and to pay in chorus the laſt tribute of their voices. The habit of this ſorrowing train, and the neglect of their perſons, were admirably ſuited to the occaſion; their robes were black and flowing, reſembling the ancient palla; their feet naked, their hair long and diſhevelled: I might truly ſay,

Ut qui conducti plorant in funera, dicunt
Et faciunt prope plura dolentibus exanimo.

The corpſe was carried ſlowly along the verge of a moſt beautiful lake, the ululatus was continued, and the

the whole procession ended among the venerable ruins of an old abbey."

CORBAN, in Jewish antiquity, were those offerings which had life, in opposition to the *minchab*, or those which had not. It is derived from the word *karab*, which signifies "to approach;" because the victims were brought to the door of the tabernacle. The corban were always looked upon as the most sacred offerings. The Jews are reproached with defeating, by means of the corban, the precept of the fifth commandment, which enjoins the respect due to parents. For when a child had no mind to relieve the wants of his father or mother, he would say to them, "It is a gift *(corban)* by whatsoever thou mightest be profited by me;" i. e. "I have devoted that to God which you ask of me, and it is no longer mine to give."

CORBAN is also a ceremony which the Mahometans perform at the foot of Mount Arrafat in Arabia, near Mecca. It consists in killing a great number of sheep, and distributing them among the poor.

CORBEILS, in *Fortification*, little baskets about a foot and a half high, eight inches wide at the bottom and twelve at the top; which being filled with earth, are frequently set one against another upon the parapet or elsewhere, leaving certain port holes, from whence to fire upon the enemy under covert without being seen by them.

CORBEL, in *Architecture*, the representation of a basket, sometimes seen on the heads of caryatides. The word is also used for the vase, or tambour, of the Corinthian column; so called from its resemblance to a basket, or because it was first formed on the model of a basket.

CORBEL, or *Corbil*, is also used, in building, for a short piece of timber placed in a wall, with its end sticking out six or eight inches, as occasion serves, in manner of a shouldering-piece. The under part of the end thus sticking out is sometimes cut into the form of a boultin; sometimes of an ogee, and sometimes of a face, &c. according to the workman's fancy; the upper side being plain and flat.

CORBEL is also used by some architects for a niche or hollow left in walls for images, figures, or statues to stand in.

CORBET, RICHARD, bishop of Norwich, and an eminent poet, was born at Ewell in Surrey, toward the latter end of the 16th century; and educated at Oxford, where he was esteemed one of the most celebrated wits of the university. Entering into holy orders, he became a popular preacher, and was made chaplain to King James I.: when, after several preferments in the church, he was, in 1629, made bishop of Oxford; and in 1632, was translated to the see of Norwich. He was very hospitable, and always a generous encourager of public designs. He died in 1635. There have been several editions of his poems published under the title of *Poemata Stromata*.

CORBEY, a town of Picardy in France, with a famous abbey of Benedictine monks. It is seated on the river Somme, 10 miles east of Amiens, and 75 north of Paris. E. Long. 2. 35. N. Lat. 49. 55.

CORCELET, in *Entomology*, is that part of the body of an insect which is analogous in its situation to the breast in other animals. Many have called it the breast in these also, but improperly; because the breast of other animals is the place of the lungs and trachea, but these organs are in the fly class distributed through the whole body.

CORCHORUS, a genus of plants belonging to the polyandria class; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Columneæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORCULUM, a diminutive from *cor* "the heart," little heart; the essence of a seed, and principle of life of the future plant, attached to and contained within the lobes. It consists of two parts, termed by Linnæus PLUMULA and ROSTELLUM. The former is the *radicula* of Grew and other naturalists. The corculum is in fact the embryo of the future vegetable; and is attached by two trunks of vessels to the lobes at their union. The first of its two parts mounts upward, and becomes the trunk. The other strikes into the ground, and is the rudiment of the root. The lobes and heart of the seed are distinctly visible in the bean, and other seeds of that class, especially after remaining some time in water or earth.

The principle of life is seated either at the summit or base of the seed. From this circumstance are constructed the two first classes in Cæsalpinus's method, containing trees and shrubs only.

CORCYRA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island in the Ionian sea, opposite to Thesprotia a district of Epirus, called *Scheria* and *Phæacia* by Homer. In Callimachus it is called *Drepane;* its most ancient name, according to the Scholiast, from the curvity of its figure. Famous for the shipwreck of Ulysses and the gardens of Alcinous. Now *Corfu*.

CORCYRA, a cognominal town of the island; formerly powerful, and capable of coping with mighty states; situated about the middle of the east side of the island, called *The Town of the Phæacians* by Homer. Now *Corfu*, from the Κορυφω of the middle age, the name of the citadel. It was a colony of the Corinthians. *Corcyræi*, the people. E. Long. 19. 48. Lat. 39. 50.

CORCYRA *Nigra*, an island in the Adriatic, on the coast of Dalmatia (Pliny); called *Melæna* by the Greeks, to distinguish it from the island in the Ionian sea. The epithet *Nigra* was added, from its woods of tall trees with which it is almost covered. Now *Curzola*.

CORD, or CHORD, an assemblage of several threads of hemp, cabled or twisted together by means of a wheel. See CORDAGE. The word comes from the Greek χορδη, which properly signifies an intestine or gut, of which cords may be made. See CHORD.

Magical CORD, an instrument in great use among the Laplanders, and by them supposed to be endued with a number of virtues. It is a cord or rope with three knots tied in it. They use many magical rites and ceremonies in the tying of this cord; and, when thus prepared, it is supposed to have power over the winds; and they will sell, by means of it, a good wind, or at least the promise of one, to a ship. If they untie only one of these knots, a moderate gale succeeds; if two, it is much stronger; and if three, a storm is sure to follow.

CORD *of Wood*, a certain quantity of wood for burning,

ing, ſo called becauſe formerly meaſured with a cord. The dimenſions of a ſtatute cord of wood are eight feet long, four feet high, and four feet broad.

CORD-*Wood*, is new wood, and ſuch as, when brought by water, comes on board a veſſel, in oppoſition to that which is floated.

CORDAGE, a term uſed in general, for all ſorts of cord, whether ſmall, middling, or great. See ROPE.

The naval cordage of the earlier ages was in all probability only thongs of leather. Theſe primitive ropes were retained by the Caledonians in the third century. The nations to the north of the Baltic had them in the ninth or tenth centuries: and the inhabitants of the weſtern iſles of Scotland make uſe of them at preſent; cutting the ſkin of a ſeal, or the raw and ſalted hide of a cow into long pieces, and faſtening the plough to their horſes with them, or even twiſting them into ſtrong ropes of 20 or 30 fathoms length. But theſe, in the ſouth of our iſland, and on the continent, were early ſuperſeded by the uſe of iron chains. The very maritime and commercial nation of the Veneti, that were ſo intimately connected with the Belgæ of Britain, uſed iron chains for their cables in the days of Cæſar. But in the more diſtant and refined countries of the ſouth, both thongs and theſe had long given place to the uſe of vegetable threads and the arts of combining them into ſtrength. In this manner the Greeks appear to have uſed the common ruſhes of their country, and the Carthaginians the ſpartum or broom of Spain. And as all the cordage of the Romans was made of theſe materials at their laſt deſcent on our iſland, ſo the art of manufacturing them would be neceſſarily introduced with the Roman ſettlements among the Britons. Under the direction of Roman artiſts their thongs of leather would naturally be laid aſide, and the junci, or ruſhes of the plains, worked up into cordage. And what remarkably coincides with this opinion is, that the remains of old cables and ropes are ſtill diſtinguiſhed among the Britiſh ſailors by the name of *old junk*.

The nations of Roman Britain, and the tribes of Caledonia and Ireland, had inherited, from their earlieſt anceſtors, many of the ruder arts of navigation. Their ſhips were large open boats, framed of light timbers ribbed with hurdles and lined with hides. Theſe were furniſhed with maſts and ſails. The latter were formed of hides, as the tackle was of thongs. They were actually of hides among the Veneti, as late as the days of Cæſar; and they were never furled but only bound to the maſt. But theſe ſlight ſea-boats, and their rude furniture, would ſoon be diſmiſſed by the provincials for the more ſubſtantial veſſels and more artificial ſails of the Romans. The Roman ſails, which were compoſed of flax in the days of Agricola, were afterwards made of hemp; and our own are therefore denominated *cannabis* or *canvas* by our mariners at preſent. And about the ſame period aſſuredly did the junk of the Britiſh cordage give way to the ſame materials; the uſe of hempen ropes upon land, and of hempen nets for hunting, being very common among the Romans in the firſt century.

CORDATED, an appellation frequently given by naturaliſts to things ſomewhat reſembling a heart.

CORDED, in *Heraldry*. A croſs corded, ſome authors take for a croſs wound or wrenched about with cords: others, with more probability, take it for a croſs made of two pieces of wood.

CORDELERAS, mountains of South America, otherwiſe called ANDES.

CORDELIER, a Franciſcan, or religious of the order of St Francis. The Cordeliers are clothed in thick gray cloth, with a little cowl, a chaperon, and cloak of the ſame; having a girdle of rope or cord tied with three knots; whence the name.—They are otherwiſe called *Minor Friars*, their original name. The denomination *Cordelier* is ſaid to have been firſt given them in the war of St Louis againſt the infidels; wherein the Friars Minor having repulſed the barbarians, and that king having inquired their name, it was anſwered, they were people *cordeliez*, "tied with ropes." The Cordeliers are to a man profeſſed Scoliſts.

CORDEMOI, GERALDE, a learned philoſopher and hiſtorian, born at Paris, made himſelf known to M. Boſſuet, who placed him about the dauphin in the quality of reader. He inſtructed that young prince with great aſſiduity; and in 1675 was received into the French academy. He wrote a general hiſtory of France during the firſt races of the French kings, in two vols; and ſix diſcourſes on the diſtinction between Body and Soul, which were printed together in 1702 in quarto. He died in 1684. M. Cordemoi followed the principles of Deſcartes.

CORDIA, a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the 41ſt order, *Aſperifoliæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORDIAL, in *Medicine*, whatever raiſes the ſpirits, and gives them a ſudden ſtrength and cheerfulneſs; as wine, ſpirits, the effluvia of flowers, fruit, and many other ſubſtances.

CORDON, in *Fortification*, a row of ſtones, made round on the outſide, and ſet between the wall of the fortreſs which lies aſlope, and the parapet which ſtands perpendicular, after ſuch a manner, that this difference may not be offenſive to the eye; whence the cordons ſerve only as an ornament, ranging round about the place, being only uſed in fortifications of ſtone-work: for in thoſe made with earth the void ſpace is filled up with pointed ſtakes.

CORDUBA, in *Ancient Geography*, an illuſtrious city of Bætica, on the right or north ſide of the Bætis. Built by Marcellus, according to Strabo; but which Marcellus is not ſo clear. It was the firſt colony ſent into thoſe parts by the Romans; and ſurnamed *Patricia*, becauſe at firſt inhabited by principal men, both of the Romans and natives. It is mentioned by Sil. Italicus in the ſecond Punic war; and hence it is probable the firſt Marcellus was the founder, and not the Marcellus engaged in the civil war between Cæſar and Pompey. It was famous for the birth of the two Senecas and of Lucan (Martial), and for its rich produce in oil (Statius, Martial). Still retaining its name a little altered. W. Long. 5. Lat. 37. 45.

CORDOUA, or CORDOVA, a city of Andaluſia in Spain, ſituated on the river Guadalquiver, in a very extenſive plain. The circumference is large, but it is not peopled in proportion to its extent, for there are

Cordova. a great many orchards and gardens within the walls. There are many ſuperb ſtructures, palaces, churches, and religious houſes; particularly the cathedral, which is very magnificent: It was formerly a moſque when the Moors poſſeſſed the town; for which reaſon it ſtill retains the name of *Mezquita*, which has the ſame meaning. The cathedral is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a-piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per annum; but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of eſcheats to the crown. The ſquare called the *Plaza Major* is ſurrounded with very fine houſes, under which are piazzas. The trade is flouriſhing on account of the river; and conſiſts of wine, ſilk, and Cordovan leather. In the neighbourhood of this place are a vaſt number of orange and lemon trees, which renders their fruits exceeding cheap. The beſt horſes in Spain come from hence.

Cordova was the ancient *Corduba* mentioned in the preceding article. After the fall of the Roman empire, it was ſubjected to the dominion of the Goths; but in the eighth century it was raiſed by the Mooriſh princes to a ſtate of ſplendour unequalled in any other part of the world. In the year 755, Abdoulrahman, only heir-male of the Ommiad line, having paſſed over from Africa at the head of a few deſperate followers, found means to raiſe a rebellion in Spain; when, after a battle fought on the banks of the Guadalquiver, in which he overthrew the lieutenant of the Abaſſid caliph of Damaſcus, he became king of all the Mooriſh poſſeſſions in the ſouth of Spain, and in 759 fixed his royal reſidence at Cordova. Then began thoſe flouriſhing ages of Arabian gallantry and magnificence which rendered the Moors of Spain ſuperior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and made Cordova one of the moſt ſplendid cities of the world. Agriculture and commerce proſpered under the happy ſway of this hero; and the face of the country was changed from a ſcene of deſolation, which the long wars and harſh government of the viceroys had brought on, into a moſt populous flouriſhing ſtate, exceeding in riches, number of inhabitants, activity, and induſtry, any prior or ſubſequent era of the Spaniſh hiſtory. He added new fortifications to the town, built himſelf a magnificent palace with delicious gardens, laid cauſeways through the marſhes, made excellent roads to open ready communication between the great towns, and in 786 began the great moſque which he did not live to finiſh.

During the courſe of two centuries, this court continued to be the reſort of all profeſſors of the polite arts, and of ſuch as valued themſelves upon their military and knightly accompliſhments; while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance, debaſed by brutality of manners, or diſtracted by ſuperſtitious diſputes. England, weakened by its heptarchy, was too inconſiderable even to be mentioned in the political hiſtory of the times. France, though it had a gleam of reputation under Charlemagne, was ſtill a barbarous unpoliſhed nation; and Italy was in utter confuſion; the frequent revolutions and change of maſters rendering it impoſſible for learning, or any thing good, to acquire a permanent footing in ſo unſtable a ſoil: Greece, though ſtill in poſſeſſion of the arts and luxury of ancient Rome, had loſt all vigour, and ſeemed abſorbed in the moſt futile of all purſuits, viz. that of ſcholaſtic argument and religious ſubtilities. Cordova.

The reſidence of the Ommiad caliphs was long conſpicuous for its ſupreme magnificence, and the crowds of learned men who were allured to it by the protection offered by its ſovereigns, the beauty of the country, the wholeſomeneſs of the climate, and the variety of pleaſures that returned inceſſantly in one enchanting round.

Cordova became the centre of politeneſs, induſtry, and genius. Tilts and tournaments, with other coſtly ſhows, were long the darling paſtimes of a wealthy happy people; and this was the only kingdom in the weſt where geometry, aſtronomy, and phyſic, were regularly ſtudied and practiſed. Muſic was no leſs honoured; for we find, that in 844 a famous muſician called *Ali Zeriab* came to ſettle at Cordova, and formed ſeveral pupils, who were ſuppoſed to equal the moſt celebrated performers that were ever known even in the Eaſt. That architecture was greatly encouraged, we need no other proof than the great and expenſive fabrics undertaken and completed by many of theſe Spaniſh monarchs. Whatever faults may be juſtly condemned in their manner by the connoiſſeur, accuſtomed to the chaſte noble graces of the Grecian proportions, certainly nobody can behold what remains of theſe Mooriſh edifices, without being ſtrongly impreſſed with a high idea of the genius of the artiſts, as well as the grandeur of the prince who carried their plans into execution.

The ſultans not only gave the moſt diſtinguiſhed protection to arts and ſciences, and to the perſons learned in any of them, but were themſelves eminently verſed in various branches of knowledge. Alkahem II. collected ſo immenſe a quantity of manuſcripts that before the end of his reign the royal library contained no leſs than 600,000 volumes, of which the very catalogue filled 40 huge folios. The univerſity of Cordova was founded by him, and under ſuch favourable auſpices roſe to the higheſt pitch of celebrity.

Abdoulrahman was ſucceeded by his ſon Hiſſem, whoſe paſſion for glory and architecture was not in the leaſt inferior to that of his father. He put the finiſhing hand to the moſque, which the plunder of the ſouthern provinces of France enabled him to complete in the courſe of a few years. The bridge over the Guadalquiver was a work of Hiſſem's after his own plan.

Alkahem ſucceeded Hiſſem.

Abdoulrahman II. was alſo paſſionately fond of building. He was the firſt that brought the ſupplies of water to Cordova by means of leaden pipes laid upon aqueducts of ſtone. The quantity was ſo conſiderable, that every part of the palace, the moſques, baths, ſquares, and public edifices, had all of them their fountains conſtantly playing. A great many of theſe works ſtill ſubſiſt. He paved the whole city, and erected ſeveral moſques.

After him reigned Mahomet Almundar, Abdallah, and Abdoulrahman III. who ſurpaſſed all his predeceſſors in ſplendor, riches, and expence. His ſubjects vied with each other in profuſion and magnificence. This monarch was ſucceeded by his ſon Alkahem II. who left a minor to ſucceed him, and the kingdom to be governed by the famous viſir Mahomet Abenamir, ſurnamed

named *Almanzor*, or "the defender," from his great victories and wise conduct. His descendants inherited from him the visirship, and a power as absolute as if they had been caliphs, until the weakness of the sovereigns encouraged, and the insolence of the ministers provoked, the grandees to disturb the state with their jealousies and dissensions. These broils occasioned such a series of civil war and anarchy, as overthrew the throne of Cordova, and destroyed the whole race of Abdoulrahman. Thus the glorious edifice, founded by the valour and prudence of that conqueror, and cemented by similar virtues in many of his successors, sunk into nothing as soon as the sceptre devolved upon weak enervated princes, whose indolence and incapacity transferred the management of every thing to a visir. Many petty kingdoms sprung up out of the ruins of this mighty empire; and the Christians soon found opportunities of destroying, by separate attacks, that tremendous power, which when united had proved an overmatch for their utmost force.

New CORDOUA, a considerable town of South America, in the province of Tucuman, with a bishop's see, 175 miles from St Jago. W. Long. 62. 5. S. Lat. 32. 10.

CORDOUAN, a famous pharos or light-house of France, in Guienne, at the mouth of the river Girond. The architecture is extremely fine; and it is placed there to hinder vessels from running on the sand-banks at the mouth of the river. W. Long. 1. 9. N. Lat. 45. 36.

CORDUS, VALERIUS, a learned botanist, was the son of Ericius Cordus, a physician and poet of Germany. Having learned the languages, he applied himself to the study of botany, in the prosecution of which he examined the mountains of Germany, and travelled into Italy; but being wounded in the leg by the kick of a horse, died at Rome in 1554. He wrote Remarks on Dioscorides, and other works.

CORDWAINERS, or CORDINERS, the term whereby the statutes denominate *shoemakers*. The word is formed from the French *cordonnier*, which Menage derives from *corduan*, a kind of leather brought from Cordoua, whereof they formerly made the upper leathers of their shoes. Others derive it from *corde*, "rope," because anciently shoes were made of cords; as they still are in some parts of Spain, under the name of *alpargates*. But the former etymology is better warranted; for, in effect, the French workmen who prepare the corduas are still called *cordouanniers*.

In Paris they have two pious societies under the title of *freres cordonniers*, "brothers shoemakers," established by authority towards the middle of the 17th century; the one under the protection of St Crispin*, the other of St Crispianus, two saints who had formerly honoured the profession. They live in community, and under fixed statutes and officers; by which they are directed both in their spiritual and secular concerns. The produce of their shoes goes into a common stock, to furnish necessaries for their support; the rest to be distributed among the poor.

* See *Crispin*.

COREA, a peninsula lying to the north-east of China, between 99 and 109 degrees of E. Long. and between 32 and 46 of N. Lat. It is divided into 8 provinces, which contain 40 cities of the 1st rank, 51 of the 2d, and 70 of the 3d. The capital of the whole is Han-ching, where the king resides. The Jesuits say, the people are well made, of a sweet and tractable disposition, and fond of learning, music, and dancing, and in general resemble the Chinese. The houses are mean, being covered with thatch; and they have no beds, but lie on the floor. They have little silk, and therefore make use of linen cloth in its room. Their trade consists in white paper, pencils, ginseng, gold, silver, iron, yellow varnish, fowls whose tails are three feet long, horses no more than three feet in height, sable skins, castor, and mineral salt. In general it is a fertile country, though abounding in mountains. It is tributary to China.

M. Grosier relates an observation concerning the natural history of Corea, which, in his opinion, furnishes a new proof of the revolutions which the surface of our globe has undergone. An ancient Chinese book asserts, that the city where Kipe, the king of Corea, established his court, was built in a place which forms at present a part of the territories of *Yong-ping-fou*, a city of the first class in the province of Petcheli. "If this (says he) be admitted as a fact, we may from thence conclude, that these territories formerly belonged to Corea; and that the gulf of Lea-tong, which at present separates this kingdom from the province of Petcheli, did not then exist, and that it has been formed since; for it is not probable that the sovereign would have fixed his residence without the boundaries of his kingdom, or in a place where he was separated from it by a wide and extensive sea. This conjecture is confirmed by certain facts admitted by the Chinese. Thus when *Ya*, surnamed the *Great*, undertook to drain and carry off the waters which had inundated the low grounds of several provinces, he began by the river Hoang-ho, the overflowing of which caused the greatest devastation. He went in search of its source to the bosom of Tartary, from whence he directed its course across the provinces of Chan-si, Chen-si, Honan, and Petcheli. Towards its mouth, in order to weaken the rapidity of its waters, he divided them into nine channels, through which he caused the river discharge itself into the eastern sea near the mountain of *Kie-che-chan*, which then formed a promontory. Since that time to the present, that is, about 3950 years, the river Hoang-ho has departed so much from its ancient course, that its mouth at present is about six degrees farther south. We must also remark, that the mountain Kie-che-chan, which was formerly united to the main land of Yong-ping-fou, stands at present in the sea at the distance of about 50 leagues to the south of that city. If the sea has been able to cover with its waters that extent of territory which at present forms part of the gulf of Lea-tong, may we not be allowed to suppose that like inundations may have formed successively the whole of that gulf, the ancient existence of which seems so ill to agree with the residence of the kings of Corea in the territory of Yong-ping-fou? It is true, the Chinese history makes no mention of so considerable a physical revolution: but it is equally silent with regard to the 500 *lys* (50 leagues) extent of ground which is at present covered by the sea beyond the mountains of Kie-che-chan. Besides, of all the changes which the surface of our globe experiences, those only are

Corea.

are mentioned in hiſtory, which happen ſuddenly, and which conſequently make more impreſſion on the minds of men.

Corea chiefly produces wheat, rice, and ginſeng, with a kind of palm tree which yields a gum capable of producing a yellowiſh varniſh little inferior to gilding. Hence alſo are exported caſtor and ſable ſkins; alſo gold, ſilver, iron, and foſſil ſalt; a kind of ſmall bruſhes for painting, made of the hair of a wolf's tail, are likewiſe manufactured here, which are exported to China and highly eſteemed there. The ſea coaſts abound in fiſh, and great numbers of whales are found there every year towards the north-eaſt. Several of theſe, it is ſaid, have in their bodies the harpoons of the French and Dutch, from whom they have eſcaped in the northern extremities of Europe; which ſeems to indicate a paſſage from the European into the Aſiatic ſeas round the continents of Europe and Aſia.

A conſiderable quantity of the paper of Corea is annually imported into China; indeed the tribute due to the emperor is partly paid with it every year. It is made of cotton, and is as ſtrong as cloth, being written upon with a ſmall hair-bruſh or pencil; but muſt be done over with alum-water before it can be written upon in the European manner. It is not purchaſed by the Chineſe for writing, but for filling up the ſquares of their ſaſh windows; becauſe, when oiled, it reſiſts the wind and rain better than that of China. It is uſed likewiſe as wrapping paper; and is ſerviceable to the tailors, who rub it between their hands until it becomes as ſoft and flexible as the fineſt cotton cloth, inſtead of which it is often employed in lining clothes. It has alſo this ſingular property, that if it be too thick for the purpoſe intended, it may be eaſily ſplit into two or three leaves, each of which is even ſtronger than the beſt paper of China.

The Coreans are well made, ingenious, brave, and, tractable; are fond of dancing, and ſhow great docility in acquiring the ſciences, to which they apply with great ardour, and which they honour in a particular manner. The northern Coreans are larger ſized and more robuſt than thoſe of the ſouth; have a taſte for arms, and become excellent ſoldiers. Their arms are croſsbows and long ſabres. Men of learning are diſtinguiſhed from other claſſes of people by two plumes of feathers in their caps; and when merchants preſent the Coreans with any books for ſale, they dreſs themſelves in the richeſt attire, and burn perfumes before they treat concerning the price.

The Coreans mourn three years, as in China, for a father or mother: but the time of mourning for a brother is confined to three months. Their dead are not interred until three years after their deceaſe; and when the ceremony of interment is performed, they place around the tomb the clothes, chariot, and horſes of the deceaſed, with whatever elſe he ſhowed the greateſt fondneſs for while alive; all which they leave to be carried off by the aſſiſtants. Their houſes, as in China, conſiſt only of one ſtory, and are very ill built; in the country being compoſed of earth, and in cities generally of brick, but all thatched with ſtraw; the walls of their cities are conſtructed after the Chineſe manner, with ſquare turrets, battlements, and arched gates. Their writing, dreſs, religious ceremonies, and creed, as well as the greater part of their cuſtoms, are borrowed from the Chineſe. Their women, however, are leſs confined, and have the liberty of appearing in public with the other ſex, for which they are often ridiculed by their neighbours. They differ from the Chineſe alſo in their ceremonies of marriage, and in the manner of contracting it; the parties in this country taking the liberty to chooſe for themſelves, without conſulting the inclinations of their parents, or ſuffering them to throw any obſtacles in their way.

Corea || Corelli.

COREIA, in antiquity, a feſtival in honour of Proſerpine, named *Core*, Κόρη, which, in the Moloſſian dialect ſignifies a beautiful woman.

CORELLI, Arcangelo, the famous Italian muſician and compoſer, a native of Fuſignano, in the territory of Bologna, was born in 1653. He entertained an early propenſity to the violin; and as he advanced in years, laboured inceſſantly in the practice of that inſtrument. About the year 1672, his curioſity led him to viſit Paris, probably with a view to attend the improvements which were making in muſic under the influence of Cardinal Mazarin, and in conſequence of the eſtabliſhment of a royal academy; but notwithſtanding the character which he brought with him, he was driven back to Rome by Lully, whoſe jealous temper could not brook ſo formidable a rival as this illuſtrious Italian. In the year 1680 he viſited Germany, and met with a reception ſuitable to his merit from moſt of the German princes, particularly the elector of Bavaria; in whoſe ſervice he was retained, and continued for ſome time. After about five years ſtay abroad, he returned again to Rome, and there purſued his ſtudies with great aſſiduity.

The proficiency of Corelli on his favourite inſtrument the violin was ſo great, that the fame of it ſpread throughout Europe. The ſtyle of his performance was learned, elegant, and pathetic; and his tone firm and even. Mr Geminiani, who was well acquainted with, and had ſtudied it, uſed to reſemble it to a ſweet trumpet. A perſon who had heard him perform ſays, that whilſt he was playing on the violin, it was uſual for his countenance to be diſturbed, his eyes to become as red as fire, and his eye-balls to roll as in agony.

Corelli was highly favoured by that great patron of poetry and muſic, Cardinal Ottoboni. Creſcembini ſays that he regulated the muſical academy held at the palace of his eminence every Monday afternoon. Here it was that Mr Handel became acquainted with him; and in this academy a ſerenata of Mr Handel, entitled *Il Trionfo del Tempo*, was performed, the overture to which was in a ſtyle ſo new and ſingular, that Corelli was confounded in his firſt attempt to play it.

During the reſidence of Corelli at Rome, beſides thoſe of his own country, many perſons were ambitious of becoming his diſciples, and learning the practice of the violin from the greateſt maſter on that inſtrument the world had then heard of. Of theſe it is ſaid the late Lord Edgecumbe was one: and that the fine mezzotinto print of Corelli by Smith was ſcraped from a picture painted by Mr Hugh Howard at Rome for that nobleman.

Corelli died at Rome in 1713; and was buried in the church of the Rotunda, otherwiſe called the Pantheon,

Corelli.

theon, in the first chapel on the left hand of the entrance. Over the place of his interment is a sepulchral monument to his honour, with a marble bust thereon, erected at the expence of Philip William, count palatine of the Rhine, under the care and direction of Cardinal Ottoboni.

For many years after his decease, this excellent musician was commemorated by a solemn musical performance in the Pantheon, on the anniversary of his death. In the year 1730 an eminent master, now living, was present at that solemnity, who relates that at it the third and eighth of his concertos were performed by a numerous band, among whom were many who had been the pupils of the author. He adds, that these two pieces were performed in a slow, distinct, and firm manner, without graces, and just as they are wrote; and from hence concludes, that this was the manner in which they were played by the author himself.

He died possessed of about 6000l. sterling. He was a passionate admirer of pictures, and lived in an uninterrupted friendship with Carlo Cignani and Carlo Marat: these two eminent painters were rivals for his favour; and for a series of years presented him at times with pictures, as well of other masters as of their own painting. The consequence was, that Corelli became possessed of a large and valuable collection of original paintings; all which, together with the sum abovementioned, he bequeathed to his dear friend and patron Cardinal Ottoboni, who, reserving the pictures to himself, generously distributed the rest of his effects among the relations of the testator.

Corelli is said to have been remarkable for the mildness of his temper and the modesty of his deportment; nevertheless, he was not insensible of the respect due to his skill and exquisite performance. Cibber, in the Apology for his Life, p. 340. relates, that when he was playing a solo at Cardinal Ottoboni's, he discovered the cardinal and another person engaged in discourse, upon which he laid down his instrument; and being asked the reason, gave for answer, that he feared the music interrupted their conversation.

The compositions of Corelli are celebrated for the harmony resulting from the union of all the parts; but the fineness of the airs is another distinguishing characteristic of them: the allemand in the 10th solo is as remarkable for spirit and force, as that in the 11th is for its enchanting delicacy: his jigs are in a style peculiarly his own; and that in the 5th solo was never equalled. In the gavot movements in the 2d and 4th operas, the melody is distributed with great judgment among the several parts. In his minuets alone he seems to fail; Bononcini, Mr Handel, and Guiseppe Martini, have excelled him in this kind of airs.

It is said there is in every nation a style, both in speaking and writing, which never becomes obsolete; a certain mode of phraseology, so consonant and congenial to the analogy and principles of its respective language, as to remain settled and unaltered. This, but with much greater latitude, may be said of music; and accordingly it may be observed of the compositions of Corelli, not only that they are equally intelligible to the learned and unlearned, but that the impressions made by them have been found to be as durable as general. His music is the language of nature; and, for a series of years, all that heard it became sensible of its effects: of this there cannot be a stronger proof than that, amidst all the innovations which the love of change had introduced, it continued to be performed, and was heard with delight, in churches, in theatres, at public solemnities and festivities, in all the cities of Europe, for near 40 years. Men remembered, and would refer to passages in it as to a classic author; and even at this day, the masters of the science do not hesitate to pronounce of the compositions of Corelli, that, of fine harmony and elegant modulation, they are the most perfect exemplars.

Corelli || Corfu.

COREOPSIS, Tickseeded Sunflower; a genus of plants belonging to the syngenesia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CORFE castle, a borough-town in Dorsetshire in England, which takes its name from a strong castle, belonging to the crown, that stood there, but which is now in ruins. It sends two members to parliament. W. Long. 2. 8. N. Lat. 50. 33.

CORFU, an island in the Ionian sea, at the mouth of the gulf of Venice, formerly called *Corcyra* and *Phæacia*, famous for the gardens of Alcinous. It belongs at present to the Venetians; and forms the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks, who have often attempted to reduce it, but without success. It is well fortified, and has 50 castles; and the number of the inhabitants is said to be about 50,000. The inhabitants are of the Greek church; and the Venetians send them a governor and magistrates, which are changed every two years. The soil is very fruitful, and produces a great deal of wine, olives, and several other fruits, particularly figs, which are exceedingly good. The chief city is likewise called *Corfu*: see the following article.

Corfu, a city of the island of that name, belonging to the Venetians. It is a large place, strongly fortified, and defended by a garrison of about 10,000 men; which, however, in the opinion of a late traveller, do not appear adequate to the extent of the fortifications. A number of very excellent brass and iron cannon are mounted on the different forts, which, he observes, are so divided, that it would take treble the number of their garrison to defend them. However, the republic of Venice is generally at peace with the different European nations, and the ancient power of the Turks being much decayed, they have little to apprehend; though to prevent any sudden surprise, the Venetians keep a formidable squadron in the harbour of Corfu, and the works have been much improved by Major-General Paterson.—In the late war they had with the Turks, this town was attacked by an army of 80,000 men, and attempted to be stormed several times by the enemy; but the garrison, which consisted of 12,000 men, under the command of Count Schulenburg, made so brave and gallant a defence, that they always repulsed them, and obliged them to raise the siege, and abandon the place with considerable loss. For this piece of service the republic has caused a magnificent statue to be erected in memory of the count, with an elegant Latin inscription, setting forth the many eminent services of his military atchievements. The circumference of the city is about four miles; the number of inhabitants

inhabitants on the whole island is computed at about 50,000, the greatest part of whom are Greeks.

This island is the residence of the governor general, whose jurisdiction extends over all the islands subject to the republic of Venice, in the Levant seas, and is considered as one of the greatest honours they can confer on a subject. He is always a nobleman of the first rank, and has his appointment for three years only, in which time he makes a tolerable addition to his fortune, and on his return to Venice is generally advanced to the honours of the senate. In the city are many handsome Greek churches, the principal of which is that of St Speridione, or the cathedral. It is embellished with some excellent paintings, and most superbly ornamented. The body of the saint from whom it was named, is preserved entire in a rich shrine within the church. The Greeks are most of them such fanatics as to be continually offering their devotions at this shrine, believing that through the intercession of the saint they will obtain all their wants; and that by offerings of money their sins will be forgiven them; by which means the church has amassed an immense treasure. The relic of the saint is deposited in a silver coffin, richly decorated with precious stones. It is in an amazing state of preservation: he having died in the island of Cyprus upwards of 700 years ago; and after remaining 400 years there, was transported to this place.—Besides the grand fleet, the Venetians have another of galleys, that are manned by convicts whose crimes are not of such a nature as to merit death. The chief diversions of this place in the winter are operas; they have always a company of comedians for the season from Naples. In the summer they pass their time in walking upon the ramparts; few except the governor and great officers of state are permitted to keep carriages. The Corfu people perfectly resemble the Zanteots in their manners (see ZANTE); though it must be observed, in praise of the former, that assassinations are uncommon among them, their laws being too severe to permit such practices with impunity. E. Long. 19. 48. N. Lat. 39. 50.

CORIA, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Leon and province of Estremadura, towards the confines of Portugal, with a bishop's see. It is seated on a little river called *Alagon*, in a very fertile plain. There is nothing remarkable but the cathedral church, except at a little distance a river without a bridge, and a bridge without a river. This was caused by an earthquake, which turned the river another way. W. Long. 6. 46. N. Lat. 39. 59.

CORIANDRUM, CORIANDER; a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria class; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORIARIA, *Tanners* or *Myrtle-leafed* SUMACH; a genus of plants belonging to the diœcia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 54th order, *Miscellaneæ*. See BOTANY *Index*. This plant is much used in the south of France, where it grows naturally, for tanning of leather, whence its name of *tanner's sumach*. It also dyes a beautiful black colour.

CORIDOR, or CORRIDOR, in *Fortification*, a road or way along the edge of the ditch, without side; encompassing the whole fortification. The word comes from the Italian *coridore*, or the Spanish *coridor*.

It is also called the *covert-way*, because covered with a glacis, or esplanade, serving it as a parapet.—The coridor is about 20 yards broad.

CORIDOR is also used in architecture for a gallery or long aisle around a building, leading to several chambers at a distance from each other, sometimes wholly inclosed, and sometimes open on one side.

CORINNA, a Grecian lady, celebrated for her beauty and poetic talents, was born at Thessu, a city of Bœotia, and was the disciple of Myrtis another Grecian lady. Her verses were so esteemed by the Greeks, that they gave her the name of the *lyric muse*. She lived in the time of Pindar, about 495 years before Christ; and is said to have gained the prize of lyric poetry from that poet; but Pausanias observes that her beauty made the judges partial.

CORINTH, a celebrated city of antiquity, for some time the most illustrious of all the Greek cities. It is said to have been founded 1514 years before Christ, by Sisyphus the son of Æolus, and grandfather of Ulysses. Various reasons are given for its name, but most authors derive it from *Corinthus* the son of Pelops. It was situated on the south part of the isthmus which joins the Peloponnesus, now the Morea, to the continent. It consisted of a citadel built upon an eminence, and thence named *Acrocorinthus*; besides which it had two maritime towns subject to it, named *Lechæum* and *Cenchreæ*. The whole state extended scarce half a degree in length or breadth; but so advantageously were the above-mentioned ports situated, that they might have gained the Corinthians a superiority, if not a command, over all Greece, had not their advantageous situation inclined them to commerce rather than war. For their citadel was almost impregnable; and commanding both the Ionian and Ægean seas, they could easily cut off all communication from one half of Greece with the other; for which reason this city was called one of the fetters of Greece.

But as the genius of the Corinthians led them to commerce rather than martial exploits, their city became the finest in all Greece. It was adorned with the most sumptuous buildings, as temples, palaces, theatres, porticoes, &c. all of them enriched with a beautiful kind of columns, which from the city were called *Corinthian*. But though the Corinthians seldom or never engaged in a war with a view of enlarging but rather of defending their little state, they did not forget to cultivate a good discipline both in time of peace and of war. Hence many brave and experienced generals have been furnished by Corinth to the other Grecian cities, and it was not uncommon for the latter to prefer a Corinthian general to any of their own.

This city continued to preserve its liberty till the year before Christ 146, when it was pillaged and burnt by the Romans. It was at that time the strongest place in the world: but the inhabitants were so disheartened by a preceding defeat, and the death of their general, that they had not presence of mind enough even to shut their gates. The Roman consul Mummius, was so much surprised at this, that at first he could scarce believe it; but afterwards fearing an ambuscade, he advanced with all possible caution. As he met with no resistance, his soldiers had nothing to do but destroy

Corinth.

ſtroy the few inhabitants that had not fled, and plunder the city. Such of the men as had ſtaid were all put to the ſword, and the women were ſold for ſlaves. After this the city was ranſacked by the greedy ſoldiers, and the ſpoils of it are ſaid to have been immenſe. There were more veſſels of all ſorts of metal, more fine pictures and ſtatues done by the greateſt maſters, in Corinth, than in any other city in the world. All the princes of Europe and Aſia who had any taſte in painting and ſculpture furniſhed themſelves here with the richeſt moveables: here were caſt the fineſt ſtatues for temples and palaces, and all the liberal arts brought to their greateſt perfection. Many ineſtimable pieces of the moſt famous painters and ſtatuaries fell into the hands of the ignorant ſoldiers, who either deſtroyed them, or parted with them for a trifle. Polybius the hiſtorian was an eye witneſs to this barbariſm of the Romans. He had the mortification to ſee two of them playing at dice on a famous picture of Ariſtides, which was accounted one of the wonders of the world. The piece was a Bacchus, ſo exquiſitely done, that it was proverbially ſaid of any extraordinary performance, "It is as well done as the *Bacchus of Ariſtides*." This maſterly piece of painting, however, the ſoldiers willingly exchanged for a more convenient table to play upon. But when the ſpoils of Corinth were put up to ſale, Attalus king of Pergamus offering for it 600,000 ſeſterces, near 5000l. of our money, Mummius was ſurpriſed at ſuch a high price offered for a picture, and imagined there muſt be ſome magical virtue in it. He therefore interpoſed his authority, and carried it to Rome, notwithſtanding the complaints of Attalus. Here this famous picture was lodged in the temple of Ceres, where it was at laſt deſtroyed by fire, together with the temple. Another extraordinary inſtance of the ſtupidity of Mummius is, that when the pictures were put on board the tranſports, he told the maſters of the veſſels very ſeriouſly, that if any of the things were either loſt or ſpoiled, he would oblige them to find others at their own coſt; as if any other pieces could have ſupplied the loſs of thoſe ineſtimable originals, done by the greateſt maſters in Greece. When the city was thoroughly pillaged, fire was ſet to all the corners of it at the ſame time. The flames grew more violent as they drew near the centre, and at laſt uniting there made one prodigious conflagration. At this time the famous metalline mixture is ſaid to have been made, which could never afterwards be imitated by art. The gold, ſilver, and braſs, which the Corinthians had concealed, were melted, and ran down the ſtreets in ſtreams, and when the flames were extinguiſhed, a new metal was found, compoſed of ſeveral different ones, and greatly eſteemed in after ages.

The town lay deſolate until Julius Cæſar ſettled there a Roman colony; when, in moving the rubbiſh and digging, many vaſes were found of braſs or earth finely emboſſed. The price given for thoſe curioſities excited induſtry in the new inhabitants. They left no burying-place unexamined; and Rome, it is ſaid, was filled with the furniture of the ſepulchres of Corinth.

Strabo was at Corinth ſoon after its reſtoration by the Romans. He deſcribes the ſite as follows. "A lofty mountain, in perpendicular height as much as three ſtadia and a half (near half a mile), the aſcent 30 ſtadia ($3\frac{1}{4}$ miles), ends in a pointed ſummit called *Acrocorinthus*. Of this the portion to the north is the moſt ſteep: beneath which lies the city on a level area at the foot of the Acrocorinthus. The circuit of the city alone has been 40 ſtadia (5 miles), and as much of it as was unſheltered by the mountain has been walled about. Within the incloſure was comprehended alſo the Acrocorinthus, where the mountain was capable of receiving a wall; and as we aſcended, the veſtiges were plain; ſo that the whole circumference exceeded 85 ſtadia (near 11 miles). On the other ſides, the mountain is leſs ſteep, but riſes very high, and is viſible all around. Upon the ſummit is a ſmall temple of Venus; and below it the ſpring Pirene, which does not overflow, but is always full of pellucid and potable water. They ſay it unites with ſome other hidden veins, and forms the ſpring at the mountain foot, running into the city, and affording a ſufficient ſupply for the uſe of the inhabitants. In the city is plenty of wells, and in the Acrocorinthus, as they ſay, for we did not ſee any. There, they relate, the winged horſe Pegaſus was taken as he was drinking, by Bellerophon. Below Pirene is the Siſypheum, ſome temple or palace of white ſtone, the remains not inconſiderable. From the ſummit is beheld to the north Parnaſſus and Helicon, lofty mountains covered with ſnow; and below both, to the weſt, the Criſſean gulf bounded by Phocis, by Bœotia and the Megaris, and by Corinthia and Sicyonia oppoſite to Phocis. Beyond all theſe are the mountains called the *Oneian*, ſtretching as far as Bœotia and Cithæron from the Scironian rocks on the road to Attica." Strabo ſaw likewiſe Cleon from thence. Cenchreæ was then a village. Lechæum had ſome inhabitants.

New Corinth had flouriſhed 217 years when it was viſited by Pauſanias. It had then a few antiquities, many temples and ſtatues, eſpecially about the agora or market-place, and ſeveral baths. The emperor Hadrian introduced water from a famous ſpring at Stymphalus in Arcadia; and it had various fountains alike copious and ornamental. The ſtream of one iſſued from a dolphin, on which was a brazen Neptune; of another from the hoof of Pegaſus, on whom Bellerophon was mounted. On the right hand, coming along the road leading from the market-place toward Sicyon, was the odeum and the theatre, by which was a temple of Minerva. The old gymnaſium was at a diſtance. Going from the market-place toward Lechæum was a gate on which were placed Phæton and the Sun in gilded chariots. Pirene entered a fountain of white marble, from which the current paſſed in an open channel. They ſuppoſed the metal called *Corinthin braſs* to have been immerged while red hot in this water. On the way up to the Acrocorinthus were temples, ſtatues, and altars; and the gate next Tenea, a village with a temple of Apollo, ſixty ſtadia, or ſeven miles and a half diſtant, on the road to Mycenæ. At Lechæum was a temple and a brazen image of Neptune. At Cenchreæ were temples; and by the way from the city a groove of cypreſs trees, ſepulchres, and monuments. Oppoſite was *the Bath of Helen*, water tepid and ſalt, flowing plentifully from a rock into the ſea. Mummius had ruined the

Corinth. the theatre of Corinth, and the munificence of the great Athenian Atticus Herodes was displayed in an edifice with a roof inferior to few of the most celebrated structures in Greece.

The Roman colony was reserved to suffer the same calamity as the Greek city, and from a conqueror more terrible than Mummius, Alaric the savage destroyer of Athens and universal Greece. In a country harassed with frequent wars, as the Peloponnesus has since been, the Acrocorinthus was a post too consequential to be neglected. It was besieged and taken in 1456 by Mahomet II.: the despots or lords of the Morea, brothers of the Greek emperor who was killed in defending Constantinople, refusing payment of the arrears of the tribute, which had been imposed by Sultan Mórat in 1447. The country became subject to the Turks, except such maritime places as were in the possession of the Venetians; and many of the principal inhabitants were carried away to Constantinople. Corinth, with the Morea, was yielded to the republic at the conclusion of the war in 1698, and again by it to the Turks in 1715.

Corinth retains its old name, and is of considerable extent, standing on a high ground, beneath the Acrocorinthus, with an easy descent towards the gulf of Lepanto; the houses scattered, or in parcels, except in the bazar or market-place. Cypresses, among which tower the domes of mosques, with corn-fields, and gardens of lemon and orange trees, are interspersed. The air is reputed bad in summer, and in autumn exceedingly unhealthy. Wheler relates, that from the top of the Acrocorinthus or citadel, he enjoyed one of the most agreeable prospects which this world can afford. He guessed the walls to be about two miles in compass, inclosing mosques, with houses and churches mostly in ruins. An hour was consumed in going up on horseback. It was a mile to the foot of the hill; and from hence the way was very steep, with many traverses. The families living below were much infested by corsairs, and on every alarm flocked up to the castle.

According to Dr Chandler, Corinth has preserved but few monuments of its Greek or Roman citizens. The chief remains, he informs us, are at the southwest corner of the town, and above the bazar or market; 11 columns supporting their architraves, of the Doric order, fluted, and wanting in height near half the common proportion to the diameter. Within them, towards the western end, is one taller, though not entire, which, it is likely, contributed to sustain the roof. They have been found to be stone, not marble; and appeared brown, perhaps from a crust formed on the outside. The ruin he judges to be of very remote antiquity, and a portion of a fabric erected not only before the Greek city was destroyed, but before the Doric order had attained to maturity. He suspects it to have been the Sisypheum mentioned by Strabo. North of the bazar stands a large mass of brick-work, a remnant, it may be conjectured, of a bath, or of the gymnasium.

The inhabitants are most of them Christians of the Greek church, who are allowed liberty of conscience by the Turks. E. Long. 28. 13. N. Lat. 38. 14.

CORINTH, *the isthmus of*, in the Morea, is a neck of land which joins the Morea to Greece, and reaches from the gulf of Lepanto to that of Egina. Julius Cæsar, Caligula, and Nero, attempted to cut a channel through it, but in vain; and they therefore afterwards built a wall across it, which they called *Hexamilium*, because it was six miles in length. This was demolished by Amurath II. and afterwards rebuilt by the Venetians, but was levelled a second time by Mahomet II. Corinth || Cork.

CORINTHIAN, in general, denotes something belonging to Corinth: thus we say, Corinthian brass, Corinthian order, &c.

CORINTHIAN Brass. See BRASS and CORINTH.

CORINTHIAN Order, in *Architecture*, the fourth order of architecture, according to Scamozzi; but M. Le Clerc makes it the fifth, being the most noble and delicate of all the five. See ARCHITECTURE, N° 47.

CORIO, BERNARDINE, an historian, born of an illustrious family at Milan, in the year 1460. He was secretary of state to that duchy; and Lewis duke of Sforza appointed him to write the history of Milan. He died in 1500. The best edition of his history is that of 1503, in folio. It is printed in Italian, and is very scarce.

CORIOLANUS, C. MARCIUS, a famous Roman captain, took Corioli a town of the Volsci, whence he had his surname; at last, disgusting the people, he was banished Rome by the tribune Decius. He went to the Volsci, and persuading them to take up arms against the Romans, they encamped within four miles of the city. He would not listen to proposals of peace, till he was prevailed upon by his wife Veturia, and his mother Volumnia, who were followed by all the Roman ladies in tears. He was put to death by the Volsci as a traitor that had made them quit their conquest: upon which the Roman ladies went into mourning; and in the same place where his blood was spilled there was a temple consecrated to feminine virtue.

CORIS, a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria class. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORIS is also used in the East Indies for a kind of shells which pass for money.

CORISPERMUM, TICKSEED, a genus of plants belonging to the monandria class, and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORITANI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Britain, occupying widely the inland parts, as Northampton, Leicester, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, and Derbyshires, (Camden.)

CORK, the bark of a tree of the same name, *Quercus Suber*, Lin. See QUERCUS, BOTANY *Index*.

To take off the bark, an incision is made from the top to the bottom of the tree, and at each extremity another round the tree, perpendicular to the first. When the tree is 15 years old, it may be barked for eight years successively; and the quality of the bark improves with the age of the tree. When stripped from the tree, which does not therefore die, the bark is piled up in a pond or ditch, and loaded with heavy stones to flatten it, and reduce it into tables: hence it is removed to be dried; and when sufficiently dry, put in bales for carriage. If care be not taken to strip the bark,

Cork.

bark, it ſplits and peels of itſelf; being puſhed up by another bark formed underneath.

The cork-tree, as well as the uſes to which the bark is applied, was known both to the Greeks and Romans. Pliny informs us that the Romans employed it to ſtop all kinds of veſſels; but the uſe of it for this purpoſe does not appear to have been very common till the invention of glaſs bottles, of which, according to Profeſſor Beckman, there is no mention before the 15th century.

Other vegetable productions have been ſometimes employed inſtead of cork. The *Spondias Lutea*, a tree which grows in South America, particularly in moiſt places, and which is there called *monbin* or *monbain*, is ſometimes brought to England for the purpoſe of ſtopping veſſels. The roots of liquorice are applied to the ſame uſe, and on that account, this plant is much cultivated in Sclavonia, and exported to other countries. A tree called *nyſſa*, which grows in North America, has been found alſo to anſwer as a ſubſtitute for cork.

The chief uſe of cork is, to put in ſhoes, ſlippers, &c. and to ſtop bottles. The Spaniards burn it to make that kind of light black called *Spaniſh black*, which is uſed by painters. The Egyptians made coffins of cork; which being lined with a reſinous compoſition, preſerved dead bodies uncorrupted. The Spaniards line ſtone walls with it, which not only renders them very warm, but corrects the moiſture of the air.

*Foſſil-*CORK, a name given to a kind of ſtone which is a ſpecies of amianthus, conſiſting of flexible fibres looſely interwoven, and ſomewhat reſembling vegetable cork. It is the lighteſt of all ſtones; by fire it is infuſible. It poſſeſſes the general qualities of amianthus. See *Mountain Cork*, MINERALOGY *Index*.

CORK, in Latin *comitatus Corcagienſis*, a county of the province of Munſter in Ireland. It is the moſt populous and conſiderable county of the kingdom, next to that of Dublin, containing near a million of acres, and being divided into 15 baronies. It is bounded on the north-eaſt by the county of Waterford; on the weſt by Kerry; by Limerick on the north; and by the ſea on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt. Including Deſmond it is 85 miles in length and 50 in breadth; but is very unequal both ways. Though a conſiderable part of the country is boggy, mountainous, and barren, yet by the induſtry of the inhabitants it is pretty well cultivated and improved, and contains ſeveral good towns and harbours.

CORK, a city of Ireland, and capital of the county of that name. It is an epiſcopal ſee, and is the largeſt and moſt populous of any in the kingdom, Dublin alone excepted. It is ſituated on the river Lee, 15 miles from its mouth. It is a place of great trade, the harbour here being one of the fineſt in the world. Though ſmaller veſſels can come up to the quay, yet the larger generally ride at a place called *Paſſage*. This city, together with its liberties, makes a county. It was built or rather fortified by the Danes, in the ninth century. The greateſt part of it ſtands on a marſhy iſland ſurrounded by the river Lee, which alſo runs through the city, and divides it into ſeveral canals. On this account ſome have thought the air very moiſt and unwholeſome. Complaints have alſo been made againſt the water as impure; but, from comparing the bills of mortality with thoſe of other cities, it appears that the city of Cork is far from being unhealthy. This hath been accounted for from the influx of the tide, by which a ſtagnation of air is prevented. The firſt charter of Cork was beſtowed by Henry III. and afterwards ratified by Edward I. Edward II. and Edward III. Edward IV. granted a new charter; and the city received many favours from the ſucceeding monarchs. King James I. gave the citizens a new and ample charter; and King Charles I. what is called the Great Charter, by which, among others, a clauſe in King James's charter was enforced, making this city a county of itſelf. The fee of Cork is reputed worth 2700l. a-year. The chapter conſiſts of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and twelve prebendaries. The church is dedicated to St Barr or Finbarr; and the dioceſe is divided into five deaneries. There is very little to be found in ancient writers concerning the foundation of the cathedral of Cork; yet it is generally aſcribed to St Barr in the ſeventh century. Many of its biſhops have been great benefactors to it. Through length of time the church became quite ruinous; but it hath lately been completely rebuilt, and is now an elegant modern ſtructure. To defray the expence, the parliament laid a tax on all coals conſumed in the city of Cork. The deanery is reputed to be worth 400l. a-year.

Cork is much improved and enlarged; ſeveral broad ſtreets have been lately added, by filling up the canals that formerly ran through them, and are now built up with elegant houſes: the parade is very ſpacious, and is adorned with an equeſtrian ſtatue of King George II. It hath the largeſt export in the kingdom, particularly of beef, hides, tallow, butter, fiſh, and other proviſions. It is partly ſituated on ſeveral iſlands, formed by the river Lee, which are banked and quayed in, ſomewhat like the towns in Holland; and partly on riſing grounds, on the north and ſouth ſides of the river. The earl of Marlborough beſieged and took it from King James's army in 1690; when the duke of Grafton, who ſerved as a volunteer, was ſlain in the attack. It contains about 8600 houſes, and upwards of 70,000 inhabitants. It hath twelve companies of foot quartered in the barracks. Beſides a ſtately cathedral, built from the foundation, between 1725 and 1735, by the produce of a duty upon coals, as above noticed, it is adorned with ſeveral handſome parith churches. It has alſo an elegant exchange for the merchants, a new and beautiful cuſtomhouſe, a town-hall, ſeveral fine hoſpitals, and various other public ſtructures. The city poſſeſſes an annual revenue of about 1300l. out of which the mayor enjoys for his ſalary and the ſupport of his dignity 500l. The wealth and grandeur of Cork ariſe from its capacious and commodious haven, where almoſt any number of ſhips may lie with eaſe and ſafety. According to ſome accounts, when there has been no war, 1200 veſſels have reſorted hither in a year. Ships from England, bound to all parts of the Weſt Indies, take in here a great part of their proviſions; and on the ſame account the haven of Cork is viſited by thoſe alſo of moſt other nations. The ſlaughtering ſeaſon continues from the month of Auguſt to the latter end of January; in which ſpace it has been computed, that they

they kill and cure seldom fewer than 100,000 head of black cattle. The rest of their exports consist of butter, candles, hides raw and tanned, linen cloth, pork, calves, lambs, and rabbit skins, tallow, wool for England, linen and woollen yarn, and worsted. The merchants of Cork carry on a very extensive trade to almost all parts of the known world; so that their commerce is annually increasing. The produce of the customs some years since exceeded 60,000l. and the number of ships that they employ is double to what it was forty years ago. The only thing that seemed to be wanting to the security of the port of Cork was supplied in the earl of Chesterfield's memorable administration, by building a fort on the great island, to command the entrance of the haven. The outlets of Cork are cheerful and pleasant. The country around the city, on both sides of the river, is hilly and picturesque; and the harbour called the *Cove*, is one of the best in the world; the entrance is safe, and the whole navy of England might ride in it, secure from every wind that blows. Ships of burden, however, are obliged to unload at Passage, five miles and a half from Cork, the channel not admitting vessels of above 150 tons.

Cork Jacket or *Waistcoat*, is an invention of one Mr Dubourg, a gentleman very fond of swimming, but subject to the cramp, which led him to consider of some method by which he might enjoy his favourite diversion with safety. The waistcoat is composed of four pieces of cork, two for the breasts and two for the back; each pretty near in length and breadth to the quarters of a waistcoat without flaps; the whole is covered with coarse canvas, with two holes to put the arms through; there is a space left between the two back-pieces, and the same betwixt each back and breast-piece, that they may fit the easier to the body. Thus the waistcoat is only open before, and may be fastened on the wearer with strings; or, if it should be thought more secure, with buckles and leather straps. This waistcoat does not weigh above 12 ounces, and may be made up for about five or six shillings expence. Mr Dubourg tried his waistcoat in the Thames, and found that it not only supported him on the water, but that two men could not sink him, though they used their utmost efforts for that purpose. If those who use the sea occasionally, and especially those who are obliged to be almost constantly there, were to have those waistcoats, it would be next to impossible that they should be drowned. It would also be of vast service to those that, for the sake of health, bathe in the sea; and even the most delicate and timorous young lady might by the help of one of these jackets venture into a rough sea. See *Air-Jacket* and *Bamboo-Habit*.

CORMANDEL. See Coromandel.

COR-MASS, the name of a grand procession, said to have been established at Dunkirk during the dominion of Charles V. and renewed on St John's day, the 24th of June. After the celebration of high mass, the procession, consisting of the several tradesmen of the town, begins. Each person has a burning taper of wax in his hand: and after each company comes a pageant, followed by the patron-saint, usually of solid silver, richly wrought and adorned. The companies are followed by music; and after the musicians, the friars in the habits of their order, the secular priests, and then the abbot magnificently adorned, and preceded by the host. Machines likewise of various fantastical forms and devices, and as variously accoutred, form a part of the show on this occasion; which is described as one of the most superb and magnificent in the world, by an eye-witness, in 1755.

CORMORANT, a corruption of corvorant. See Pelicanus, Ornithology *Index*.

CORN, the grain or seeds of plants separated from the spica or ear, and used for making bread.

There are several species of corn, such as wheat, rye, and barley, millet and rice, oats, maize, and lentils, pease, and a number of other kinds: each of which has its usefulness and propriety.

Europe, in every part of it; Egypt, and some other cantons of Africa, particularly the coasts of Barbary; and some parts of America cultivated by the Europeans, particularly New England, New France, and Acadia, are the places which produce corn. Other countries have maize and rice in lieu of it; and some parts of America, both in the islands and continents, simple roots, such as potatoes and minioc.—Egypt was anciently the most fertile of all other countries in corn; as appears both from sacred and profane history. It furnished a good part of the people subject to the Roman empire, and was called the *dry nurse of Rome and Italy*. Britain, France, and Poland, seem now in the place of Egypt, and with their superfluities support a good part of Europe.

For the first discovery and culture of corn, authors are much divided; the common opinion is, that in the first ages men lived on the spontaneous fruits of the earth; as acorns, and the nut or mast produced by the beech; which, they say, took its name *fagus*, from the Greek φαγω, *I eat*. It is added that they had not either the use of corn, or the art of preparing or making it eatable.

Ceres has the credit of being the first that showed the use of corn, on which account she was placed among the gods; others gave the honour to Triptolemus; others share it between the two, making Ceres the first discoverer, and Triptolemus, the first planter and cultivator of corn. Diodorus Siculus ascribes the whole to Isis; on which Polydore Virgil observes, he does not differ from the rest; Isis and Ceres being in reality the same. The Athenians pretend it was among them the art began; and the Cretans or Candiots, Sicilians, and Egyptians, lay claim to the same. Some think the title of the Sicilians best supported, that being the country of Ceres: and authors add, she did not teach the secret to the Athenians, till she had first instructed her own countrymen. Others say, Ceres passed first into Attica, thence into Crete, and, last of all, into Sicily: many of the learned, however, maintain it was in Egypt the art of cultivating corn first began; and it is certain there was corn in Egypt and the East long before the time of Ceres.

Corn is very different from fruits, with respect to the manner of its preservation; and is capable of being preserved in public granaries, for pressing occasions, and of being kept for several centuries.—A little time after the siege of Metz, under Henry II. of France, in the year 1578, the duc d'Espernon laid up vast stores of corn in the citadel; which was preserved in good plight to the year 1707, when the French

French king and his retinue, paſſing that way, ate bread baked thereof.

The chief thing that contributes to the preſervation of corn is a cruſt which forms on its ſurface, by the germination of the grain next underneath, to the thickneſs of an inch and a half. On that at Metz people walked, without its giving the leaſt way. At Sedan was a granary cut in a rock, wherein a heap of corn was preſerved a hundred and ten years: it was covered with a cruſt a foot thick.

For the preſervation of corn, the firſt method is to let it remain in the ſpike; the only expedient for conveying it to the iſlands and provinces of America. The inhabitants of thoſe countries ſave it in the ear, and raiſe it to maturity by that precaution: but this method of preſerving it is attended with ſeveral inconveniences among us; corn is apt to rot or ſprout, if any the leaſt moiſture is in the heap; the rats likewiſe infeſt it, and our want of ſtraw alſo obliges us to ſeparate the grain from the ear. The ſecond is to turn out and winnow it frequently; or to pour it through a trough or mill-hopper, from one floor to another; being thus moved and aired every 15 days, for the firſt 6 months, it will require leſs labour for the future, if lodged in a dry place: but if, through neglect, mites ſhould be allowed to ſlide into the heap, they will ſoon reduce the corn to a heap of duſt: this muſt be avoided by moving the corn anew, and rubbing the places adjacent with oils and herbs, whoſe ſtrong odour may chace them away; for which garlic and dwarf-elder are very effectual; they may likewiſe be expoſed to the open ſun, which immediately kills them. When the corn has been preſerved from all impurities for the ſpace of two years, and has exhaled all its fires, it may be kept for 50 or even 100 years, by lodging it in pits covered with ſtrong planks cloſely joined together; but the ſafer way is to cover the heap with quicklime, which ſhould be diſſolved by ſprinkling it over with a ſmall quantity of water; this cauſes the grains to ſhoot to the depth of two or three fingers; and incloſes them with an incruſtation, as above mentioned, through which neither air nor inſects can penetrate.

Indian CORN, or *Maize*. See ZEA, BOTANY *Index*.

CORN-*Butterfly*, method of deſtroying it. See AGRICULTURE *Index*.

CORN-*Crake*. See RALLUS, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CORN-*Mill*, a water-engine for grinding corn. See MECHANICS.

CORN, in *Farriery*. See FARRIERY *Index*.

CORNS, in *Surgery*, hard excreſcences, conſiſting of indurations of the ſkin ariſing on the toes, and ſometimes on the ſides of the feet, where they are much expoſed to the preſſure of the ſhoes. By degrees they preſs themſelves farther down between the muſcular fibres on theſe parts, and by their irritation occaſion extreme pain. Many cures have been preſcribed, but the total removal of them is always found to be attended with great difficulty. It has been recommended to ſoften them with plaſters, and then to pull them up by the roots, to apply cauſtic, &c. but the beſt cure is to bathe them frequently in warm water, and pare away as much as poſſible of the indurated ſkin without drawing blood.

CORNAGE, an ancient tenure, the ſervice whereof was to blow a horn when any invaſion of the Scots was perceived. This tenure was very frequent in the northern counties near the Picts wall; but by ſtat. 12 Car. II. all tenures are converted into free and common ſoccage.—An old rental calls cornage, *newt-geldt*, q. d. *neat-geld*. Lord Coke ſays, in old books it is called *horngeld*.

CORNARISTS, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, the diſciples of Theodore Cornhert, an enthuſiaſtic ſecretary of the ſtates of Holland. He wrote at the ſame time againſt the Catholics, Lutherans, and Calviniſts. He maintained that every religious communion needed reformation; but he added, that no perſon had a right to engage in accompliſhing it without a miſſion ſupported by miracles. He was alſo of opinion, that a perſon might be a good Chriſtian without being a member of any viſible church.

CORNARIUS, or HAGUENBOT, *John*, a celebrated German phyſician, born at Zwickow in Saxony. His preceptor made him change his name of Haguenbot to that of Cornarius, under which he is moſt known. At 20 years of age he taught grammar, and explained the Greek and Latin poets and orators to his ſcholars; and at 23 was licentiate in medicine. He found fault with moſt of the remedies provided by the apothecaries; and obſerving, that the greateſt part of the phyſicians taught their pupils only what is to be found in Avicenna, Rhaſis, and other Arabian phyſicians, he carefully ſought for the writings of the beſt phyſicians of Greece, and employed about 15 years in tranſlating them into Latin, eſpecially the works of Hippocrates, Aetius, Eginetes, and a part of thoſe of Galen. Meanwhile he practiſed phyſic with reputation at Zwickow, Frankfort, Marpurg, Nordhauſen, and Jena, where he died of an apoplexy in 1558, aged 58. He alſo wrote ſome medicinal treatiſes; publiſhed editions of ſome poems of the ancients on medicine and botany; and tranſlated ſome of the works of the fathers, particularly thoſe of Baſil, and a part of thoſe of Epiphanius.

CORNARO, LEWIS, a Venetian of noble extraction, memorable for having lived healthful and active to above 100 years of age by a rigid courſe of temperance. By the ill conduct of ſome of his relations he was deprived of the dignity of a noble Venetian; and ſeeing himſelf excluded from all employments under the republic, he ſettled at Padua. In his youth he was of a weak conſtitution; and by irregular indulgence reduced himſelf at about 40 years of age to the brink of the grave, under a complication of diſorders; at which extremity he was told that he had no other chance for his life but by becoming ſober and temperate. Being wiſe enough to adopt this wholeſome counſel, he reduced himſelf to a regimen of which there are very few examples. He allowed himſelf no more than 12 ounces of food and 14 ounces of liquor each day; which became ſo habitual to him, that when he was above 70 years of age, the experiment of adding two ounces to each by the advice of his friends, had like to have proved fatal to him. At 83 he wrote a treatiſe which has been tranſlated into Engliſh, and often printed, entitled, "Sure and certain Methods of attaining a Long and Healthful Life;" in which he relates his own ſtory, and extols temperance to a degree of enthuſiaſm. At length the yolk of an egg became ſufficient

sufficient for a meal, and sometimes for two, until he died with much ease and composure in 1566. The writer of the Spectator, N° 195, confirms the fact from the authority of the Venetian ambassador at that time, who was a descendant of the Cornaro family.

CORNAVII, (Ptolemy), a people of Britain, beginning in the very heart of the island, and extending to Chester. Now *Warwick*, *Worcester*, *Salop*, *Stafford*, and *Cheshire* (Camden).

CORNEA TUNICA, in *Anatomy*, the second coat of the eye; so called from its substance resembling the horn of a lantern, in Latin *cornu*. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORNEILLE, PETER, a celebrated French poet, was born at Rouen in the year 1606. He was brought up to the bar, which he attended for some little time; but formed with a genius too elevated for such a profession, and having no turn for business, he soon deserted it. An affair of gallantry occasioned his writing his first piece, entitled *Melite;* which had prodigious success. Encouraged by the applause of the public, he wrote the Cid, and the other tragedies that have immortalized his name. In his dramatic works he discovers a majesty, a strength and elevation of genius, scarce to be found in any other of the French poets; and, like our immortal Shakespeare, seems better acquainted with nature than with the rules of critics. Corneille was received into the French academy in 1647, and died dean of that academy in 1684, aged 78. Besides his dramatic pieces, he wrote a translation, in French verse, of the "Imitation of Jesus Christ," &c. The best edition of his works is that of 1682, in 4 vols 12mo.

CORNEILLE, *Thomas*, brother of the former, was a member of the French academy and of that of inscriptions. He discovered in his youth a great inclination to poetry; and at length published several dramatic pieces in 5 vols 12mo, some of which were applauded by the public, and acted with success. He also wrote, 1. A translation of Ovid's Metamorphoses, and some of Ovid's Epistles; 2. Remarks on Vauglas; 3. A Dictionary of Arts, 2 vols folio; and 4. An Universal Geographical and Historical Dictionary, in 3 vols folio.

CORNEILLE, *Michael*, a celebrated painter, was born at Paris in the year 1642; and was instructed by his father, who was himself a painter of great merit. Having gained a prize at the academy, young Corneille obtained a pension from Louis XIV.; and was sent to Rome, where that prince had founded a school for young artists of genius. Having studied there some time, he gave up his pension, and applied to the antique with great care. He is said to have equalled Carache in drawing, but in colouring he was deficient. Upon his return from Rome, he was chosen professor in the academy of Paris; and was employed by the above prince in all the great works he was carrying on at Versailles and Trianon, where are still to be seen some noble efforts of his genius.

CORNEL-TREE. See CORNUS, BOTANY *Index*.

CORNELIA, daughter of Scipio Africanus, was the mother of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus. She was courted by a king, but she preferred being the wife of a Roman citizen to that of a monarch. Her virtues have been deservedly commended, as well as the wholesome principles she inculcated in her two sons. When a Campanian lady made once a show of her jewels at Cornelia's house, and entreated her to favour her with a sight of her own, Cornelia produced her two sons, saying, "These are the only jewels of which I can boast."

CORNELIA LEX, de civitate, was enacted, in the year of Rome 670, by L. Corn. Sylla. It confirmed the Sulpician law, and required that the citizens of the eight newly elected tribes should be divided among the 35 ancient tribes.—Another, *de judiciis*, in 673, by the same. It ordained, that the prætor should always observe the same invariable method in judicial proceedings, and that the process should not depend upon his will.—Another *de sumptibus*, by the same. It limited the expences which generally attended funerals.—Another *de religione*, by the same, in 677. It restored to the college of priests the privilege of choosing the priests, which by the Domitian law had been lodged in the hands of the people.—Another, *de municipiis*, by the same; which revoked all the privileges which had been some time before granted to the several towns that had assisted Marius and Cinna in the civil wars.—Another *de magistratibus*, by the same; which gave the power of bearing honours, and being promoted before the legal age, to those who had followed the interest of Sylla; while the sons and partizans of his enemies, who had been proscribed, were deprived of the privilege of standing for any office in the state.—Another *de magistratibus*, by the same, in 673. It ordained, that no person should exercise the same office within ten years distance, or be invested with two different magistracies in one year.—Another, *de magistratibus*, by the same, in 673. It divested the tribunes of the privilege of making laws, interfering, holding assemblies, and receiving appeals. All such as had been tribunes were incapable of holding any other office in the state by that law.—Another, *de majestate*, by the same, in 670. It made it treason to lend an army out of a province or engage in a war without orders, to influence the soldiers to spare or ransom a captive general of the enemy, to pardon the leaders of robbers or pirates, or for the absence of a Roman citizen to a foreign court without previous leave. The punishment was *aquæ et ignis interdictio*.—Another by the same. It gave the power to a man accused of murder, either by poison, weapons, or false accusations, and the setting fire to buildings, to choose whether the jury that tried him should give their verdict *clam* or *palam*, *viva voce*, or by ballot. Another by the same, which made it *aquæ et ignis interdictio* to such as were guilty of forgery, concealing and altering of wills, corruption, false accusations, and the debasing or counterfeiting of the public coin. All such as were accessory to this offence were deemed as guilty as the offender.—Another, *de pecuniis repetundis;* by which a man convicted of peculation or extortion in the provinces was condemned to suffer the *aquæ et ignis interdictio*.—Another, by the same; which gave the power to such as were sent into the provinces with any government, of retaining their command and appointment without any renewal of it by the senate, as was before observed.—Another by the same; which ordained, that the lands of proscribed persons should be common, especially those about Volaterræ and Fesulæ in Etruria, which Sylla divided among his soldiers.—Another by C. Cornelius tribune of

of the people, in 686. It ordained, that no perſon ſhould be exempted from any law according to the general cuſtom, unleſs 200 ſenators were preſent in the ſenate; and no perſon thus exempted could hinder the bill of his exemption from being carried to the people for their concurrence.—Another, by Naſſica, in 582, to make war againſt Perſeus, ſon of Philip king of Macedon, if he did not give proper ſatisfaction to the Roman people.

CORNELIAN. See CARNELIAN.

CORNER, in a general ſenſe, the ſame with ANGLE.

CORNET, in the military art of the ancients, an inſtrument much in the nature of a trumpet; which when it only ſounded, the enſigns were to march alone without the ſoldiers; whereas when the trumpet only ſounded, the ſoldiers were to move without the enſigns. The cornets and buccinæ ſounded the charge and retreat; and the cornets and trumpets ſounded during the courſe of the battle. See Plate CLXIV.

CORNET, in modern military economy, denotes an officer in the cavalry who bears the enſign or colours of a troop.

The cornet is the third officer in the company, and commands in the abſence of the captain and lieutenant. He takes his title from his enſign, which is ſquare; and is ſuppoſed to be called by that name from *cornu*, becauſe placed on the wings, which form a kind of points or horns of the army. Others derive the name from *coronet;* alleging, that it was the ancient cuſtom for theſe officers to wear coronets or garlands on their heads.

CORNEUS, the name by which Linnæus calls a kind of tin ore, found in black columns, with irregular ſides, and terminating in priſms.

CORNICHE, CORNISH, or CORNICE, in *Architecture*, the uppermoſt member of the entablature of a column, as that which crowns the order. See ARCHITECTURE, Chap. I. and the Plates.

CORNICHE, is alſo uſed, in general, for all little projectures in maſonry or joinery, even where there are no columns, as the corniche of a chimney, beaufet, &c.

CORNICHE Ring, in a piece of ordnance, is that next from the muzzle-ring, backward.

CORNICULARIUS, in antiquity, an officer in the Roman army, whoſe buſineſs was to aid and aſſiſt the military tribune in quality of a lieutenant.

The *cornicularii* went the rounds in lieu of the tribune, viſited the watch, and were nearly what the aids major are in the French army.

The denomination *cornicularius* was given them from a little horn, called *corniculum*, which they uſed in giving orders to the ſoldiers: though Salmaſius derives it from *corniculum*, the creſt of a head-piece; it being an obſervation of Pliny, that they wore iron or braſs horns on their helmets; and that theſe were called *cornicula*.

In the *Notitia Imperii* we find a kind of ſecretary or regiſter of the ſame name. His buſineſs was to attend the judge, and enter down his ſentiments and deciſions. The critics derive the word, in this ſenſe, from *corniculum*, a little horn to put ink in.

CORNICULUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Sabines, to the eaſt of Cruſtumerium, towards the Anio. It was burnt down by Tarquin; but reſtored again, after the expulſion of the kings, (Florus). Now in ruins, called *il Monte Genaro*, (Holſtenius).

CORNISH DIAMOND, a name given by many people to the cryſtals found in digging the mines of tin in Cornwall. See CORNWALL.

CORNIX, the trivial name of a ſpecies of CORVUS. See CORVUS, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CORNU. See HORN.

CORNU Ammonis, in *Natural Hiſtory*, foſſil ſhells, called alſo *ſerpent-ſtones* or *ſnake-ſtones*.

They are found of all ſizes, from the breadth of a ſixpence to more than two feet in diameter, and ſome even larger; ſome of them rounded, others greatly compreſſed, and lodged in different ſtrata of ſtones and clays; ſome again are ſmooth, and others variouſly ridged, their ſtriæ and ridges being either ſtraight, irregularly crooked, or undulated. See *SNAKE-Stones*.

CORNU Cervi. See HARTSHORN.

CORNUCOPIA, among the ancient poets, a horn out of which proceeded plenty of all things; by a particular privilege which Jupiter granted his nurſe, ſuppoſed to be the goat Amalthea. The fable is thus interpreted: That in Libya there is a little territory ſhaped not unlike a bullock's horn, exceedingly fertile, given by King Ammon to his daughter, Amalthea, whom the poets feign to have been Jupiter's nurſe.

In *Architecture* and *Sculpture* the cornucopia, or horn of plenty, is repreſented under the figure of a large horn, out of which iſſue fruits, flowers, &c. On medals, F. Joubert obſerves, the cornucopia is given to all deities.

CORNUCOPIÆ, in *Botany*, a genus of plants belonging to the triandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Graminæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORNUS, CORNEL-TREE, CORNELIAN CHERRY, or DOG-WOOD; a genus of plants belonging to the tetrandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 47th order, *Stellatæ*.

CORNUTIA, a genus of plants, belonging to the didynamia claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CORNWALL, the moſt weſterly county of England, bounded by the Britiſh channel on the ſouth, and the Briſtol channel on the north, the two ſeas meeting near the Land's End on the weſt, and on the eaſt by the river Tamar, which ſeparates it from Devonſhire. Its name is ſuppoſed by ſome to be compounded of *carn*, ſignifying "a rock" in the Britiſh language, and *Gauls* or *Waules*, the name the Saxons gave to the Britons. Others, however, think it is derived from the Latin *cornu*, or the Britiſh *kern*, "a horn;" on account of its running out into the ſea ſomewhat in the form of a horn. Hither the ancient Britons (as well as in Wales) retired on the intruſion of the Saxons, where they oppoſed their further conqueſts. In this part of the iſland they formed a kingdom that exiſted for many years after under different princes, amongſt whom were Ambroſius Aurelius, and the juſtly celebrated Arthur; nor were they ſubdued till the middle of the 7th century, from which time Cornwall was conſidered as ſubject to the Weſt Saxon kings, who began their ſovereignty in 519, and continued it till 828, under 18 ſovereigns, the laſt of whom was the great Egbert, who ſubdued

dued all the others; and by uniting them, formed the kingdom of England, when this country was included in the county of Devon, then the 9th division; and that accounts for Alfred's not mentioning Cornwall, which, on forming the circuits after the Norman conquest, is included in the western circuit. In 1337, Edward III. erected it into a dukedom, and invested with it *Edward the Black Prince*. But this, according to the express words of the grant, is limited to the first born son and heir, on which account Richard II. was created duke of Cornwall by charter. So was Henry V. by his father Henry IV. Henry VI. delivered the duchy to his son Prince Edward, and Edward IV. created his son Edward V. duke of Cornwall, as did Henry VII. his son, afterwards Henry VIII. upon the death of his elder brother Arthur. James I. created his son Henry duke of Cornwall, which title on his decease came to his brother Charles. The eldest sons of succeeding kings have enjoyed this title by inheritance. These not only appoint the sheriff, but all writs, deeds, &c. are in their name, and not in the king's; and they have also peculiar royalties and prerogatives distinct from the crown, for which they appoint the officers. This county is 80 miles long, 40 broad, and 250 in circumference; containing 960,000 acres, and 126,000 inhabitants. It is divided into 9 hundreds; has 27 market towns, viz. Launceston, Truro, Falmouth, Helston, Saltash, Bodmyn, St Ives, Tregony, Camelford, Fowey, St Germains, Penryn, Callington, St Austle, East Looe, Padstow, St Colomb, Penfance, Grampond, Leskard, Lestwithiel, St Mawes, St Michael, Newport, Market Jew, Stratton, and Redruth; 1230 villages, 191 parishes, 89 vicarages; provides 640 men to the militia, and pays 8 parts of the land-tax. Its chief rivers are the Tamar, Fale, Cober, Looe, Camel, Fowe, Haile, Lemara, Kense, and Aire. Its principal capes or headlands are the Land's-end, the Lizard, Cape Cornwall, Deadman's-head, Rame-head, &c. and a cluster of islands, 144 in number, called the *Scilly isles*, supposed formerly to have been joined to the main land, though now 30 miles distant; abounding with antiquities, particularly druidical.

As Cornwall is surrounded by the sea on all sides except the east, its climate is somewhat different from that of the other parts of Britain. The reasons of this difference will be easily understood from what is observed concerning the climate of America. The summers in Cornwall are less hot, and the winters less cold, than in other parts of England, and the spring and harvest are observed to be more backward. High and sudden winds are also more common in this than in other counties of England. The county is rocky and mountainous; but the mountains are rich in metals, especially tin and copper. The valleys are very pleasant and fertile, yielding great plenty both of corn and pasture. The lands near the sea-coast are manured and fertilized with sea-weed, and a kind of sand formed by the particles of broken shells as they are dashed against each other by the sea. Cattle of all sorts are smaller here than in the other counties of England; and the wool of the sheep, which are mostly without horns, is very fine, and the flesh, both of them and the black cattle, extremely delicate. The county is well supplied with fish from the sea and the many rivers with which it is watered. The most noted of the sea-fish is the pilchard; of which prodigious quantities are caught from July to November, and exported to different parts, especially to Spain. It is said that a million have been sometimes taken at a single draught. The natives are remarkable for their strength and activity, as well as their dexterity in wrestling, in which exercise the Cornish hug is highly extolled.

This county has been long famous for its mines of different metals; but the principal produce is tin. The Phenicians early visited these coasts for this article, some think 400 or 450 years before Christ; and the mines continued to be wrought with various success at different periods. In the time of King John they appear to have yielded no great emolument; the right of working them being wholly in the king as earl of Cornwall, and the mines farmed by the Jews for 100 merks; and according to this proportion the 10th of it, 6l. 13s. 4d. is at this day paid by the crown to the bishop of Exeter. In the time of Richard king of the Romans and earl of Cornwall, the tin-mines were immensely rich; the Jews being farmed out to him by his brother Henry III. what interest they had was at his dispofal. The Spanish tin-mines being stopped by the Moors, and none discovered in Germany, the Malabar coast, or the Spanish West Indies, Cornwall and its earls had all the trade of Europe for it. The Jews being banished the kingdom, 18 Edw. I. they were again neglected till the gentlemen of Blackmore, lords of seven tithings best stored at that time with tin, obtained of Edmund earl of Cornwall, son of Richard king of the Romans, a charter under his own seal, with more explicit grants of privileges, courts, pleas, parliaments, and the toll-tin or $\frac{1}{15}$th of all the tin raised. At this time too the right of bounding or dividing tin-grounds into separate partitions for the encouragement of searching for it seems to have been first appointed, or at least adjusted. This charter was confirmed 33 Edward I. and the Cornish separated from the Devonshire tinners. Their laws, particularly recited in Plowden's Commentaries, p. 237, were further explained 50 Edw. III. confirmed and enlarged by parliament, 8 Rich. II. 3 Ed. IV. 1 Ed. VI. 1 and 2 P. and M. and 2 Eliz. and the whole society divided into four parts under one general warden to do justice in law and equity, from whose sentence lies an appeal to the duke of Cornwall in council, or for want of a duke of Cornwall to the crown. The lord-warden appoints a vice-warden to determine all stannery disputes every month; he also constitutes four stewards, one for each of the precincts before mentioned, who hold their courts every three weeks, and decide by juries of six persons, with an appeal reserved to the vice-warden, lord warden, and lord of the prince's council. In difficult cases the lord warden, by commission, issues his precept to the four principal towns of the stannery districts, who each choose six members; and these twenty-four stannators constitute the parliament of tinners. Each stannator chooses an assistant, making a kind of standing council in a different apartment to give information to the prince. Whatever is enacted by the body of tinners must be signed by the stannators, the lord-warden, or his deputy, and by the duke or the king, and thenceforward has with regard to tin affairs all the authority of an act of the whole

Cornwall.

whole legiſlature. Five towns are appointed in the moſt convenient parts of the county for the tinners to bring their tin to every quarter of a year. Theſe are Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Truro, Helſton, and Penſance, the laſt added by Charles II. for the conveniency of the weſtern tinners. In the time of Henry VIII. there were but two coinages, at Midſummer and Michaelmas; two more, at Chriſtmas and Lady-day, were added, for which the tinners pay an acknowledgment called *Poſt groats*, or 4d. for every hundred of white tin then coined. The officers appointed by the duke aſſay it; and if well purified ſtamp it by a hammer with the duchy ſeal, the arms of Richard earl of Cornwall, a lion rampant G. crowned O. within a bordure of bezants S; and this is a permiſſion to the coiner to ſell, and is called *coining the tin*. Every hundred of white tin ſo coined pays to the duke 4s. The tin of the whole county, which, in Carew's time, in the laſt century, amounted to 30,000l. or 40,000l. yearly, has for 24 years laſt paſt amounted one year with another to 180,000l. or 190,000l. ſterling. Of this the duke of Cornwall receives for his 4s. duty on every hundred of white tin above 10,000l. yearly; the bounders or proprietors of the ſoil about $\frac{1}{6}$th at a medium clear, or about 30,000l. yearly; the remainder goes to the adventurers in the mine, who are at all the charge of working. Tin is found collected and fixed in lodes and floors, or in grains and bunches in the natural rock, or looſe and detached in ſingle ſeparate ſtones called *ſhodes* or *ſtreams*, or in a continued courſe of ſuch ſtones called the *beuheyl* or *living ſtream*, or in an arenaceous pulverized ſtate. It is moſt eaſily diſcovered by tracing the lodes by the ſcattered fragments of them called *ſhodes*, by leave of the lord of the ſoil or the bounder. The tin being divided among the lords and adventurers, is ſtamped and worked at the mill; and being thus dreſſed is carried, under the name of *black tin*, to the melting-houſe, where it is melted by Welſh pit-coal, and poured into blocks of 320lb. weight, and carried to the coinage town. Mundic, a ſcarce metal or mineral ore, of a white, braſſy, or brown colour, is found in large quantities, intermixed with tin, copper, and lead, and ſometimes by itſelf. Iron ore is found in Cornwall, but the working it does not anſwer. There is no richer copper, nor a greater variety, anywhere than in this county. Silver, if really found here in the reigns of Edward I. and II. has been rarely found ſince, nor do the lead mines anſwer. Very late diſcoveries have proved that Cornwall has more gold than was formerly imagined. What is called the *Corniſh diamond* is a figured cryſtal, generally hexagonal and pyramidical, or columnar, or both, of a fine clear water, and of all our baſtard diamonds in this nation eſteemed the beſt, and ſome of different colours, black, yellow, &c. The clearer theſe are, the better they will bear engraving for ſeals.

In privileges and language Cornwall ſeems to be another kingdom. By 21 Elizabeth it was ordered that all duty on Corniſh cloth exported ſhould be remitted to every Engliſhman within the duchy of Cornwall. This was firſt granted by the Black Prince, in conſideration of their paying 4s. for the coinage of every hundred of tin; whereas Devonſhire pays no more than 8d. They have alſo by grant from Richard earl of Cornwall, confirmed 25 Henry III. freedom to take ſand out of the ſea, and carry it through the country for manure; whereupon in the following reign, on an inquiſition made, we find a complaint that Saltaſh had lately taken 12s. yearly for each barge that carried ſand up the Tamar; whereas nothing ought to have been demanded. They ſtill continue this ancient method of improving their land, carrying it ten miles up into the country, and great part of the way on horſes backs. Mr Ray ſuppoſes the virtue of this ſand depends chiefly on the ſalt mixed with it, which is ſo copious that in many places ſalt is boiled up out of a lixivium made of the ſea ſand; and the reaſon why ſand when it has lain long in the ſun and wind proves leſs enriching and uſeful is, that the dews and rain evaporate great part of its ſalt. They had likewiſe a priviiege of trading to all parts of the world, granted them by Charles I. in recompenſe of their loyalty.

Cornwall || Corollary.

The number of boroughs in this ſmall county was greatly increaſed by Edward VI. who added ſeven to the original ſix, Mary two, Elizabeth ſix, making in all 21, ſending 40 members beſides the county two. Eight of theſe boroughs had an immediate or remote connection with the demeſne lands of the duchy; the reſt belonged to religious houſes, or powerful families, or were old boroughs, which had legal immunities granted to them by their princes or lords.

The Corniſh language is a dialect of that which till the Saxons came in was common to all Britain, and more anciently to Ireland and Gaul; but the inhabitants of this iſland being diſperſed before thoſe conqueſts, and driven into Wales and Cornwall, and thence into Bretagne, the ſame language, for want of frequent intercourſe, became differently pronounced and written, and in different degrees mixed with different languages. Hence came the Welſh, the Corniſh and the Armoric dialects, whoſe radicals are ſo much alike that they are known and admitted by the inhabitants of either country; but the grammar ſo varied that they cannot converſe. The Corniſh is reckoned the moſt pleaſing of the three. It was ſpoken ſo generally here down to the reign of Henry VIII. that Dr John Moreman, vicar of Mynhinet, is ſaid to have been the firſt who taught his pariſhioners the Lord's prayer, the creed, and ten commandments, in Engliſh, and at the Reformation the natives deſired the ſervice in Engliſh. The older people in ſome pariſhes retained their original language to the middle of the laſt century: and the laſt ſermon was preached in it in 1678. When Mr Ray was here, 1662, he could find but one perſon who could write this language; and it is now ſo nearly extinct, that Mr Barrington, in 1768, could only find one old woman who could ſcold in it, and ſhe is ſince dead.

COROD Y. See REVENUE.

COROLLA, among botaniſts, the moſt conſpicuous part of a flower, ſurrounding the organs of generation, and compoſed of one or more flower-leaves, moſt commonly called *petals*, to diſtinguiſh them from the leaves of the plant; according as there is one, two, or three of theſe petals, the corolla is ſaid to be monopetalous, dipetalous, tripetalous, &c.

COROLLARY is a conſequence drawn from ſomething already advanced or demonſtrated: thus, it being demonſtrated that a triangle which has two equal ſides,

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ſides, has alſo two angles equal; this corollary will follow that a triangle which has three ſides equal, has alſo its three angles equal.

COROLISTÆ, a name by which Linnæus diſtinguiſhes thoſe ſyſtematic botaniſts who have arranged vegetables from the regularity, figure, number, and other circumſtances, of the petals, or beautiful coloured leaves of the flowers. The beſt ſyſtems of this kind are thoſe of Rivinus and Tournefort. The former proceeds upon the regularity and number of the petals; the latter, with much more certainty, on their regularity and figure.

COROLLULA, a term uſed by botaniſts to expreſs the little partial flowers which make up the compound ones.

COROMANDEL, the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula on this ſide the Ganges in Aſia. It is bounded on the north by Golconda, on the eaſt by the bay of Bengal, on the ſouth by Madura, and on the weſt by Biſnagar. This coaſt ſo much reſembles that of Orixa, that the Abbé Raynal chooſes to conſider them as one, and gives to both the general name of *Coromandel*. Here an exceſſive heat reigns from the beginning of May to the end of October. It begins at nine in the morning, and continues till nine in the evening. During the night it is allayed by a ſea-breeze from the ſouth eaſt; and moſt commonly this refreſhing gale begins at three in the afternoon. The air is leſs inflamed during the reſt of the year, though in all ſeaſons it is very hot. It rains almoſt continually during the months of November and December. This immenſe tract is covered with a parched ſand for the extent of two miles, and ſometimes only one mile along the coaſt.

This country was at firſt neglected by the Europeans for many reaſons. It was ſeparated by inacceſſible mountains from Malabar, where theſe bold adventurers endeavoured to ſettle themſelves. Spices and aromatics, which were the principal objects of their attention, were not to be found there. In ſhort, civil diſſenſions had baniſhed from it tranquillity, ſecurity, and induſtry. At that period the empire of Biſnagar, to which this vaſt country was ſubject, was falling to ruin. The governors of Viſapour, the Carnatic, Golconda, and Orixa, threw off their dependence, and aſſumed the title of kings. Thoſe of Madura, Tanjore, Myſore, Gingi, and ſome others, likewiſe uſurped the ſovereign authority, though they retained their ancient title of *Naick*. This revolution had juſt happened when the Europeans appeared on the coaſt of Coromandel. The foreign trade was at that time inconſiderable; it conſiſted only of diamonds from Golconda, which were carried to Calicut and Surat, and from thence to Ormus or Suez, whence they were circulated through all Europe and Aſia. Maſſulipatan, the richeſt and moſt populous city of theſe countries, was the only market that was known for linens; they were purchaſed at a great fair annually holden there by the Arabian and Malayan veſſels that frequented that bay, and by caravans arrived from diſtant parts. The linens were exported to the ſame places with the diamonds. The fondneſs for the manufactures of Coromandel, which began to prevail here, inſpired all the European nations trading to the Indian ſeas with the reſolution of forming ſettlements there. They were not diſcouraged either by the difficulty of conveying goods from the inland parts of the country, where there was no navigable river; by the total want of harbours, where the ſea at one ſeaſon of the year is not navigable; by the barrenneſs of the coaſts, for the moſt part uncultivated and uninhabited; nor by the tyranny and fluctuating ſtate of the government. They thought that ſilver would be induſtriouſly ſought after; that Pegu would furniſh timber for building, and Bengal corn for ſubſiſtence; that a proſperous voyage of nine months would be more than ſufficient to complete their ladings; and that by fortifying themſelves they ſhould be ſecure againſt the attacks of the weak tyrants that oppreſſed theſe countries.

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The firſt European colonies were eſtabliſhed near the ſhore. Some of them obtained a ſettlement by force; moſt of them were formed with the conſent of the ſovereigns; and all were confined to a very narrow tract of land. The boundaries of each were marked out by a hedge of thorny plants, which was their only defence. In proceſs of time fortifications were raiſed; and the ſecurity derived from them, added to the lenity of the government, ſoon increaſed the number of coloniſts. The ſplendor and independence of theſe ſettlements ſeveral times raiſed the jealouſy of the princes in whoſe dominions they were formed; but their attempts to demoliſh them proved abortive. Each colony increaſed in proſperity in proportion to the riches and the wiſdom of the nation that founded it. None of the companies that exerciſed an excluſive privilege beyond the Cape of Good Hope had any concern in the trade of diamonds. This was always left to private merchants, and by degrees fell entirely into the hands of the Engliſh, or the Jews and Armenians that lived under their protection. At preſent this grand object of luxury and induſtry is much reduced. The revolutions that have happened in Indoſtan have prevented people from reſorting to theſe rich mines; and the anarchy in which this unhappy country is plunged leaves no room to hope that they will be again attended to. The whole of the commercial operations on the coaſt of Coromandel is confined to the purchaſe of cottons. The manufacturing of the white cotton brought there differs ſo little from ours, that it would be neither intereſting nor inſtructive to enter into a minute deſcription of it. The proceſs uſed in making their printed cottons, which was at firſt ſervilely followed in Europe, has ſince been rendered more ſimple and brought to greater perfection by our manufactures. The painted cottons which are brought thither we have not yet attempted to imitate. Thoſe who imagine we have been prevented from undertaking this branch merely by the high price of labour among us, are miſtaken. Nature has not given us the wild fruits and drugs neceſſary for the compoſition of thoſe bright and indelible colours which conſtitute the principal merit of the Indian manufactures; nor has ſhe furniſhed us with the waters that ſerve to fix them. The Indians do not univerſally obſerve the ſame method in painting their cottons; either becauſe there are ſome niceties peculiar to certain provinces, or becauſe different ſoils produce different drugs for different uſes. We ſhould tire the patience of our readers were we to trace the

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ſlow and painful progreſs of the Indians in the art of painting their cottons. It is natural to believe that they owe it to length of time, rather than to the fertility of their genius. What ſeems to authorize this conjecture is, that they have ſtopped in their improvements, and have not advanced a ſingle ſtep in the arts for many ages; whereas we have proceeded with amazing rapidity. Indeed, were we to conſider only the want of invention in the Indians, we ſhould be tempted to believe, that, from time immemorial, they have received the arts they cultivate from ſome more induſtrious nation; but when it is remembered that theſe arts have a peculiar dependence on the materials, gums, colours, and productions of India, we cannot but be convinced that they are natives of that country. It may appear ſomewhat ſurpriſing that cottons painted with all ſorts of colours ſhould be ſold at ſo moderate a price, that they are almoſt as cheap as thoſe that have only two or three. But it muſt be obſerved, that the merchants of the country ſell to all the companies a large quantity of cottons at a time; and that the demand for cottons painted with various colours makes but a ſmall article in their aſſortments, as they are not much eſteemed in Europe.

Though cottons of all ſorts are in ſome degree manufactured through the whole country of Indoſtan, which extends from Cape Comorin to the banks of the Ganges; it is obſervable, that the fineſt are made in the eaſtern part, the common ones in the centre, and the coarſe ones in the moſt weſtern parts. Manufactures are eſtabliſhed in the European colonies, and upon the coaſt: they are more frequent at the diſtance of five or ſix leagues from the ſea, where cotton is more cultivated, and proviſions are cheaper. The purchaſes made there are carried 30 or 40 leagues farther into the country. The Indian merchants ſettled in the European factories have always the management of this buſineſs. The quantity and quality of the goods wanted are ſettled with theſe people: the price is fixed according to the patterns: and at the time a contract is made, a third or fourth part of the money agreed on is advanced. This arrangement is owing to the neceſſity theſe merchants themſelves are under of advancing money to the workmen by the partners or agents who are diſperſed through the whole country; of keeping a watchful eye upon them, for fear of loſing what they have advanced; and of gradually leſſening the ſum, by calling for the cottons as faſt as they are worked off. Without theſe precautions, nothing could be depended on in an oppreſſive government, where the weaver cannot work on his own account, either becauſe his circumſtances will not permit, or becauſe he dares not venture to diſcover them for fear of exactions. The companies that have either ſucceſs or good management, conſtantly keep the ſtock of one year in advance in their ſettlements. By this method they are ſure of having the quantity of goods they have occaſion for, and of the quality they chooſe, at the moſt convenient time: not to mention that their workmen, and their merchants, who are kept in conſtant employment, never leave them. Such nations as want money and credit cannot begin their mercantile operations till the arrival of their ſhips. They have only five or ſix months at moſt to execute the orders ſent from Europe. The goods are manufactured and examined in haſte; and they are even obliged to take ſuch as are known to be bad, and would be rejected at any other time. The neceſſity they are under of completing their cargoes, and fitting out their veſſels before hurricanes come on, leaves no room for nicety of inſpection. It would be a miſtake to imagine that the country agents could be prevailed upon to order goods to be made on their account in hopes of ſelling them with a reaſonable advantage to the company with whom they are engaged. For, beſides that the generality of them are not rich enough to embark in ſo large an undertaking, they would not be certain of finding their account in it. If the company that employ them ſhould be hindered by unforeſeen accidents from ſending the uſual number of ſhips, theſe merchants would have no vent for their commodities. The Indians, the form of whoſe dreſs requires different breadths and lengths from thoſe of the cottons fabricated for our uſe, would not purchaſe them; and the other European companies would be provided, or certain of being provided, with whatever the extent of their trade required, and their money enabled them to purchaſe. The plan of procuring loans, which was contrived to remedy this inconvenience, never has nor can be uſeful. It has been a cuſtom, time immemorial, in Indoſtan, for every citizen who borrows money to give a written inſtrument to his creditor. This deed is of no force in a court of judicature, unleſs it is ſigned by three witneſſes, and bears the day of the month and the year when it was made, with the rate of intereſt agreed upon by the parties. If the borrower fails to fulfil his engagements, he may be arreſted by the lender himſelf. He is never impriſoned, becauſe there is no fear of his making his eſcape. He would not even eat, without obtaining leave of his creditor. The Indians make a three-fold diviſion of intereſt: one kind they call *vice;* another neither *vice* nor *virtue;* and a third, they ſay, is *virtue.* The firſt is four per cent. a month; the ſecond two; and the third one. The laſt is, in their opinion, an act of beneficence that only belongs to the moſt heroic minds. Yet, though the Europeans, who are forced to borrow, meet with this treatment, it is plain they cannot avail themſelves of the indulgence without being involved in ruin.

The foreign trade of Coromandel is not in the hands of the natives. In the weſtern part, indeed, there are Mohammedans known by the name of *Chalias,* who, at Naour and Porto-Nuovo, ſend out ſhips to Acheen, Merguy, Siam, and the eaſtern coaſt. Beſides veſſels of conſiderable burden employed in theſe voyages, they have ſmaller embarkations for the coaſting trade for Ceylon and the pearl fiſhery. The Indians of Maſſulipatan turn their attention another way. They import from Bengal white calicoes, which they dye or print, and ſell them again at the places from whence they had them, at 35 or 40 per cent. advantage. Excepting theſe tranſactions, which are of very little conſequence, the whole trade is veſted in the Europeans, who have no partners but a few Banians and Armenians ſettled in their colonies. The quantity of calicoes exported from Coromandel to the different ports of India may be computed at 3500 bales. Of theſe the French carry 800 to Malabar, Mocha, and

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and the isle of France; the English, 1200 to Bombay, Malabar, Sumatra, and the Philippine islands; and the Dutch 1500 to their different settlements. Except 500 bales destined for Manila, each of the value of 100 guineas, the others are of such an ordinary kind that they do not exceed 30 guineas at prime cost; so that the whole number of bales does not amount to more than about 150,000l.

Coromandel furnishes Europe with 9500 bales; 800 of which are brought by the Danes, 2500 by the French, 3000 by the English, and 3200 by the Dutch. A considerable part of these callicoes are dyed blue, or striped blue and red for the African trade. The others are fine muslins, printed callicoes, and handkerchiefs from Massulipatan, or Paliacate. It is proved by experience that each of these bales costs only about 42l. sterling; consequently they ought to bring in to the manufactory where they are wrought near 360,000l. The payments are not entirely made in specie, either in Europe or Asia; we give in exchange, cloths, iron, lead, copper, coral, and some other articles of less value. On the other hand, Asia pays with spices, pepper, rice, sugar, corn, and dates. All these articles taken together may amount to about 210,000l.; and from this calculation it follows, that Coromandel receives annually from Europe about 300,000l. in money. The British, who have acquired the same superiority on this coast that they have elsewhere, have formed on it several settlements.

CORONA, among anatomists, denotes that edge of the glans penis where the preputium begins.

Corona, or *Halo*, in *Optics*, a luminous circle, surrounding the sun, the moon, the planets, or fixed stars. Sometimes these circles are white, and sometimes coloured like the rainbow. Sometimes one only is visible, and sometimes several concentric coronas make their appearance at the same time. Those which have been seen about Sirius and Jupiter were never more than three, four, or five degrees in diameter; those which surround the moon are also sometimes no more than three or five degrees; but these, as well as those which surround the sun, are of very different magnitudes, viz. of 12° 0′, 22° 35′, 30° 0′, 38° 0′, 41° 2′, 45° 0′, 46° 24′, 47° 0′, and 90°, or even larger than this. Their diameters also sometimes vary during the time of observation, and the breadths both of the coloured and white circles are very different, viz. of 2, 4, or 7 degrees.

The colours of these coronas are more dilute than those of the rainbow; and they are in a different order, according to their size. In those which Newton observed in 1692, they were in the following order, reckoned from the inside. In the innermost were blue, white, and red; in the middle were purple, blue, green, yellow, and pale red; in the outermost, pale blue and pale red. Mr Huygens observed red next the sun, and a pale blue outwards. Sometimes they are red on the inside and white on the outside. M. Weidler observed one that was yellow on the inside and white on the outside. In France, one was observed in 1683, the middle of which was white; after which followed a border of red; next to it was blue, then green, and the outermost circle was a bright red. In 1728, one was seen of a pale red outwardly, then followed yellow, and then green, terminated by a white.

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These coronas are very frequent. In Holland, M. Muschenbroeck says, 50 may be seen in the day-time, almost every year; but they are difficult to be observed, except the eye be so situated, that not the body of the sun, but only the neighbouring parts of the heavens can be seen. Mr Middleton says, that this phenomenon is very frequent in North America; for that there is generally one or two about the sun every week, and as many about the moon every month. Halos round the sun are very frequent in Russia. M. Æpinus says, that from the 23d of April 1758, to the 20th of September, he himself had observed no less than 26, and that he has sometimes seen twice as many in the same space of time.

Coronas may be produced by placing a lighted candle in the midst of steam in cold weather. Also, if glass windows be breathed upon, and the flame of a candle be placed some feet from it, while the spectator is also at the distance of some feet from another part of a window, the flame will be surrounded with a coloured halo. And if a candle be placed behind a glass receiver, when air is admitted into the vacuum within it, at a certain degree of density, the vapour with which it is loaded will make a coloured halo round the flame. This was observed by Otto Guericke. In December 1756, M. Muschenbroeck observed, that when the glass windows of his room were covered with a thin plate of ice on the inside, the moon appearing through it was surrounded with a large and variously coloured halo; and, opening the window, he found that it arose entirely from that thin plate of ice, for none was seen except through it.

Similar, in some respects, to the halo, was the remarkable appearance which M. Bouguer describes, as observed by himself and his companions on the top of Mount Pinchinca, in the Cordilleras. When the sun was just rising behind them, so as to appear white, each of them saw his own shadow projected upon it, and no other. The distance was such, that all the parts of the shadow were easily distinguishable, as the arms, the legs, and the head; but what surprised them most was, that the head was adorned with a kind of glory, consisting of three or four small concentric crowns, of a very lively colour, each exhibiting all the varieties of the primary rainbow, and having the circle of red on the outside. The intervals between these circles continued equal, though the diameters of them all were constantly changing. The last of them was very faint, and at a considerable distance was another great white circle which surrounded the whole. As near as M. Bouguer could compute, the diameter of the first of these circles was about $5\frac{3}{4}$ degrees, that of the second 11, that of the third 17, and so on: but the diameter of the white circle was about 76 degrees. This phenomenon never appeared but in a cloud consisting of frozen particles, and never in drops of rain like the rainbow. When the sun was not in the horizon, only part of the white circle was visible, as M. Bouguer frequently observed afterwards.

Similar also to this curious appearance was one that was observed by Dr M'Feat in Scotland. This gentleman observed a rainbow round his shadow in the mist.

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mist, when he was upon an eminence above it. In this situation the whole country round seemed, as it were, buried under a vast deluge, and nothing but the tops of distant hills appeared here and there above the flood: so that a man would think of diving down into it with a kind of horror. In those upper regions the air, he says, is at that time very pure and agreeable to breathe in. At another time he observed a double range of colours round his shadow in these circumstances. The colours of the outermost range were broad and very distinct, and everywhere about two feet distant from the shadow. Then there was a darkish interval, and after that another narrower range of colours, closely surrounding the shadow, which was very much contracted. This person seems to think that these ranges of colours are caused by the inflection of the rays of light, the same that occasioned the ring of light which surrounds the shadows of all bodies, observed by M. Maraldi, and this author*. But the prodigious variety with which these appearances are exhibited seems to show that many of them do not result from the general laws of reflection, refraction, or inflection, belonging to transparent substances of a large mass; but upon the alternate reflection and transmission of the different kinds of rays, peculiar to substances reduced to the form of thin plates, or consisting of separate and very minute parts. But where the dimensions of the coronas are pretty constant, as in the usual and larger halo, which is about half the diameter of the rainbow, they may, perhaps, be explained on the general principles of refraction only.

* *Edin. Essays*, vol. i. p. 198.

Descartes observes, that the halo never appears when it rains: from which he concludes that this phenomenon is occasioned by the refraction of light in the round particles of ice, which are then floating in the atmosphere; and though these particles are flat when they fall to the ground, he thought they must be protuberant in the middle, before their descent; and according to this protuberancy he imagined that the diameter of the halo would vary.—In treating of meteors, Gassendi supposed that a halo is the same thing with the rainbow, the rays of light being in both cases twice refracted and once reflected within each drop of rain or vapour, and that all the difference there is between them arises from their different situation with respect to the observer. For, whereas, when the sun is behind the spectator, and consequently the rainbow before him, his eye is in the centre of the circle; when he views the halo, with his face towards the sun, his eye is in the circumference of the circle; so that according to the known principles of geometry, the angle under which the object appears in this case must be just half of what it is in the other. Though this writer says a great deal upon the subject, and endeavours to give reasons why the colours of the halo are in a different order to those of the rainbow, he does not describe the progress of the rays of light from the sun to the eye of the spectator, when a halo is formed by them, and he gives no figures to explain his ideas.

Dechales, also, endeavours to show that the generation of the halo is similar to that of the rainbow. If, says he, a sphere of glass or crystal, AB, (fig. 1.) full of water, be placed in the beams of the sun shining from C, there will not only be two circles of coloured light on the side next the sun, and which constitute the two rainbows; but there will also be another on the part opposite to the sun, the rays belonging to which meeting at E, afterwards diverge, and form the coloured circle G, as will be visible, if the light that is transmitted through the globe be received on a piece of white paper. The colours also will appear to an eye placed in any part of the surface of the cone FEG. Measuring the angle FEH, he found it to be 23 degrees. They were only the extreme rays of this cone that were coloured like those of the rainbow.

Plate CLXIV. fig. 1.

This experiment he thought sufficiently illustrated the generation of the halo; so that whenever the texture of the clouds is such, as not entirely to intercept the rays of the sun or moon, and yet have some degree of density, there will always be a halo round them, the colours of the rainbow appearing in those drops which are 23 degrees distant from the sun or moon. If the sun be at A (fig. 2.), and the spectator in B, the halo will be the circle DFE, DBE, being 46 degrees, or twice 23.

Fig. 2.

The reason why the colours of the halo are more dilute than those of the rainbow, he says, is owing principally to their being formed not in large drops of rain, but in very small vapour; for if the drops of water were large, the cloud would be so thick, that the rays of the sun could not be regularly transmitted through them; and, on the other hand, he had observed, that when the rainbow is formed by very thin vapours, the colours hardly appear. As for those circles of colours which are sometimes seen around candles, it was his opinion that they are owing to nothing but moisture on the eye of the observer; for that he could never produce this appearance by means of vapour only, if he wiped his eyes carefully; and he had observed that such circles are visible to some persons and not to others, and to the same persons at one time and not at another.

The most considerable of all the theories respecting halos, and that which has met with the most favourable and longest reception, is that of Mr Huygens. Sir Isaac Newton mentions it with respect, and Dr Smith, in his Complete System of Optics, does not so much as hint at any other. The occasion of Mr Huygens publishing his thoughts on this subject, was the appearance of a halo at Paris, on the 12th of May 1667, of which he gave an account in a paper read at the Royal Academy in that city, which was afterwards translated, and published in the English Philosophical Transactions, and which may be seen in Lowthorp's Abridgment, vol. ii. p. 189. But this article contains nothing more than the heads of a discourse, which he afterwards composed, but never quite finished, on this subject; and which has been translated, with some additions, by Dr Smith, from whom the following account is chiefly extracted.

Our philosopher had been first engaged to think particularly upon this subject, by the appearance of five suns at Warsaw, in 1658; presently after which, he says, he hit upon the true cause of halos, and not long after that of mock suns also.

To prepare the way for the following observations, it must be remarked, that if we can conceive any kind of bodies in the atmosphere, which, according to the known laws of optics, will, either by means of reflection

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tion or refraction, produce the appearance in queſtion, when nothing elſe can be found that will do it, we muſt acquieſce in the hypotheſis, and ſuppoſe ſuch bodies to exiſt, even though we cannot give a ſatisfactory account of their generation. Now, two ſuch bodies are aſſumed by Mr Huygens; one of them a round ball, opaque in the centre, but covered with a tranſparent ſhell; and the other is a cylinder, of a ſimilar compoſition. By the help of the former he endeavours to account for halos, and by the latter for thoſe appearances which are called mock ſuns. Thoſe bodies which Mr Huygens requires, in order to explain theſe phenomena, are not, however, a mere aſſumption; for ſome ſuch, though of a larger ſize than his purpoſe requires, have been actually found, conſiſting of ſnow within and ice without. They are particularly mentioned by Deſcartes.

The balls with the opaque kernel, which he ſuppoſed to have been the cauſe of them, he imagines not to exceed the ſize of a turnip-ſeed; but, in order to illuſtrate this hypotheſis, he gives a figure of one, of a larger ſize, in ABCDEF, (fig. 3.) repreſenting the kernel of ſnow in the middle of it. If the rays of light, coming from GH, fall upon the ſide AD, it is manifeſt they will be ſo refracted at A and D, as to bend inwards; and many of them will ſtrike upon the kernel EF. Others, however, as GA and HD, will only touch the ſides of the kernel; and being again refracted at B and C, will emerge in the lines BK, CK, croſſing each other in the point K, whoſe neareſt diſtance from the globule is ſomewhat leſs than its apparent diameter. If, therefore, BK and CK be produced towards M and L (fig. 4.), it is evident that no light can reach the eye placed within the angle LKM, but may fall upon it when placed out of that angle, or rather the cone repreſented by it.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

For the ſame reaſon, every other of theſe globules will have a ſhadow behind it, in which the light of the ſun will not be perceived. If the eye be at N, and that be conceived to be the vertex of a cone, the ſides of which, NR, NQ, are parallel to the ſides of the former cone KL, KM, it is evident that none of the globules within the cone QNR can ſend any rays of the ſun to the eye at N. But any other globule out of this cone, as X, may ſend thoſe rays, which are more refracted than XZ, to the eye; ſo that this will appear enlightened, while thoſe within the cone will appear obſcure. It is evident from this, that a certain area, or ſpace, quite round the ſun, muſt appear dark; and that the ſpace next to this area will appear luminous, and more ſo in thoſe parts that are neareſt to the obſcure area; becauſe, he ſays, it may eaſily be demonſtrated, that thoſe globules which are neareſt to the cone QNR exhibit the largeſt image of the ſun. It is plain, alſo, that a corona ought to be produced in the ſame manner, whatever be the ſun's altitude, becauſe of the ſpherical figure of the globules.

To verify this hypotheſis, our philoſopher adviſes us to expoſe to the ſun a thin glaſs bubble, filled with water, and having ſome opaque ſubſtance in the centre of it; and he ſays we ſhall find, that we ſhall not be able to ſee the ſun through it, unleſs at a certain diſtance from a place oppoſite to the centre of it; but as ſoon as we do perceive the light, the image of the ſun will immediately appear the brighteſt, and coloured red, for the ſame reaſon as in the rainbow.

Corona.

Theſe coronas, he ſays, often appear about the moon; but the colours are ſo weak as to appear only white. Such white coronas he had alſo ſeen about the ſun, when the ſpace within them appeared ſcarce darker than that without. This he ſuppoſes to happen when there are but few of thoſe globules in the atmoſphere; for the more plentiful they are, the more lively the colours of the halo appear; at the ſame time alſo the area within the corona will be the darker. The apparent diameter of the corona, which is generally about 45 degrees, depends upon the ſize of the dark kernel; for the larger it is with reſpect to the whole globule, the larger will be the dark cone behind it.

The globules that form theſe halos, Mr Huygens ſuppoſes to have conſiſted of ſoft ſnow, and to have been rounded by continual agitation in the air, and thawed on their outſides by the heat of the ſun.

To make the diameter of the halo 45 degrees, he demonſtrates that the ſemidiameter of the globule muſt be to the ſemidiameter of the kernel of ſnow very nearly as 1000 to 480; and that to make a corona of 100 degrees, it muſt be as 1000 to 680.

Mr Weidler, in his Commentary on parhelia, publiſhed at Wirtemberg in 1733, obſerves, that it is very improbable that ſuch globules as Mr Huygens's hypotheſis requires, with nuclei of ſuch a preciſe proportion, ſhould exiſt; and if there were ſuch bodies, he thinks they would be too ſmall to produce the effects aſcribed to them. Beſides, he obſerves that appearances exactly ſimilar to halos are not uncommon, where fluid vapours alone are concerned; as when a candle is placed behind the ſteam of boiling water in froſty weather, or in the midſt of the vapour iſſuing copiouſly from a bath, or behind a receiver when the air is ſo much rarefied as to be incapable of ſupporting the water it contains. The rays of the ſun twice reflected and twice refracted within ſmall drops of water are ſufficient, he ſays, without any opaque kernel, to produce all the appearances of the halos that have the red light towards the ſun, as may be proved by experiment. That the diameter of the halos is generally half of that of the rainbow, he accounts for as Gaſſendi did before him.

M. Mariotte accounts for the formation of the ſmall coronas by the tranſmiſſion of light through aqueous vapours, where it ſuffers two refractions, without any intermediate reflection. He ſhows that light which comes to the eye, after being refracted in this manner, will be chiefly that which falls upon the drop nearly perpendicular; becauſe more rays fall upon any given quantity of ſurface in that ſituation, fewer of them are reflected with ſmall degrees of obliquity, and they are not ſo much ſcattered after refraction. The red will always be outermoſt in theſe coronas, as conſiſting of rays which ſuffer the leaſt refraction. And whereas he had ſeen, when the clouds were driven briſkly by the wind, halos round the moon, varying frequently in their diameter, being ſometimes of two, ſometimes of three, and ſometimes of four degrees; ſometimes alſo being coloured, ſometimes only white, and ſometimes diſappearing entirely; he concluded that all theſe variations aroſe from the differ-

ent thickneſs of the clouds, through which ſometimes more and ſometimes leſs light was tranſmitted. He ſuppoſed, alſo, that the light which formed them might ſometimes be reflected, and at other times refracted. As to thoſe coronas which conſiſt of two orders of colours, he imagined that they were produced by ſmall pieces of ſnow, which, when they begin to diſſolve, form figures which are a little convex towards their extremities. Sometimes, alſo, the ſnow will be melted in different ſhapes; and in this caſe, the colours of ſeveral halos will be intermixed, and confuſed; and ſuch, he ſays, he had ſometimes obſerved round the ſun.

M. Mariotte then proceeds to explain the larger coronas, namely thoſe that are about 45 degrees in diameter, and for this purpoſe he has recourſe to equiangular priſms of ice, in a certain poſition with reſpect to the ſun; and he takes pains to trace the progreſs of the rays of light for this purpoſe; but this hypotheſis is very improbable. In ſome caſes he thought that theſe large coronas were cauſed by hailſtones, of a pyramidal figure; becauſe after two or three of them had been ſeen about the ſun, there fell the ſame day ſeveral ſuch pyramidal hailſtones. M. Mariotte explains parhelia by the help of the ſame ſuppoſitions. See PARHELIA.

Sir Iſaac Newton does not appear to have given any particular attention to the ſubject of halos, but he has hinted at his ſentiments concerning them occaſionally; by which we perceive that he conſidered the larger and leſs variable appearances of this kind as produced according to the common laws of refraction, but that the leſs and more variable appearances depend upon the ſame cauſe with the colours of thin plates.

He concludes his explication of the rainbow with the following obſervations on halos and parhelias. "The light which comes through drops of rain by two refractions, without any reflection, ought to appear the ſtrongeſt at the diſtance of about 20 degrees from the ſun, and to decay gradually both ways as the diſtance from him increaſes. And the ſame is to be underſtood of light tranſmitted through ſpherical hailſtones: and if hail be a little flatted, as it often is, the tranſmitted light may be ſo ſtrong, at a little leſs diſtance than that of 26 degrees, as to form a halo about the ſun or moon; which halo, as often as the hailſtones are duly figured, may be coloured, and then it muſt be red within by the leaſt refrangible rays, and blue without by the moſt refrangible ones: eſpecially if the hailſtones have opaque globules of ſnow in their centres to intercept the light within the halo, as Mr Huygens has obſerved, and make the inſide of it more diſtinctly defined than it would otherwiſe be. For ſuch hailſtones, though ſpherical, by terminating the light by the ſnow, may make a halo red within, and colourleſs without, and darker within the red than without, as halos uſe to be. For of thoſe rays which paſs cloſe by the ſnow, the red-making ones will be the leaſt refracted, and ſo come to the eye in the ſtraighteſt lines."

Some farther thoughts of Sir Iſaac Newton on the ſubject of halos we find ſubjoined to the account of his experiments on the colours of thick plates of glaſs, which he conceived to be ſimilar to thoſe which are exhibited by thin ones. "As light reflected by a lens quickſilvered on the back ſide makes the rings of the colours above deſcribed, ſo (he ſays) it ought to make the like rings in paſſing through a drop of water. At the firſt reflection of the rays within the drop, ſome colours ought to be tranſmitted, as in the caſe of a lens, and others to be reflected back to the eye. For inſtance, if the diameter of a ſmall drop or globule of water be about the 500dth part of an inch, ſo that a red-making ray, in paſſing through the middle of this globule, has 250 fits of eaſy tranſmiſſion within the globule, and all the red-making rays which are at a certain diſtance from this middle ray round about it have 249 fits within the globule, and all the like rays at a certain further diſtance round about it have 248 fits, and all thoſe at a certain farther diſtance 247 fits, and ſo on; theſe concentric circles of rays, after their tranſmiſſion, falling on a white paper, will make concentric rings of red upon the paper, ſuppoſing the light which paſſes through one ſingle globule ſtrong enough to be ſenſible; and in like manner the rays of other colours will make rings of other colours. Suppoſe now that in a fair day the ſun ſhould ſhine through a thin cloud of ſuch globules of water or hail, and that the globules are all of the ſame ſize, the ſun ſeen through this cloud ought to appear ſurrounded with the like concentric rings of colours, and the diameter of the firſt ring of red ſhould be $7\frac{1}{4}°$, that of the ſecond $10\frac{1}{4}°$, that of the third $12° 33'$, and according as the globules of water are bigger or leſs, the ring ſhould be leſs or bigger."

This curious theory our author informs us was confirmed by an obſervation which he made in 1692. He ſaw by reflection, in a veſſel of ſtagnating water, three halos, crowns, or rings of colours about the ſun, like three little rainbows concentric to his body. The colours of the firſt, or innermoſt crown, were blue next the ſun, red without, and white in the middle, between the blue and red. Thoſe of the ſecond crown were purple and blue within, and pale red without, and green in the middle. And thoſe of the third were pale blue within, and pale red without. Theſe crowns incloſed one another immediately, ſo that their colours proceeded in this continual order from the ſun outward; blue, white, red; purple, blue, green, pale yellow, and red; pale blue, pale red. The diameter of the ſecond crown, meaſured from the middle of the yellow and red on one ſide of the ſun, to the middle of the ſame colour on the other ſide, was $9\frac{1}{3}$ degrees or thereabouts. The diameters of the firſt and third he had not time to meaſure; but that of the firſt ſeemed to be about five or ſix degrees, and that of the ſecond about twelve. The like crowns appear ſometimes about the moon; for in the beginning of the year 1664, on February 19th at night, he ſaw two ſuch crowns about her. The diameter of the firſt or innermoſt was about three degrees, and that of the ſecond about five degrees and a half. Next about the moon was a circle of white; and next about that the inner crown, which was of a bluiſh green within, next the white, and of a yellowiſh and red without; and next about theſe colours were blue and green on the inſide of the outer crown, and red on the outſide of it.

At the ſame time there appeared a halo at the diſtance

ſtance of about 22° 35′ from the centre of the moon. It was elliptical; and its long diameter was perpendicular to the horizon, verging below farthest from the moon. He was told, that the moon has ſometimes three or more concentric crowns of colours encompaſſing one another next about her body. The more equal the globules of water or ice are to one another, the more crowns of colours will appear, and the colours will be the more lively. The halo, at the diſtance of 22½ degrees from the moon, is of another ſort. By its being oval, and more remote from the moon below than above, he concludes that it was made by refraction in ſome kind of hail or ſnow floating in the air in an horizontal poſture, the refracting angle being about 50 or 60 degrees. Dr Smith, however, makes it ſufficiently evident, that the reaſon why this halo appeared oval, and more remote from the moon towards the horizon, is a deception of ſight, and the ſame with that which makes the moon appear larger in the horizon.

Dr Kotelnihow having, like Dr Halley, made very accurate obſervations to determine the number of poſſible rainbows, conſiders the coloured halo which appears about a candle as the ſame thing with one of theſe bows which is formed near the body of the ſun, but which is not viſible on account of his exceſſive ſplendor.

Laſtly, M. Muſchenbroeck concludes his account of coronas with obſerving, that ſome denſity of vapour, or ſome thickneſs of the plates of ice, divides the light in its tranſmiſſion through the ſmall globules of water, or their interſtices, into its ſeparate colours: but what that denſity was, or what was the ſize of the particles which compoſed the vapour, he could not pretend to determine.

CORONA, among botaniſts, the name given by ſome to the circumference or margin of a radiated compound flower. It correſponds to the radius of Linnæus; and is exemplified in the flat, tongue-ſhaped petals which occupy the margin of the daiſy or ſunflower.

CORONA Auſtralis or *Meridionalis*, Southern Crown, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere, whoſe ſtars in Ptolemy's catalogue are 13, in the Britiſh catalogue 12.

CORONA Borealis, the Northern Crown or Garland, in *Aſtronomy*, a conſtellation of the northern hemiſphere, whoſe ſtars in Ptolemy's catalogue are eight, in Tycho's as many, and in Mr Flamſtead's 21.

CORONA Imperialis, in *Conchology*, a name given by ſome authors to a kind of voluta, differing from the other ſhells of that family, by having its head ornamented with a number of points, forming a ſort of crown. See VOLUTA, CONCHOLOGY *Index*.

CORONALE, in *Anatomy*, the firſt ſuture of the ſkull. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORONALE OS, the ſame with os frontis. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORONARY VESSELS, in *Anatomy*, certain veſſels which furniſh the ſubſtance of the heart with blood.

CORONARY Arteries, are two arteries ſpringing out of the aorta, before it leaves the pericardium. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORONARY Vein, a vein diffuſed over the exterior ſurface of the heart. See ANATOMY *Index*.

Stomachic CORONARY, a vein inſerted into the trunk of the ſplenic vein, which, by uniting with the meſenteric, forms the vena porta. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORONARIÆ, in *Botany*, the 10th order of plants in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method. Under this name, inſtead of the more obvious one *bacciæ*, Linnæus collects a great number of genera, moſt of which furniſh very beautiful garden flowers, viz. albuca, cyanella, fritillaria, helonias, hyacinthus, hypoxis, lilium, melanthium, ornithogalom, ſcilla, tulipa, agave, aletris, aloe, anthericum, aſphodelus, bromelia, burmannia, hemerocallis, polyanthes, tillandſia, veratrum, yucca.

CORONATION, the ceremony of inveſting with a crown, particularly applied to the crowning of kings, upon their ſucceeding to the ſovereignty. See KING.

CORONÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Bœotia, near Mount Helicon, and the lake Copais, ſituated on an eminence: famous for the defeat of the Athenians and Bœotians by Ageſilaus. Another Corona of Theſſaly; having Narthacium to the eaſt, and Lamia near the Sperchius to the north (Ptolemy).

CORONE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Meſſenia, ſituated on the ſea, giving name to the Sinus Coronæus, (Pliny); now *Golfo di Coron*. Pauſanius takes it to be the *Æpea* of Homer; but Strabo *Thuria*, and Pliny *Pedaſus*, now *Coron*, in the territory of Belvidere, in the Morea. E. Long. 22. N. Lat. 36. 30.

CORONELLI, VINCENT, a famous geographer, was born at Venice. His ſkill in the mathematics having brought him to the knowledge of the count d'Eſtrees, his eminence employed him in making globes for Louis XIV. With this view Coronelli ſpent ſome time at Paris, and left a great number of globes there, which are eſteemed. In 1685, he was made coſmographer to the republic of Venice; and four years after public profeſſor of geography. He founded an academy of coſmography at Venice; and died in that city in 1718. He publiſhed about 400 geographical charts, an abridgment of coſmography, ſeveral books on geography, and other works.

CORONER (*coronator*), an ancient officer in England, ſo called becauſe he hath principally to do with pleas of the crown, or ſuch wherein the king is more immediately concerned. And in this light the lord chief juſtice of the king's bench is the principal coroner in the kingdom; and may, if he pleaſes, exerciſe the juriſdiction of a coroner in any part of the realm. But there are alſo particular coroners for every county in England; uſually four, but ſometimes ſix, and ſometimes fewer. This officer is of equal authority with the ſheriff; and was ordained, together with him, to keep the peace, when the earls gave up the wardſhip of the county.

He is choſen by all the freeholders of the county court; and by the ſtatute of Weſtminſter 1. it was enacted, that none but lawful and diſcreet knights ſhould be choſen; but it ſeems now ſufficient if a man have land enough to be made a knight, whether he be really knighted or not; for the coroner ought to have an eſtate ſufficient to maintain the dignity of his office, and anſwer any fines that may be made upon him for his

Coroner || Coronilla.

his misbehaviour; and, if he hath not enough to answer, his fine shall be levied on the county, as a punishment for electing an insufficient officer. Now, indeed, through the culpable neglect of gentlemen of property, this office has been suffered to fall into disrepute, and get into low and indigent hands; so that although formerly no coroners would be paid for serving their country, and they were by the aforesaid statute of Westminster 1. expresly forbidden to take a reward under pain of great forfeiture to the king, yet for many years past they have only desired to be chosen for the sake of their perquisites; being allowed fees for their attendance by the statute 3 Hen. VII. c. 1. which Sir Edward Coke complains of heavily, though since his time those fees have been much enlarged.

The coroner is chosen for life; but may be removed, either by being made sheriff or chosen verderor, which are offices incompatible with the other; and by the statute 25 Geo. II. c. 29. extortion, neglect, or misbehaviour, are also made causes of removal.

The office and power of a coroner are also, like those of the sheriff, either judicial or ministerial; but principally judicial. This is in a great measure ascertained by statute 4 Edw. I. *De officio coronatoris;* and consists, first, in inquiring, when any person is slain, or dies suddenly, or in prison, concerning the manner of his death. And this must be *super visum corporis;* for if the body is not found, the coroner cannot sit. He must also sit at the very place where the death happened. And his inquiry is made by a jury from four, five, or six, of the neighbouring towns, over whom he is to preside. If any be found guilty by this inquest of murder, he is to commit to prison for farther trial, and is also to inquire concerning their lands, goods, and chattels, which are forfeited thereby; but whether it be murder or not, he must inquire whether any deodand has accrued to the king, or the lord of the franchise, by this death; and must certify the whole of this inquisition to the court of king's bench, or the next assizes. Another branch of his office is to inquire concerning shipwrecks; and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. Concerning treasure-trove, he is also to inquire concerning the finders, and where it is, and whether any one be suspected of having found and concealed a treasure; "and that may well be perceived (saith the old statute of Edw. I.) where one liveth riotously, haunting taverns, and hath done so of long time;" whereupon he might be attached and held to bail upon this suspicion only.

The ministerial office of the coroner is only as the sheriff's substitute. For when just exception can be taken to the sheriff, for suspicion of partiality (as that he is interested in the suit, or of kindred to either plaintiff or defendant), the process must then be awarded to the coroner, instead of the sheriff, for execution of the king's writs.

CORONET. See CROWN.

CORONET, or *Cornet*, of a horse, the lowest part of the pastern, which runs through the coffin, and is distinguished by the hair joining and covering the upper part of the hoof.

CORONILLA, *Jointed-podded* COLUTEA; a genus of plants belonging to the diadelphia class, and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

Coronilla || Corporation.

CORONOID, and CONDYLOID, processes. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORPORA CAVERNOSA, in *Anatomy*, two spongious bodies, called also *corpora nervosa* and *corpus spongiosum*. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORPORA Pyramidalia, are two protuberances of the under part of the *cerebellum*, about an inch long; so called from their resemblance to a pyramid. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORPORA Striata. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORPORAL, an inferior officer under a sergeant, in a company of foot, who has charge over one of the divisions, places and relieves sentinels, and keeps good order in the corps de garde; he also receives the word from the inferior rounds which passes by his corps de garde. This officer carries a fusee, and is commonly an old soldier; there are generally three corporals in each company.

CORPORAL of a Ship of War, an officer under the master at arms, employed to teach the officers the exercise of small arms, or of musketry; to attend at the gangway, on entering ports, and observe that no spirituous liquors are brought into the ship, unless by express leave from the officers. He is also to extinguish the fire and candles at eight o'clock in winter, and nine in summer, when the evening gun is fired; and to walk frequently down in the lower decks in his watch, to see that there are no lights but such as are under the charge of proper sentinels.

CORPORAL (*Corporale*), is also an ancient church-term, signifying the sacred linen spread under the chalice in the eucharist and mass, to receive the fragments of the bread, if any chance to fall. Some say it was Pope Eusebius who first enjoined the use of the corporal; others ascribe it to St Sylvester. It was the custom to carry corporals, with some solemnity, to fires, and to heave them against the flames, in order to extinguish them. Philip de Comines says, the pope made Louis XI. a present of the corporale whereon my lord St Peter sung mass.

CORPORATION, a body politic or incorporate, so called, because the persons or members are joined into one body, and are qualified to take, grant, &c.

Of corporations there is a great variety subsisting, for the advancement of religion, of learning, and of commerce; in order to preserve entire and for ever those rights and immunities, which, if they were granted only to those individuals of which the body corporate is composed, would upon their death be utterly lost and extinct. To show the advantages of these incorporations, let us consider the case of a college in either of our universities, founded *ad studendum et orandum*, for the encouragemant and support of religion and learning. If this was a mere voluntary assembly, the individuals which compose it might indeed read, pray, study, and perform scholastic exercises together, so long as they could agree to do so; but they could neither frame nor receive any laws or rules of their conduct; none at least which would have any binding force, for want of a coercive power to create a sufficient obligation. Neither could they be capable of retaining any privileges or immunities: for,

for, if ſuch privileges be attacked, which of all this unconnected aſſembly has the right or ability to defend them? And, when they are diſperſed by death or otherwiſe, how ſhall they transfer theſe advantages to another ſet of ſtudents, equally unconnected as themſelves? So alſo, with regard to holding eſtates or other property, if land be granted for the purpoſes of religion or learning to 20 individuals not incorporated, there is no legal way of continuing the property to any other perſons for the ſame purpoſes, but by endleſs conveyances from one to the other, as often as the hands are changed. But when they are conſolidated and united into a corporation, they and their ſucceſſors are then conſidered as one perſon in law: as one perſon, they have one will, which is collected from the ſenſe of the majority of the individuals: this one will may eſtabliſh rules and orders for the regulation of the whole, which are a ſort of municipal laws of this little republic; or rules and ſtatutes may be preſcribed to it at its creation, which are then in the place of natural laws: the privileges and immunities, the eſtates and poſſeſſions, of the corporation, when once veſted in them, will be for ever veſted, without any new conveyance to new ſucceſſions; for all the individual members that have exiſted from the foundation to the preſent time, or that ſhall ever hereafter exiſt, are but one perſon in law, a perſon that never dies: in like manner as the river Thames is ſtill the ſame river, though the parts which compoſe it are changing every inſtant.

The original invention of theſe political conſtitutions ſeems entirely to belong to the Romans. They were introduced, as Plutarch ſays, by Numa; who finding, upon his acceſſion, the city torn to pieces by the two rival factions of Sabines and Romans, thought it a prudent and politic meaſure to ſubdivide theſe two into many ſmaller ones, by inſtituting ſeparate ſocieties of every manual trade and profeſſion. They were afterwards much conſidered by the civil law, in which they were called *univerſitates*, as forming one whole out of many individuals; or *collegia*, from being gathered together: they were adopted alſo by the canon law, for the maintenance of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline; and from them our ſpiritual corporations are derived. But our laws have conſiderably refined and improved upon the invention, according to the uſual genius of the Engliſh nation, particularly with regard to ſole corporations, conſiſting of one perſon only, of which the Roman lawyers had no notion; their maxim being that *Tres faciunt collegium;* though they held, that if a corporation, originally conſiſting of three perſons, be reduced to one, *Si univerſitas ad unum redit;* it may ſtill ſubſiſt as a corporation, *Et ſtet nomen univerſitatis.*

As to the ſeveral ſorts of corporations, the firſt diviſion of them is into *aggregate* and *ſole*. Corporations aggregate conſiſt of many perſons united together into one ſociety, and are kept up by a perpetual ſucceſſion of members, ſo as to continue for ever: of which kind are the mayor and commonalty of a city, the head and fellows of a college, the dean and chapter of a cathedral church. Corporations ſole conſiſt of one perſon only and his ſucceſſors, in ſome particular ſtation, who are incorporated by law, in order to give them ſome legal capacities and advantages, particularly that of perpetuity, which in their natural perſons they could not have had. In this ſenſe the king is a ſole corporation; ſo is a biſhop; ſo are ſome deacons and prebendaries, diſtinct from their ſeveral chapters; and ſo is every parſon and vicar. And the neceſſity, or at leaſt uſe, of this inſtitution will be very apparent, if we conſider the caſe of a parſon of a church. At the original endowment of pariſh churches, the freehold of the church, the church-yard, the parſonage-houſe, the glebe, and the tithes of the pariſh, were veſted in the then parſon by the bounty of the donor, as a temporal recompenſe to him for his ſpiritual care of the inhabitants, and with intent that the ſame emoluments ſhould ever afterwards continue as a recompenſe for the ſame care. But how was this to be effected? The freehold was veſted in the parſon; and if we ſuppoſe it veſted in his natural capacity, on his death it might deſcend to his heir, and would be liable to his debts and incumbrances: or at beſt, the heir might be compellable, at ſome trouble and expence, to convey theſe rights to the ſucceeding incumbent. The law therefore has wiſely ordained, that the parſon, *quatenus* parſon, ſhall never die, any more than the king; by making him and his ſucceſſors a corporation. By which means all the original rights of the parſonage are preſerved entire to the ſucceſſor; for the preſent incumbent, and his predeceſſor who lived ſeven centuries ago, are in law one and the ſame perſon; and what was given to the one was given to the other alſo.

Another diviſion of corporations, either ſole or aggregate, is into *eccleſiaſtical* and *lay*. Eccleſiaſtical corporations are, where the members that compoſe it are entirely ſpiritual perſons, ſuch as biſhops, certain deans and prebendaries, all archdeacons, parſons, and vicars, which are ſole corporations; deans and chapters at preſent, and formerly prior and convent, abbot and monks, and the like, bodies aggregate. Theſe are erected for the furtherance of religion, and perpetuating the rights of the church.—Lay corporations are of two ſorts, *civil* and *eleemoſynary*. The civil are ſuch as are erected for a variety of temporal purpoſes. The king, for inſtance, is made a corporation, to prevent in general the poſſibility of an *interregnum* or vacancy of the throne, and to preſerve the poſſeſſions of the crown entire; for immediately upon the demiſe of one king, his ſucceſſor is in full poſſeſſion of the regal rights and dignity. Other lay corporations are erected for the good government of a town or particular diſtrict, as a mayor and commonalty, bailiff and burgeſſes, or the like: ſome for the advancement and regulation of manufactures and commerce; as the trading companies of London and other towns: and ſome for the better carrying on of divers ſpecial purpoſes; as church wardens, for conſervation of the goods of the pariſh; the college of phyſicians and company of ſurgeons in London, for the improvement of the medical ſcience; the royal ſociety for the advancement of natural knowledge; and the ſociety of antiquarians for promoting the ſtudy of antiquities. The eleemoſynary ſort are ſuch as are conſtituted for the perpetual diſtribution of the free alms or bounty of the founder of them to ſuch perſons as he has directed. Of this kind are all hoſpitals for the maintenance of the poor, ſick, and impotent; and all colleges, both *in* our univerſities and *out* of them: which colleges are founded for two purpoſes:

poſes: 1. For the promotion of piety and learning by proper regulations and ordinances. 2. For imparting aſſiſtance to the members of thoſe bodies, in order to enable them to proſecute their devotion and ſtudies with greater eaſe and aſſiduity. And all theſe eleemoſynary corporations are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, lay, and not eccleſiaſtical, even though compoſed of eccleſiaſtical perſons, and although they in ſome things partake of the nature, privileges, and reſtrictions of eccleſiaſtical bodies.

Having thus marſhalled the ſeveral ſpecies of corporations, let us next proceed to conſider, 1. How corporations in general may be created. 2. What are their powers, capacities, and incapacities. And, 3. How they may be diſſolved.

I. Corporations, by the civil law, ſeem to have been created by the mere act and voluntary aſſociation of their members; provided ſuch convention was not contrary to law, for then it was *illicitum collegium*. It does not appear that the prince's conſent was neceſſary to be actually given to the foundation of them; but merely that the original founders of theſe voluntary and friendly ſocieties (for they were little more than ſuch) ſhould not eſtabliſh any meetings in oppoſition to the laws of the ſtate.

But in England the king's conſent is abſolutely neceſſary to the erection of any corporation, either impliedly or expreſsly given. The king's implied conſent is to be found in corporations which exiſt by force of the common law, to which our former kings are ſuppoſed to have given their concurrence; common law being nothing elſe but cuſtom, ariſing from the univerſal agreement of the whole community. Of this ſort are the king himſelf, all biſhops, parſons, vicars, church-wardens, and ſome others; who by common law have ever been held (as far as our books can ſhow us) to have been corporations, *virtute officii;* and this incorporation is ſo inſeparably annexed to their offices, that we cannot frame a complete legal idea of any of thoſe perſons, but we muſt alſo have an idea of a corporation, capable to tranſmit his rights to his ſucceſſors, at the ſame time. Another method of implication, whereby the king's conſent is preſumed, is as to all corporations by preſcription, ſuch as the city of London, and many others, which have exiſted as corporations, time whereof the memory of man runneth out to the contrary; and therefore are looked upon in law to be well created. For though the members thereof can ſhow no legal charter of incorporation, yet in caſes of ſuch high antiquity the law preſumes there once was one; and that by the variety of accidents, which a length of time may produce, the charter is loſt or deſtroyed. The methods by which the king's conſent is expreſsly given, are either by act of parliament or charter. By act of parliament, of which the royal aſſent is a neceſſary ingredient, corporations may undoubtedly be created: but it is obſervable, that moſt of thoſe ſtatutes which are uſually cited as having created corporations, do either confirm ſuch as have been before created by the king; as in the caſe of the college of phyſicians, erected by charter 10 Hen. VIII. which charter was afterwards confirmed in parliament: or, they permit the king to erect a corporation *in futuro* with ſuch and ſuch powers; as is the caſe of the bank of England, and the ſociety of the Britiſh fiſhery. So that the immediate creative act is uſually performed by the king alone, in virtue of his royal prerogative.

All the other methods therefore whereby corporations exiſt, by common law, by preſcription, and by act of parliament, are for the moſt part reducible to this of the king's letters patent, or charter of incorporation. The king's creation may be performed by the words *creamus*, *erigimus*, *fundamus*, *incorporamus*, or the like. Nay it is held, that if the king grants to a ſet of men to have *gildam mercatorium*, "a mercantile meeting or aſſembly," this is alone ſufficient to incorporate and eſtabliſh them for ever.

The king (it is ſaid) may grant to a ſubject the power of erecting corporations, though the contrary was formerly held; that is, he may permit the ſubject to name the perſons and powers of the corporation at his pleaſure; but it is really the king that erects, and the ſubject is but the inſtrument; for though none but the king can make a corporation, yet *qui facit per alium, facit per ſe.* In this manner the chancellor to the univerſity of Oxford has power by charter to erect corporations; and has actually often exerted it in the erection of ſeveral matriculated companies, now ſubſiſting, of tradeſmen ſubſervient to the ſtudents.

When a corporation is erected, a name muſt be given to it; and by that name alone it muſt ſue and be ſued, and do all legal acts.

II. After a corporation is ſo formed and named, it acquires many powers and rights, which we are next to conſider. Some of theſe are neceſſarily and inſeparably incident to every corporation; which incidents as ſoon as a corporation is duly erected, are tacitly annexed of courſe. As, 1. To have perpetual ſucceſſion. This is the very end of its incorporation; for there cannot be a ſucceſſion for ever without an incorporation; and therefore all aggregate corporations have a power neceſſarily implied of electing members in the room of ſuch as go off. 2. To ſue or be ſued, implead or be impleaded, grant or receive, by its corporate name, and do all other acts as natural perſons may. 3. To purchaſe lands and hold them, for the benefit of themſelves and their ſucceſſors: which two are conſequential to the former. 4. To have a common ſeal. For a corporation being an inviſible body, cannot manifeſt its intention by any perſonal act or oral diſcourſe: it otherwiſe acts and ſpeaks only by its common ſeal. For though the particular members may expreſs their private conſents to any act by words or ſigning their names, yet this does not bind the corporation; it is the fixing of the ſeal, and that only, which unites the ſeveral aſſents of the individuals who compoſe the community, and makes one joint aſſent of the whole. 5. To make bye-laws or private ſtatutes for the better government of the corporation; which are binding upon themſelves, unleſs contrary to the laws of the land, and then they are void. But no trading company is with us allowed to make bye-laws which may affect the king's prerogative or the common profit of the people, under penalty of 40l. unleſs they be approved by the chancellor, treaſurer, and chief juſtices, or the judges of aſſize in their circuits; and even though they be ſo approved, ſtill, if contrary to law, they are void. Theſe five powers are inſeparably incident to every corporation, at leaſt to every corporation

Corporation.

ration aggregate: for two of them, though they may be practised, yet are very unnecessary to a corporation sole; viz. to have a corporate seal to testify his sole assent, and to make statutes for the regulation of his own conduct.

Corporations have a capacity to purchase lands for themselves and successors; but they are excepted out of the statute of wills; so that no devise of lands to a corporation by will is good; except for charitable uses, by stat. 43 Eliz. c. 4. which exception is again greatly narrowed by the stat. 9 Geo. II. c. 36. And also, by a great variety of statutes, their privilege even of purchasing from any living granter is much abridged; so that now a corporation, either ecclesiastical or lay, must have a license from the king to purchase, before they can exert that capacity which is vested in them by the common law: nor is even this in all cases sufficient. These statutes are generally called the statutes of *mortmain*. See MORTMAIN.

Blackst. Comment.

The general duties of all bodies politic, considered in their corporate capacity, may, like those of natural persons, be reduced to this single one; that of acting up to the end or design, whatever it be, for which they were created by their founder.

III. How corporations may be dissolved. Any particular member may be disfranchised, or lose his place in the corporation, by acting contrary to the laws of the society, or the laws of the land: or he may resign it by his own voluntary act. But the body politic may also itself be dissolved in several ways; which dissolution is the civil death of the corporation; and in this case their lands and tenements shall revert to the person, or his heirs, who granted them to the corporation; for the law doth annex a condition to every such grant, that if the corporation be dissolved, the granter shall have the lands again, because the cause of the grant faileth. The grant is indeed only during the life of the corporation; which may endure for ever: but when that life is determined to be the dissolution of the body politic, the granter takes it back by reversion, as in the case of every other grant for life. The debts of a corporation, either to or from it, are totally extinguished by its dissolution; so that the members thereof cannot recover, or be charged with them, in their natural capacities: agreeable to that maxim of the civil law, *Si quid universitati debetur, singulis non debetur; nec, quod debet universitas, singuli debent.*

A corporation may be dissolved, 1. By act of parliament, which is boundless in its operations. 2. By the natural death of all its members, in cases of an aggregate corporation. 3. By surrender of its franchises into the hands of the king, which is a kind of suicide. 4. By forfeiture of its charter, through negligence or abuse of its franchises, in which case the law judges that the body politic has broken the conditions upon which it was incorporated, and therefore the incorporation is void. And the regular course is to bring an information in nature of a writ of *quo warranto*, to inquire by what warrant the members now exercise their corporate power, having forfeited it by such and such proceedings. The exertion of this act of law, for the purposes of the state, in the reigns of King Charles and King James II. particularly by seizing the charter of the city of London, gave great and just offence; though perhaps, in strictness of law, the proceedings in most of them were sufficiently regular; but the judgment against that of London was reversed by act of parliament after the revolution; and by the same statute it is enacted, that the franchises of the city of London shall never more be forfeited for any cause whatsoever. And because by the common law corporations were dissolved, in case the mayor or head officer was not duly elected on the day appointed in the charter or established by prescription, it is now provided, that for the future no corporation shall be dissolved upon that account, and ample directions are given for appointing a new officer, in case there be no election, or a void one, made upon the charter or prescriptive day.

Corporation || Corpulency.

CORPORATION Act, is that which prevents any person from being legally elected into any office relating to the government of any city or corporation, unless within a twelvemonth before he has received the sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the rites of the church of England; and which enjoins him to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy when he takes the oath of office; otherwise his election is void.

CORPOREAL, those qualities which denominate a body. See INCORPOREAL.

CORPOREITY, the quality of that which is corporeal, or has body; or that which constitutes or denominates it such. The corporeity of God was the capital error of the Anthropomorphites. Some authors reproach Tertullian with admitting a corporeity in the Deity; but it is manifest, by *body* he means no more than *substance*. The Mahometans reproach the Samaritans at this day, with a belief of the corporeity of God. Many of the ancients believed the corporeity of angels.

CORPSE, a dead body.

If any one, in taking up a dead body, steals the shroud, or other apparel, it will be felony. Stealing only the corpse itself is not felony; but it is punishable as a misdemeanor by indictment at common law.

CORPS, in *Architecture*, is a term borrowed from the French, signifying any part that projects or advances beyond the naked of a wall; and which serves as a ground for some decoration or the like.

CORPS de Battaille, is the main body of an army drawn up for battle.

CORPS de Garde, a post in an army, sometimes under covert, sometimes in the open air, to receive a body of soldiers, who are relieved from time to time, and are to watch in their turns, for the security of a quarter, a camp, station, &c. The word is also used for the men who watch therein. It is usual to have, beside the great, a little corps de garde, at a good distance before the lines; to be the more readily advertised of the approach of the enemy.

CORPULENCY, the state of a person too much loaded with flesh or fat.

Corpulency is the occasion of various diseases, and particularly the apoplexy. It was held infamous among the ancient Lacedæmonians.

Sennertus mentions a man that weighed 600 pounds, and a maid 36 years of age who weighed 450. Bright of Malden, who died at the age of 29 years in 1750, weighed 616 pounds. Chiapin Vitelli, marquis of Cerona, a noted Spanish general in his time, from an excessive

excessive corpulency, is said to have reduced himself by drinking of vinegar, to such a degree of leanness, that he could fold his skin several times round him.

Castile soap, in the form of a bolus, an electuary, pills, or dissolved in a gill or more of soft water, from one to four drachms taken at bed-time, is strongly recommended with a view of reducing corpulency, in a discourse on its nature, causes, and cure, by Malcolm Flemyng, M. D. Lond. 1760. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CORPUS, in *Anatomy*, is applied to several parts of the animal structure; as *corpus callosum*, *corpus cavernosum*, &c. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CORPUS is also used in matters of learning, for several works of the same nature collected and bound together.

Gratian made a collection of the canons of the church, called *corpus canonum*. The *corpus* of the civil law is composed of the digest, code, and institutes. We have also a *corpus* of the Greek poets; and another of the Latin poets.

CORPUS Christi, a festival of the church of England, kept on the next Thursday after Trinity Sunday, instituted in honour of the eucharist; to which also one of the colleges of Oxford is dedicated.

CORPUSCLE, in *Physics*, a minute particle, or physical atom, being such as a natural body is made up of. By this word is not meant the elementary particles, nor hypostatical principles of chemists; but such particles, whether of a simple or compound nature, whose parts will not be dissolved nor dissipated by ordinary degrees of heat.

CORPUSCULAR PHILOSOPHY, is that way of philosophising which endeavours to explain things, and to account for the phenomena of nature, by the motion, figure, rest, position, &c. of the corpuscles, or the minute particles of matter.

Mr Boyle sums up the chief principles of the corpuscular hypothesis, which now flourishes under the mechanical philosophy, in these particulars:

1. They suppose that there is but one catholic or universal matter, which is an extended, impenetrable, and divisible substance, common to all bodies, and capable of all forms. 2. That this matter, in order to form the vast variety of natural bodies, must have motion in some or all its assignable parts; and that this motion was given to matter by God the Creator of all things, and has all manner of directions and tendencies. 3. Matter must also be actually divided into parts, and each of these primitive particles, fragments, or atoms of matter must have its proper magnitude or size, as also its peculiar figure or shape. 4. They suppose also, that these differently sized and shaped particles may have as different orders and positions, whereof great variety may arise in the composition of bodies.

CORRADINI DE SEZZA, *Peter Marcellinus*, a learned civilian and cardinal, born at Sezza, in 1658, acquired the esteem and confidence of Clement XI. and died at Rome in 1743. He was the author of a learned and curious work, entitled, "Verus Latium profanum et sacrum," 2 vols folio; and a history of Sezza, in 4to.

CORRADO, SEBASTIAN, an Italian grammarian of the 16th century, taught the Greek and Latin tongues at Reggio, where he formed an academy of polite literature; and at length removed to Bologna, in order to be professor of those languages. He wrote several works, the most esteemed of which are, "*Questura in qua Ciceronis vita refertur*," an excellent performance; and, "*de Lingua Latina*." He died in 1556.

CORRECTION, in *Printing*, the act of retrenching the faults in a work; or the reading which the corrector gives the first proofs, to point out and amend the faults to be rectified by the compositor.

The corrections are placed on the margin of each page, right against the line where the faults are found. There are different characters used to express different corrections, as D or ∂, *dele*, for any thing to be effaced or left out. When any thing is to be inserted, the place is marked in the line with a caret ∧, and the insertion added in the margin. When a word, syllable, &c. is to be altered, it is erased out of the proof, and that to be put in its room written in the margin; always observing, if there be several mistakes in the same line, that the corrections in the margin be separated by little bars or strokes, |. If a space be omitted, its place is marked with a caret, and the margin with ※. If a space be wrong placed, as in the middle of a word, the two parts are connected with a cu rve, and the same character put in the margin. If a letter be inverted, it is expressed on the margin with 9. If any thing be transposed, it is marked thus: *The shortest* |*are the*|*follies*|*best*; for *the shortest follies are the best*; and in the margin is added *tr.* in a circle. If Roman characters are to be changed for Italic, or *vice versa*, a line is drawn under them thus, and *Roman* or *Italic* added to the margin: if to capitals, a double line. If a word or sentence is entirely omitted, the place is marked with a caret, and in the margin is inserted the word *out*. If the letters of a word stand too far asunder, a line is drawn under them, and in the margin is put a crooked line or hook, thus ⌣.

CORRECTION House, a place of confinement, where vagrants and persons guilty of crimes of an inferior degree, suffer punishment by being obliged to labour for a certain period of time, as for months or years, according to the nature of the crime. The benefits arising to society, and the reformation of offenders, from this mode of punishment, have been variously estimated by different writers, according to the views which they have taken of the effects and consequences which are supposed to follow the confinement and restraint to which the criminal is subjected. It has been regarded as one of the greatest defects of the laws of this country, that, excepting the punishment of death, there is no other which is accompanied with that degree of severity and terror to awe or restrain offenders from the commission of crimes. To this purpose are the following observations of Dr Paley. The laws of England, he says, "are not provided with any other punishment than that of death, sufficiently terrible to keep offenders in awe. Transportation, which is the punishment second in the order of severity, answers the purpose of example very imperfectly; not only because exile is in reality a slight punishment to those who have neither property, nor friends, nor regular means of

Correction. of ſubſiſtence at home, but becauſe the puniſhment, whatever it be, is unobſerved and unknown. A tranſported convict *may* ſuffer under his ſentence, but his ſufferings are removed from the view of his countrymen; his miſery is unſeen; his condition ſtrikes no terror into the minds of thoſe for whoſe warning and admonition it was intended. This chaſm in the ſcale of puniſhment produces alſo two farther imperfections in the adminiſtration of penal juſtice; of which the firſt is, that the ſame puniſhment is extended to crimes of very different characters and malignancy; and the ſecond, that puniſhments, ſeparated by a great interval, are aſſigned to crimes hardly diſtinguiſhable in their guilt and miſchief."

This defect, it has been ſuppoſed, might be made up by the proper management of houſes of correction. For as the object of puniſhment is not only the amendment of the offender, but is alſo intended to operate as an example to others, both theſe objects ſeem to be more certainly attained by the confinement and labour to which criminals are ſubjected in houſes of this deſcription than by any ſpecies of puniſhment provided by the laws of Britain. It is greatly to be regretted that the puniſhments inflicted by the laws of this country, whether impriſonment or exile, pain or infamy, have rarely the effect of producing any reformation of the criminal. On the contrary, he often returns to the world more hardened in crime, and more determined in his wicked courſes. Houſes of correction might probably in this reſpect be attended with more beneficial conſequences. This ſeems to be the caſe with the Amſterdam houſe of correction, an account of which in this view will not, it is hoped, be unacceptable to our readers. It is extracted from the Journal of the Travels of M. Thouin.

The Amſterdam correction houſe, from the employment of the priſoners confined in it, is called the *raſping-houſe*, and is deſtined to the reception of thoſe maleſactors whoſe crimes do not amount to a capital offence. Their puniſhment cannot ſo properly be denominated ſolitary confinement, as a ſequeſtration from ſociety during a limited term of years. The building is ſituated in a part of the ſuburbs to the north-eaſt of the city. The exterior has nothing remarkable, either with reſpect to form or extent. It is detached from the ſtreet by a ſpacious court, which contains the keeper's lodge, together with apartments for the different ſervants belonging to the eſtabliſhment. Over the gate, which opens from this court into the priſon, are placed two ſtatues, as large as life, repreſenting two men in the act of ſawing a piece of logwood.

The inner court is in the form of a ſquare, round which are arranged the apartments of the priſoners, together with the neceſſary warehouſes. One part of the ground ſtory is divided into different chambers; the other ſerves as a depot for the logwood, and the implements employed in its preparation.

The keeper, whoſe countenance, contrary to the general cuſtom of perſons of his profeſſion, was ſtrongly indicative of urbanity and gentleneſs, introduced M. Thouin into an apartment where two priſoners were at work in ſawing a large log of Campeachy wood. The ſaw is compoſed of four blades joined together, with very ſtrong, large, and ſharp teeth, which make a ſciſſure in the wood of nearly two inches in breadth. The operation is repeated, till the pieces become too ſmall to undergo the ſaw, when they are ground in mills peculiarly conſtructed for this purpoſe. Correction.

This employment requires an extraordinary exertion of ſtrength, and is at firſt a ſevere penance even to robuſt perſons; but habit, addreſs, and practice, ſoon render it eaſy; and the priſoners in a ſhort time become competent to furniſh, without painful exertion, their weekly contingent of 200lb. weight of ſawed pieces. After completing this taſk, they even find time to fabricate a variety of little articles in wood and ſtraw, which they ſell to thoſe who viſit the priſon, or diſpoſe of, by means of agents, in the town.

M. Thouin next inſpected three apartments of different dimenſions, which opened into the inner court. The one was inhabited by four, the ſecond by ſix, and the third by ten priſoners. The furniture of the rooms conſiſted in hammocks, with a mattreſs, a blanket, and a coverlid to each, tables, chairs, and ſtools, glaſs and earthen veſſels, and various other articles of convenience. Every thing in theſe apartments was diſtinguiſhed by neatneſs and propriety; and notwithſtanding the number of inhabitants allotted to each was fully adequate to the dimenſions of the rooms, the ſenſes were not offended with any diſagreeable ſcent, and the air was in every reſpect as pure and wholeſome as the ſurrounding atmoſphere.

In an obſcure part of the building are a number of cells, in which formerly thoſe priſoners who revolted againſt the proper ſubordination of the place, or ill-treated their comrades, were confined for a few days. But the keeper aſſured M. Thouin that theſe cells had not been made uſe of for upwards of 10 years. They are dark gloomy dungeons, with only a ſmall aperture for the admiſſion of light and air. The ſuppreſſion of this barbarous and coercive puniſhment does honour to the humanity of government.

The ſtore-rooms are filled with various kinds of wood for the purpoſes of dyeing; as the *hæmatoxylum campechianum*, the *morus tinctoria*, the *cæſalpinia ſappan*, &c. They are all exotics, with the exception of the *evonymus Europæus*. The warehouſes were not of ſufficient extent to contain the quantity of wood, which was depoſited in piles in different parts of the court.

The priſoners, amounting to 76 in number, were uniformly habited in coarſe woollens; wear very good ſtockings, large leather ſhoes, white ſhirts, and caps or hats. They are, by the rules of the houſe, obliged to frequent ablutions, which greatly contribute to the preſervation of their health. There was only one ſick perſon amongſt them; and, what is not a little remarkable, almoſt all the priſoners had formerly lived in large commercial towns; very few villagers were amongſt them. They had all been ſentenced to impriſonment for theft: but it depends upon themſelves, by reformation and good behaviour, to ſhorten the time of their confinement, which many of them frequently do.

The keeper, whoſe humanity to the unfortunate perſons committed to his care entitles him rather to the title of their protector than their gaoler (and M. Thouin informs us, that the priſoners generally called him by no other name than *father*), aſſiſts them with his counſels and friendly admonitions. He regiſters every week, in a book appropriated to this purpoſe, both the inſtances of good and bad behaviour, which is annually

Correction. submitted to the examination of the magiſtracy, who, from this report, abridge or prolong the term of confinement, according to the degree of indulgence which each priſoner appears to merit. Caſes frequently happen where a malefactor, condemned to an impriſonment of eight years, by his good behaviour procures his enlargement at the expiration of four; and ſo on in proportion for a ſhorter term. But great attention is paid to diſcriminate between actual reform and hypocritical artifice.

The reward of good behaviour is not, however, confined to, or withheld till, the period of actual liberation. Their reſtoration to ſociety is preceded by a progreſſive amelioration of their lot. Their work is gradually rendered leſs laborious, they are accommodated with ſeparate apartments, and employed in the ſervices of domeſtic economy. The keeper even entruſts them with commiſſions beyond the precincts of the priſon; and ſcarce a ſingle inſtance has occurred of their abuſing this indulgence. By this prudent management, a conſiderable ſaving is effected in the expence of the eſtabliſhment, at the ſame time that it tends to wear away prejudice, and to initiate the priſoners by gradual advances into the reciprocal duties of ſocial life.

M. Thouin made particular inquiries whether it was cuſtomary for perſons after their diſcharge to be confined a ſecond and third time, as is but too often the caſe in many countries, for a repetition of their offence. He was informed, that ſuch inſtances very rarely occur; but the caſe is not without precedent, as he obſerved in the perſon of a young Jew, who was then in the raſping-houſe for the third time. The caſe of this man is ſomewhat extraordinary. During the period of his detention, he always conforms, with the moſt ſcrupulous obſervance, to the rules of the place, and gives general ſatisfaction by his exemplary conduct. But ſuch, as he himſelf avowed to our traveller, is his conſtitutional propenſity to thieving, that no ſooner is the term of his impriſonment elapſed, than he returns with redoubled ardour to his lawleſs courſes. It is not ſo much for the ſake of plunder, as to gratify his irreſiſtible impulſe, that he follows this vicious life; and M. Thouin adds, that he recounted his different exploits with as much exultation and triumph as a veteran diſplays when rehearſing his warlike atchievements.

Another ſalutary regulation in this inſtitution, from which the beſt conſequences reſult, is the indulgence granted to the priſoners of receiving the viſits of their wives and miſtreſſes twice every week. Proper care, however, is taken to guard againſt the introduction of diſeaſe; and the ladies, in one ſenſe, purchaſe their admiſſion by giving a trifling ſum of money at the gate, which becomes the perquiſite of the aged priſoners, whoſe wants are of a different nature from their youthful comrades. Thus the pleaſures of one claſs contribute to the comforts of the other; and the entrance money, trifling as it is, keeps away a crowd of idle vagabonds, who have no acquaintance with the priſoners. The ladies at their viſits are permitted to eat and drink with their lovers; and when the converſation becomes too animated for a third perſon to be preſent, the reſt of the company obligingly take the hint, and leave them to enjoy a *tete a-tete*.—By this prudent regulation, many hurtful conſequences attendant on a total ſecluſion from female ſociety are guarded againſt.

M. Thouin concludes his account with obſerving, that the raſping-houſe at Amſterdam bears a greater reſemblance to a well-ordered manufactory than to a priſon. It were to be wiſhed, that all ſimilar inſtitutions were conducted upon a ſimilar plan. Correction || Corroſion.

But it is probable that ſolitary confinement and leſs intercourſe with their friends would have a better effect in reforming the habits of offenders than the indulgences which M. Thouin conſiders as ſo beneficial. The philoſopher whom we formerly quoted obſerves, that "of reforming puniſhments none promiſes ſo much ſucceſs as that of ſolitary impriſonment, or the confinement of criminals in ſeparate apartments. This improvement of the Amſterdam houſe of correction would augment the terror of the puniſhment, would ſeclude the criminal from the ſociety of his fellow-priſoners, in which ſociety the worſe are ſure to corrupt the better; would wean him from the knowledge of his companions, and from the love of that turbulent pernicious life in which his vices had engaged him; would raiſe up in him reflections on the folly of his choice, and diſpoſe his mind to ſuch bitter and continued penitence, as might produce a laſting alteration in the principles of his conduct."

In addition to the confinement and labour which offenders undergo in houſes of correction, ſome are ſubject to whipping at certain ſtated intervals. The benefit ariſing from this mode of puniſhment, with regard to the reformation of the criminal, has been juſtly queſtioned. If any good effect is to be expected from this diſcipline, it muſt be inflicted in private. It has been obſerved by one * who knew nature well, that puniſhment which deprives a man of all ſenſe of honour will never contribute to make him virtuous; and it is generally found that the ſoldier who has once been whipped, becomes quite indifferent to propriety of conduct. Faſting, which is not attended with ſhame, promiſes to be a more effectual puniſhment of profligacy. * *Fielding.*

CORRECTOR, in general, denotes ſomething that mends the faults or bad qualities of others.

Corrector of the Staple, a clerk belonging to the ſtaple, whoſe buſineſs is to write down and record the bargains that merchants make there.

Corrector, in *Medicine* or *Pharmacy*, an ingredient in a compoſition, which guards againſt or abates the force of another.

CORREGIDOR, the name of an officer of juſtice in Spain, and countries ſubject to the Spaniſh government. He is the chief judge of a town or province.

CORREGIO. See Allegri.

CORRELATIVE, ſomething oppoſed to another in a certain relation. Thus father and ſon are correlatives. Light and darkneſs, motion and reſt, are correlative and oppoſite terms.

CORRIGIOLA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Miſcellaneæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CORROBORANTS, or Corroborative *Medicines*. See Strengtheners.

CORROSION, in a general ſenſe, the action of gnawing away, by degrees, the continuity of the parts of bodies.

Corrosion, in *Chemiſtry*, an action of bodies, by means of proper menſtruums, that produces new combinations,

Corrosion Corruption

binations, and a change of their form, without converting them to fluidity.

CORROSIVE SUBLIMATE MERCURY. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

CORRUGATOR MUSCLE. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muscles*.

CORROSIVES, in *Surgery*, are medicines which corrode whatever part of the body they are applied to. Such are burnt alum, white precipitate of mercury, white vitriol, red precipitate of mercury, butter of antimony, lapis infernalis, &c.

CORRUPTICOLÆ, a sect who rose out of the Monophysites in Egypt about the year 519, under their chief Severus, the pretended patriarch of Alexandria.

Their distinguishing doctrine, whence they derived their name, was, that the body of Jesus Christ was *corruptible;* that the fathers had owned it; and that to deny it was to deny the truth of our Saviour's passion.

On the other hand, Julian of Halicarnassus, another Eutychian, a refugee, as well as Severus, in Alexandria, maintained that the body of Jesus Christ had been always incorruptible; that to say it was corruptible, was to make a distinction between Jesus Christ and the Word, and by consequence to make two natures in Jesus Christ.

The people of Alexandria were divided between the two opinions; and the partisans of Severus were called *corrupticolæ*, q. d. worshippers of something *corruptible:* sometimes they were denominated *corruptibiles;* and the adherents of Julian *incorruptibiles* or *phantasiastæ*. The clergy and secular powers favoured the first; the monks and the people the latter.

CORRUPTION, the destruction, extinction, or at least cessation for a time, of the proper mode of existence of any natural body. See PUTREFACTION.

CORRUPTION of Blood, in *Law*, one of the consequences of an attainder; and is both upwards and downwards: so that an attainted person can neither inherit lands or other hereditaments from his ancestors, nor retain those he is already in possession of, nor transmit them by descent to any heir; but the same shall escheat to the lord of the fee, subject to the king's superior right of forfeiture; and the person attainted shall also obstruct all descents to his posterity, wherever they are obliged to derive a title through him to a remoter ancestor. See ATTAINDER.

Blackst. Comment.

This is one of those notions which our laws have adopted from the feudal constitutions, at the time of the Norman conquest; as appears from its being unknown in those tenures which are indisputably Saxon, or gavel kind: wherein though by treason, according to the ancient Saxon laws, the land is forfeited to the king, yet no corruption of blood, no impediment of descents, ensues; and on judgment of mere felony, no escheat accrues to the lord. But by the law of England, derived as above, a man's blood is so universally corrupted by attainder, that his sons can neither inherit to him nor to any other ancestor, at least on the part of their attainted father.

This corruption of blood cannot be absolutely removed but by authority of parliament. The king may excuse the public punishment of an offender; but cannot abolish the private right which has accrued, or may accrue, to individuals as a consequence of the criminal's attainder. He may remit a forfeiture in which the interest of the crown is alone concerned; but he cannot wipe away the corruption of blood; for therein a third person hath an interest, the lord who claims by escheat. If therefore a man hath a son, and is attainted, and afterwards pardoned by the king: this son can never inherit to his father, or father's ancestors; because his paternal blood, being once thoroughly corrupted by his father's attainder, must continue so: but if the son had been born after the pardon, he might inherit; because, by the pardon, the father is made a new man, and may convey new inheritable blood to his after-born children.

Corruption || Corsica.

This corruption of blood, thus arising from feudal principles, but perhaps extended farther than even these principles will warrant, has been long looked upon as a peculiar hardship: because the oppressive parts of the feudal tenures being now in general abolished, it seems unreasonable to reserve one of their most inequitable consequences; namely, that the children should not only be reduced to present poverty (which, however severe, is sufficiently justified upon reasons of public policy), but also be laid under future difficulties of inheritance, on account of the guilt of their ancestors. And therefore in most (if not all) of the new felonies treated by parliament since the reign of Henry VIII. it is declared that they shall not extend to any corruption of blood: and by the statute 7 Anne, c. 21. (the operation of which is postponed by the statute 17 Geo. II. c. 39.) it is enacted, that after the death of the late pretender and his sons, no attainder for treason shall extend to the disinheriting any heir, nor the prejudice of any person, other than the offender himself; which provisions have indeed carried the remedy farther than was required by the hardship above complained of; which is only the future obstruction of descents, where the pedigree happens to be deduced through the blood of an attainted ancestor.

CORSAIR, a pirate or person who scours the seas, especially the Mediterranean, with a vessel armed for war, without commission from any prince or power, to plunder merchant vessels. The word comes from the Italian *corsare*, of *corso*, or *à cursibus*, by reason of their courses, or excursions.—The name is commonly given to the piratical cruisers of Barbary, who had their rise about the beginning of the 16th century.

A *corsair* is distinguished from a *privateer* in this, that the latter does it under a commission, and only attacks the vessels of those at war with the state whence his commission is derived. The punishment of a corsair is to be hanged, without remission; whereas privateers are to be treated as prisoners of war. All corsair vessels are good prizes.

CORSELET, a little cuirass: or, according to others, an armour or coat made to cover the whole body, anciently worn by the pikemen, usually placed in the front and flanks of the battle, for the better resisting the enemy's assaults, and guarding the soldiers placed behind them.

CORSICA, an island in the Mediterranean, between 8° and 10° E. Long. and 41° and 43° N. Lat. On the south it is separated from Sardinia, by the strait of Bonifacio; to the east it has the Tuscan sea; to the north the gulf of Genoa; and to the west it is opposite the coasts of France and Spain. It is 150 miles

Corſica, Corſned.

miles from north to ſouth, and from 40 to 50 in breadth. It was known to the ancient Greeks by the names of Calliſta and Cyrnus, and to the Romans by its preſent appellation. On the coaſt are many excellent harbours. It is mountainous, but fruitful valleys are interſperſed; and it has ſome fine lakes and rivers. With reſpect to products, Corſica has nothing peculiar to itſelf; but from the earlieſt times it has been famous for its ſwarms of bees, and produces vaſt quantities of honey, which, however, is reckoned bitter, on account of the box and yew with which the country abounds. The mountains are rich in lead, iron, copper, and ſilver; a mine of the latter was opened in the year 1767, from which a quintal of mineral produced 18 ounces of ſilver. There are alſo mines of alum and ſaltpetre. The granite of Corſica is nearly equal to the oriental. Porphyries, jaſper, talc, amianthus, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, are found ſcattered in the mountains; and the ſouth coaſt abounds with beautiful coral. After many revolutions, this iſland was, for ſome centuries, under the dominion of the Genoeſe, whoſe tyranny was ſuch, that the Corſicans were almoſt in a perpetual ſtate of inſurrection. In 1736, a German adventurer, Theodore baron Newhoff, brought ſome aſſiſtance to them, and, on his aſſurances of more powerful aid, they elected him king; but, as he could not ſubſtantiate his promiſes, he was obliged to leave the iſland. He came to England, was thrown into the Fleet priſon, releaſed by an act of inſolvency (after having regiſtered his kingdom of Corſica for the benefit of his creditors), and ſuffered to die in extreme indigence. The Genoeſe tired of the conteſt, ſold the ſovereignty to France, in 1767, and the celebrated Paoli, who had been elected to the chief command, in 1755, was obliged to abandon the iſland in 1769. After the French revolution, in 1789, Corſica was admitted as an eighty-third department of France, at the particular requeſt of a deputation, of which Paoli was at the head. In conſequence, however, of ſome events which followed the revolution of 1792, Paoli revolted; the French, by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, were expelled from the iſland; and Corſica, on the 19th of June 1794, was declared annexed to the crown of Great Britain, according to a new conſtitution which had been previouſly formed. In October 1796, however, the Engliſh found it expedient to evacuate the iſland, of which the French immediately took poſſeſſion, and again united it to their republic, dividing it into two departments, Golo and Liamone; of the former of which Baſtia is the chief town, and of the latter Ajaccio.

CORSNED, or MORSEL of EXECRATION, a ſpecies of trial or purgation * anciently in uſe among us, and which probably aroſe from an abuſe of revelation in the dark ages of ſuperſtition. It conſiſted of a piece of cheeſe or bread, about an ounce in weight, which was conſecrated with a form of exorciſm; deſiring of the Almighty that it might cauſe convulſions and paleneſs, and find no paſſage if the man was really guilty; but might turn to health and nouriſhment if he was innocent; as the water of jealouſy among the Jews was, by God's eſpecial appointment, to cauſe the belly to ſwell, and the thigh to rot, if the woman was guilty of adultery. This corſned was then given to the ſuſpected perſon, who at the ſame time alſo received the holy ſacrament: if indeed the corſned was not, as ſome have ſuſpected, the ſacramental bread itſelf: till the ſubſequent invention of tranſubſtantiation preſerved it from profane uſes with a more profound reſpect than formerly. Our hiſtorians aſſure us, that Godwin, earl of Kent, in the reign of King Edward the Confeſſor, abjuring the death of the king's brother, at laſt appealed to his corſned, "per *buccellam deglutiendam abjuravit*," which ſtuck in his throat and killed him. This cuſtom has been long ſince gradually abolitiſhed, though the remembrance of it ſtill ſubſiſts in certain phraſes of abjuration retained among the common people: as, "I will take the ſacrament upon it; May this morſel be my laſt;" and the like.

* See *Trial*.

Corſned || Cortex.

CORT, CORNELIUS, a celebrated engraver, was born at Hoorn in Holland in 1536. After having learned the firſt principles of drawing and engraving, he went to Italy to complete his ſtudies, and viſited all the places famous for the works of the great maſters. At Venice he was courteouſly received by Titian; and engraved ſeveral plates from the pictures of that admirable painter. He at laſt ſettled at Rome, where he died in 1578, aged 42. According to Baſan, he was "the beſt engraver with the burin or graver only that Holland ever produced. We find in his prints," adds he, "correctneſs of drawing, and an exquiſite taſte." He praiſes alſo the taſte and lightneſs of touch with which he engraved landſcapes, and that without the aſſiſtance of the point. It is no ſmall honour to this artiſt, that Agoſtino Carracci was his ſcholar, and imitated his ſtyle of engraving rather than that of any other maſter. His engravings are very numerous (151 according to Abbé Marolles), and by no means uncommon.

CORTES *of* SPAIN, a term purely Spaniſh, ſignifying the *courts*, i. e. the ſtates or aſſembly of the ſtates, at Madrid.

CORTES, or CORTEZ, *Ferdinand*, a Spaniſh general, famous for the conqueſt of Mexico, and other victories over the natives of South America; but infamous for the cruelties he committed upon the vanquiſhed, without regard to rank, age, or ſex. It probably was on this account he was but coolly received on his return to Europe by his royal maſter Charles V.: It is even aſſerted that the emperor aſked him who he was? to which Cortez replied; "I am the man who gave you more provinces than your anceſtors have left you towns." He died in 1554, aged 63. See MEXICO.

CORTEX, in *Botany*, the rind or coarſe outer bark of plants. The organization of the outer and inner barks, which differ principally in the fineneſs of their texture, is particularly explained under the article PLANTS.

Wounds of the bark, and its ſeparations from the wood, whether naturally or artificially made, are eaſily cured, and made to unite again by proper care. If ſections be made in the rinds of the aſh and ſycamore of a ſquare figure, three ſides cut, and the fourth uncut, and the whole be afterwards bound round with a pack-thread, it will all unite again, only leaving a ſcar in each of the three ſides where it was cut. If ſeveral parts of the bark of either of theſe trees be cut off, and entirely ſeparated from the tree; ſome ſhallower, leaving

ving a part of the bark on, and others deeper, to the wood itſelf; theſe pieces being again put into their places, and bound on with pack-thread, will not indeed unite, but a freſh bark will grow in their places, and thruſt them away; but if they be firſt carefully laid on in the exact direction in which they originally grew, and then the whole part beyond the wound on every ſide covered with a large plaſter of diachylon, or the like, and this bound over with pack-thread to keep all firmly in their places, the pieces of bark, whether cut off ſhallow or deep down to the very wood of the tree, will firmly unite themſelves to the places where they originally grew. This cure will be performed in about three weeks; but the outer rind of the ſeparated pieces will not be plump, but ſomewhat ſhrivelled; the edges will alſo recede ſomewhat from their original place; ſo that there remains a ſort of ſcar all round. Theſe experiments are beſt made in the ſpring ſeaſon; for in the autumn and winter, the ſap ariſing but weakly, the parts that ſhould unite wither before that is brought about. The ſucceſs of theſe experiments has made ſome think that the whole branch of a tree ſeparated and bound on again might unite with the reſt. But the experiments that have been made in the moſt favourable manner for ſuch a trial have all proved vain, the branch cut off withering always in a few days, however well united and carefully kept on.

Cortex Peruvianus. See Cinchona, Botany and Materia Medica *Index.*

Cortex Winteranus. See Wintera, Botany and Materia Medica *Index.*

CORTONA, Pietro da. See Berretini.

Cortona, a very ancient town of Italy, mentioned by many of the Roman hiſtorians. It was originally called *Corton*, and lay to the northward of the lake Thraſymenus. It ſtill retains the name of Cortona. E. Long. 13. 0. N. Lat. 43. 15.

CORTONESE, Pietro Palo. See Gobbo.

CORTUSA, Bear's-ear Sanicle; a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 21ſt order, *Preciæ.* See Botany *Index.*

CORUNNA, or Groyne, a port-town of Gallicia in Spain, ſituated on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, about 32 miles north of Compoſtella, and 20 ſouth-weſt of Ferrol. W. Long. 9. 0. N. Lat. 43. 0.

CORUS, Omer, Homer, or Chomer, in the Jewiſh antiquities, a meaſure containing 10 baths or 75 gallons and five pints, as a meaſure of things liquid, and 32 pecks and 1 pint as a meaſure for things dry. The *corus* or *omer* was moſt commonly a meaſure for things dry; and the greateſt that was uſed among the Jews. It contained, according to the rabbins, 10 ephahs or 30 ſata or ſeahs. *Corus* is the moſt uſual term in the hiſtorical writers, and *omer* or *chomer* among the prophets.

Corus is alſo uſed in ſome of our old writers for eight buſhels or a quarter; *decem* coros *tritici, ſive decem quarteria.*

CORUSCATION, a glittering or gleam of light iſſuing from any thing. It is chiefly uſed for a flaſh of lightning darting from the clouds in time of thunder.

There is a method of producing artificial coruſcations, or ſparkling fiery meteors, which will be viſible not only in the dark but at noon-day, and that from two liquors actually cold. The method is this. Fifteen grains of ſolid phoſphorus are to be melted in about a drachm of water; when this is cold, pour upon it about two ounces of oil of vitriol; let theſe be ſhaken together, and they will at firſt heat, and afterwards they will throw up fiery balls in great number, which will adhere like ſo many ſtars to the ſides of the glaſs, and continue burning a conſiderable time; after this, if a ſmall quantity of oil of turpentine is poured in, without ſhaking the phial, the mixture will of itſelf take fire, and burn very furiouſly. The veſſel ſhould be large, and open at the top.

Artificial coruſcations may alſo be produced by means of oil of vitriol and iron, in the following manner: Take a glaſs body capable of holding three quarts; put into this three ounces of the oil of vitriol and twelve ounces of water; then warming the mixture a little, throw in, at ſeveral times, two ounces or more of clean iron filings; upon this an ebullition and white vapours will ariſe: then preſent a lighted candle to the mouth of the veſſel, and the vapour will take fire, and afford a bright fulmination or flaſh like lightning. Applying the candle in this manner ſeveral times, the effect will always be the ſame; and ſometimes the fire will fill the whole body of the glaſs, and even circulate to the bottom of the liquor; at others, it will only reach a little way down its neck. The great caution to be uſed in making this experiment is the making the vapour of a proper heat: for, if too cold, few vapours will ariſe; and, if made too hot, they will ariſe too faſt and will only take fire in the neck of the glaſs, without any remarkable coruſcation.

CORVORANT, formerly written Cormorant. See Pelicanus, Ornithology *Index.*

CORVUS, the Raven or Crow kind, a genus of birds of the order of picæ. See Ornithology *Index.*

Corvus (*Raven,*) in *Aſtronomy*, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere; whoſe ſtars in Ptolemy's catalogue are 7; in Tycho's as many; in the Britannic catalogue 9.

Corvus, in Roman antiquity, a military engine, or rather gallery, moveable at pleaſure by means of pulleys; chiefly uſed in boarding the enemy's ſhips to cover the men. The conſtruction of the corvus was as follows: They erected on the prow of their veſſels a round piece of timber of about a foot and a half diameter, and about 12 feet long; on the top of which they had a block or pulley. Round this piece of timber they laid a ſtage or platform of boards, four feet broad, and about 18 feet long, which was well framed and faſtened with iron. The entrance was long-ways, and it moved about on the above-mentioned upright piece of timber as on a ſpindle, and could be hoiſted up within ſix feet of the top: about this was a ſort of parapet knee-high, which was defended with upright bars of iron ſharpened at the end, and towards the top there was a ring, by the help of which and a pulley or tackle, they raiſed or lowered the engine at pleaſure. With this moveable gallery they boarded the enemy's veſſels (when they did not oppoſe ſide to ſide),

side), sometimes on their bow and sometimes on their stern, as occasion best served. When they had grappled the enemy with these iron spikes, if they happened to swing broadside to broadside, then they entered from all parts; but in case they attacked them on the bow, they entered two and two by the help of this machine, the foremost defending the foreparts, and those that followed the flanks, keeping the boss of their bucklers level with the top of the parapet.

CORYATE, Thomas, a very extraordinary personage, who seems to have made himself famous by his whimsical extravagancies, was the son of a clergyman, and born at Oldcombe in Somersetshire in 1577. He acquired Greek and Latin at Oxford; and coming to London, was received into the household of Henry prince of Wales. If Coryate was not over witty himself, he got acquainted with the wits of that time, and served to exercise their abilities, having more learning than judgment. He was a great peripatetic; for, in 1608, he took a long journey on foot; and after he returned, published his travels under the following strange title: *Crudities hastily gobbled up in five months Travels in France, Savoy, Italy, Rhetia, Helvetia. some parts of High Germany. and the Netherlands*, Lond. 1611, 4to. In 1612 he set out again with a resolution to spend ten years in travelling; he went first to Constantinople; and after travelling over a great part of the East, died of a flux at Surat in the East Indies. Some of the accounts of his peregrinations are to be found in Purchas's Pilgramages.

CORYBANTES, in antiquity, priests of Cybele, who danced and capered to the sound of flutes and drums. See Crotalum.

Catullus, in his poem called *Atys*, gives a beautiful description of them, representing them as madmen. Accordingly Maximus Tyrius says, that those possessed with the spirit of Corybantes, as soon as they heard the sound of a flute, were seized with an enthusiasm, and lost the use of their reason. And hence the Greeks use the word κορυβαντειν, *to corybantize*, to signify a person's being transported or possessed with a devil. See Enthusiasm.

Some say that the Corybantes were all eunuchs; and that it is on this account Catullus, in his Atys, always uses feminine epithets and relatives in speaking of them.

Diodorus Siculus remarks, that Corybas, son of Jason and Cybele, passing in Phrygia with his uncle Dardanus, there instituted the worship of the mother of the gods, and gave his own name to the priests. Strabo relates it as the opinion of some, that the Corybantes were children of Jupiter and Calliope, and the same with the *Cabiri*. Others say the word had its origin from this, that the Corybantes always walked dancing (if the expression may be allowed) or tossing the head, κορυπτοντες βαινοσιν.

CORYBANTICA, a festival held in Crete, in memory of the Corybantes, who educated Jupiter when he was concealed in that island from his father Saturn, who would have devoured him.

CORYCEUM, in antiquity, that part of the gymnasium where people undressed. It was otherwise called *apodyterion*.

CORYCOMACHIA, among the ancients, was a sort of exercise in which they pushed forwards a ball, suspended from the ceiling, and at its return either caught it with their hands, or suffered it to meet their body. Oribasius informs us it was recommended for extenuating too gross bodies.

CORYDALES, in *Botany*, an order of plants in the *Fragmenta Methodi Naturalis* of Linnæus, containing the following genera, viz. epimedium, hypecoum, leontice, melianthus, pinguicula, and utricularia.

CORYDALIS, in *Botany*. See Fumaria, Botany *Index*.

CORYLUS, the Hazel; a genus of plants belonging to the monœcia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 50th order, *Amentaceæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CORYMBIFERÆ, in *Botany*, the name of an order or division of the compound flowers adopted by Linnæus after Ray and Vaillant, in the former editions of his Fragments of a Natural Method. This title in the later editions is changed for *Discoideæ*, another name borrowed from Ray's Method, but used in a somewhat different sense.

CORYMBIUM, in antiquity, an ornament of hair worn by the women. Its form was that of a corymbus.

Corymbium; a genus of plants belonging to the syngenesia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. See Botany *Index*. —The calyx is diphyllous, uniflorous, and prismatical; the corolla monopetalous and regular; there is one woolly seed below each floret.

CORYMBUS, properly signifies a cluster of ivy berries. Among botanists it is a mode of flowering in which the lesser or partial flowerstalks are produced along the common stalk on both sides; and though of unequal lengths, rise to the same height, so as to form a flat and even surface at the top. See Botany *Index*.

CORYNOCARPUS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria class. See Botany *Index*.

CORYPHA, Mountain Palm, or *Umbrella Tree*; a genus of plants of the order of *Palmæ*, belonging to the monœcia class. See Botany *Index*.

CORYPHÆNA, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of thoracici. See Ichthyology *Index*.

CORYPHÆUS, in the ancient tragedy, was the chief or leader of the company that composed the chorus: (See Chorus).—The word is formed from the Greek κορυφη, "tip of the head." The coryphæus spoke for all the rest, whenever the chorus took part in the action, in quality of a person of the drama, during the course of the acts. Hence coryphæus had passed into a general name for the chief or principal of any company, corporation, sect, opinion, &c. Thus Eustatius of Antioch is called the *coryphæus* of the council of Nice; and Cicero calls Zeno the *coryphæus* of the Stoics.

CORYVREKAN, a dangerous whirlpool on the west coast of Scotland, between the isle of Scarba and the north point of Jura. It is so named from a young Danish prince, who perished in this place: its dreadful vortex extends above a mile in circuit. Many smaller whirlpools and rapid currents are found in this neighbourhood; dangerous to those who are strangers to the coast.

CORYZA,

CORYZA, in *Medicine*, a catarrh of the nose. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CORZOLA, or CURSCOLA, an island in the gulf of Venice, divided from Ragusa in Dalmatia by a narrow strait. E. Long. 18. 0. N. Lat. 42. 35.

COS, or COOS, in *Ancient Geography*, a noble island on the coast of Caria, in the Hither Asia, 15 miles to the west of Halicarnassus, 100 in compass, called *Meropis;* and hence Thucydides joins both names together, *Cos Meropis;* it had a cognominal town *Cos*, but originally called *Astypalæa*, mentioned by Homer; with a port locked or walled round. (Scylax, Mela). The island was fruitful, and yielded a generous wine, (Strabo). It boasted of Hippocrates and Apelles; each at the head of his several profession. It was the country of Philetas, an excellent elegiac poet, who flourished in the time of Philip and Alexander: the preceptor of Ptolemy Philadelphus: so thin and light that he was obliged to wear lead to prevent the being blown away by a puff of wind (Ælian, Athenæus); much commended by Propertius. The *vestes Coæ*, made of silk, were famous for their fineness and colour, (Horace, Propertius, Tibullus). In the suburbs of Cos stood the temple of Æsculapius, a noble structure, and extremely rich.

Cos, the *Whetstone*, in *Natural History*, a genus of vitrescent stones, consisting of fragments of an indeterminate figure, sub-opaque, and granulated.

Of this genus there are several species, some consisting of rougher, and others of smoother, or even of altogether impalpable particles; and used not only for whetstones, but also for mill-stones, and other the like purposes.

COS TURCICA, *Turkey-stone*, a species of stones which is arranged in the siliceous class. It is of a dull white, and often of an unequal colour; some parts appearing more compact than others. Its specific gravity is 2.598: it strikes fire with steel, and effervesces with acids. Mr Kirwan found that 100 parts of it contain 25 of carbonate of lime, and no iron. Cronstedt is of opinion that there are probably two sorts of stones known by this name, as that described by Wallerius neither gives fire with steel nor effervesces with acids. It is used as a whetstone; and those of the finest grain are the best hones for the most delicate cutting tools, and even for razors, lancets, &c.

COSCINOMANCY, the art of divination by means of a sieve. The word comes from κοσκινον, *cribrum*, "a sieve," and μαντεια, *divination*. The sieve being suspended, after rehearsing a formula of words, it is taken between two fingers only; and the names of the parties suspected repeated: he at whose name the sieve turns, trembles, or shakes, is reputed guilty of the evil in question.

This must be a very ancient practice: Theocritus, in his third Idyllion, mentions a woman very skilful in it. It was sometimes also practised by suspending the sieve by a thread, or fixing it to the points of a pair of sheers, giving it room to turn, and naming, as before, the parties suspected; in which last manner *coscinomancy* is still practised in some parts of England. It appears from Theocritus, that it was not only used to find out persons unknown, but also to discover the secrets of those that were known.

CO-SECANT, in *Geometry*, the secant of an arch which is the complement of another to 90°. See GEOMETRY.

COSENAGE, in *Law*, a writ that lies where the tresail, that is, the tritavus, the father of the besail, or great grandfather, being seized in fee at his death of certain lands or tenements, dies; a stranger enters, and abates; then shall his heir have this writ of cosenage; the form of which see in Fitz. Nat. Br. fol. 221.

COSENING, in *Law*, an offence whereby any thing is done deceitfully, in or out of contracts, which cannot be fitly termed by any especial name. In the civil law it is called *stellionatus*. See STELLIONATE.

COSENZA, the capital of the Hither Calabria, in the kingdom of Naples. E. Long. 16. 35. N. Lat. 39. 15. It is an archbishop's see.

COSHERING, in the feudal customs, a kind of right of the lords to lie and feast themselves and their followers at their tenants houses. The word *coshering* may perhaps be derived from the old English word *coshe*, a cot or cottage.

CO-SINE, in *Trigonometry*, the sine of an arch which is the complement of another to 90°. See GEOMETRY.

COSMETIC, in *Physic*, any medicine or preparation which renders the skin soft and white, or helps to beautify and improve the complexion; as lip salves, cold ceams, ceruse, &c.

COSMICAL, a term in *Astronomy*, expressing one of the poetical risings of a star: thus a star is said to rise cosmically when it rises with the sun, or with that point of the ecliptic in which the sun is at that time; and the cosmical setting is when a star sets in the west at the same time that the sun rises in the east.

COSMOGONY, in *Physics*, signifies the science of the formation of the universe. It is formed of κοσμος, *the world*, and γινομαι, *I am born*.

In our conjectures about the formation of the world there are two principles which we ought never to lose sight of: 1. That of *creation;* for certainly matter could not give itself existence, it must have received it. 2. That of a *Supreme Intelligence* directing this creation, and the arrangement of the parts of matter, in consequence of which this world was formed. See CREATION and GEOLOGY.

COSMOGRAPHY, the description of the world; or the art which teaches the construction, figure, disposition, and relation of all the parts of the world, with the manner of representing them on a plane. The word comes from κοσμος, *world*, and γραφω, *I describe*.

Cosmography consists chiefly of two parts: *Astronomy*, which shows the structure of the heavens, and the disposition of the stars; and *Geography*, which shows those of the earth.

COSMOLABE (from κοσμος, *world*, and λαμβανω, *I take*), an ancient mathematical instrument, serving to measure distances both in the heavens and on earth. The *Cosmolabe* is in a great measure the same with the astrolabe. It is also called *pantacosm*, or the *universal instrument*, by L. Morgard, in a treatise written expressly upon it, printed in 1612.

COSMOLOGY (from κοσμος, *world*, and λογος, *discourse*), the science of the world in general. This Wolfius calls *general*, or *transcendental cosmology*, and has

has written a treatise on the subject, wherein he endeavours to explain how the world arises from simple substances; and treats of the general principles, of the modifications of material things, of the elements of bodies, of the laws of motion, of the perfection of the world, and of the order and course of nature.

COSMOPOLITE, or COSMOPOLITAN, a term sometimes used to signify a person who has no fixed living or place of abode, or a man who is a stranger nowhere. The word comes from the Greek κοσμος, *world*, and πολις, *city*.—One of the ancient philosophers being interrogated what countryman he was? answered, he was a *cosmopolite*, i. e. an inhabitant or citizen of the world.

COSSACKS, a name given to the people inhabiting the banks of the river Dnieper and Don, near the Black sea and borders of Turkey. The word implies irregular troops of horse. These people are divided into European and Asiatic Cossacks. The first consist of the Zaporog, who dwell below the cataract of the Dnieper, some on the side next to Russia, and others on the opposite side of the river; the Lower and Upper Cossacks; the Bielgorod Cossacks; and a part of the Don Cossacks. The Asiatic Cossacks are composed of the rest of the Don Cossacks, the Grebin Cossacks, the Yaik Cossacks, and the Western Calmucks, who retiring from those that inhabited the south borders of Siberia under Yaiuki Can, settled upon the Wolga, and are dependent upon Russia.

The Cossacks were known by that name ever since the 948th year of Christ. They dwelt upon Mount Caucasus, in the place now called *Cabardy;* and were reduced under the Russian dominion by Prince Mstislaw in the year 1021. Many Russians, Poles, and others, who could not live at home, have, at different times, been admitted among the Cossacks: but the latter, abstracted from these fugitive, must have been an ancient and well governed nation.

Toward the beginning of the 16th century, the Zaporog Cossacks fixed their habitations on the spacious plains that extend along the banks of the Dnieper. They had undergone considerable hardships from the incursions of the Tartars, for which they afterwards found means to avenge themselves in an ample manner. The Poles being sensible how serviceable the Cossacks might be in defending them from the ravages of the Tartars, and even the Russians, proposed to them terms of alliance. In 1562, they solemnly took them under their protection, and engaged to pay them an annual subsidy; in return for which the Cossacks were to keep on foot a sufficient body of troops for the defence of the Polish dominions. With a view to bind them still more strongly by ties of interest, the Poles gave them the whole country between the rivers Dnieper and Neister, and the borders of Tartary. The Cossacks applied themselves with great industry to the cultivation of this fertile spot; so that in a short time it was interspersed with large towns and handsome villages. Besides, they continually harassed the Turks, and did them great damage by their incursions; and, in order to prevent the latter from pursuing them, or making reprisals, they possessed themselves of several small islands in the Dnieper, where they kept their magazines, &c. The hettman or general of the Cossacks was not in the least subordinate to the field marshal of Poland; but acted in concert with him as an ally, and not as a subject of that republic. But this alliance, though of such manifest advantage to both parties, was not of long duration. The Poles, seeing the vast improvements made by the Cossacks, in the country they had given up to them, became envious of them, and actually made an attempt to bring them into subjection, as we have seen in the history of Poland. In 1648 the Cossacks gained great advantages over them, and next year came to an accommodation, in which they not only preserved their old immunities, but obtained additional privileges. The result of all was, that these Cossacks remained under the protection of Russia; and as their former country was entirely laid waste in the late wars, they settled in the Russian Ukraine, upon receiving formal assurances from the court of Russia, that no alteration should be made in their political constitution, and that no taxes whatever should be laid upon them. The Cossacks, on the other hand, were always to keep in readiness a good body of troops for the service of Russia: but in the year 1708 Mazeppa, their hettman or chief, went over from the Russians to the Swedes; upon which Peter I. resolved to prevent such revolts for the future. To this end, after the battle of Pultowa, he sent a strong detachment into the above-mentioned little islands in the Dnieper, whither the Cossacks had fled with their wives and children, and all their effects; and ordered them all to be put to the sword without distinction, and the plunder to be divided among his soldiers. He likewise sent a great number of men into their country, and caused several thousands of the Cossacks to be carried to the coasts of the Baltic, where they were put to all sorts of hard labour; by which means he in a manner extirpated the whole nation.

What distinguishes the Zaporog Cossacks from all other people is, that they never suffer any women in their settlements, as the Amazons are said not to have suffered any men among them. The women of these Cossacks live in other islands of the Dnieper. They never marry, nor have any family: all their male children are enrolled as soldiers, and the females are left with their mothers. The brother often has children by his sister, and the father by his daughter. They know no laws but those which custom has introduced, founded on their natural wants; though they have among them some priests of the Greek persuasion. They serve in the armies as irregulars; and woe to those who fall into their hands.

The country of these Cossacks, who are an assemblage of ancient Roxelans, Sarmatians, and Tartars, is called the *Ocraine* or *Ukraine*. It lies upon the borders of Russia and Poland, Little Tartary, and Turkey, and was anciently a part of Scythia. By virtue of the last treaty settled between Russia and Poland, in 1693, the latter remains in possession of all that part of the Ukraine which is situated on the west of the Dnieper, and is now but poorly cultivated. That on the east side, inhabited by the Cossacks, is in a much better condition, and extends about two hundred and sixty miles in length, and as many in breadth. It is one continued fertile plain, watered by a great number of fine rivers, diversified with pleasant woods, and yields such plenty of all sorts of grain, pulse, tobacco, honey

honey and wax, as to ſupply a great part of the Ruſſian empire with thoſe commodities. Its paſtures are exceeding rich, and its cattle very large; but the inhabitants are greatly plagued by locuſts, which infeſt this fine country. The houſes in the Ukraine are, like thoſe of the Ruſſians, moſtly built with timber.

The Coſſacks are tall and well made, generally hawk-noſed, and of a good mien. They are hardy, vigorous, brave, and extremely jealous of what is moſt valuable in life, their liberty; fickle and wavering, but ſociable, cheerful, and ſprightly. They are a very powerful people, and their forces conſiſt wholly of cavalry.—Their dialect is a compound of the Poliſh and Ruſſian languages; but the latter is the moſt predominant. They were formerly Pagans or Mahometans; but upon their entering into the Poliſh ſervice, they were baptiſed Chriſtians of the Romiſh communion; and now that they belong to Ruſſia, they profeſs themſelves members of the Greek church.

Each of their towns, with the diſtrict belonging to it, is governed by an officer called *ottomann* or *attamann*.

The Don Coſſacks, ſo called from their reſidence upon the bank of the river Don, greatly reſemble thoſe already deſcribed. In the year 1559, when the Czar Iwan Baſilowitz was emperor of Ruſſia, they voluntarily put themſelves under his protection, and are at this time on a pretty equal footing with the other Ruſſian ſubjects. They have ſeveral towns and villages upon the banks of the Don; but are prevented from extending themſelves farther up the country, by the ſcarcity of freſh water and wood in many places. Their chief ſupport is grazing and agriculture, and occaſionally robbing and plundering, for which they want neither capacity nor inclination. Every town is governed by a magiſtrate called *tamann;* and the tamanns, with their towns, are under the juriſdiction of two ottomanns, who reſide at Tſherkaſky. The troops of theſe Coſſacks likewiſe conſiſt entirely of cavalry. In this country all the towns and villages are fortified and encompaſſed with palliſades, to defend them againſt the incurſions of the Calmucks and Cuban Tartars, with whom they are continually at war. The Coſſacks, in general, are of great ſervice to garriſon towns by way of defence, or to purſue an enemy; but are not ſo good at regular attacks.

The Sietſh Coſſacks, who are alſo called *Haidamacks*, have their particular hettman. They inhabit the Ruſſian, Poliſh, and Turkiſh dominions, along the banks of the Dnieper.

The Yaik Coſſacks dwell on the ſouth ſide of the river Yaik; and upon the ſucceſs of the Ruſſian arms in the kingdom of Aſtracan, voluntarily ſubmitted to them. In ſtature they greatly reſemble the other Coſſacks; though by their booriſh manner of living, and intermarriages with the Tartars, they have not the ſhape and air peculiar to the reſt of their countrymen. Their natural diſpoſitions and cuſtoms are, however, nearly the ſame. Huſbandry, fiſhing, and feeding of cattle, are their principal employments; and, like the other tribes, they let ſlip no opportunity of making depredations on their neighbours. The continual wars with the Kara Kalpacs and the Kaſatſhaia-Horda oblige them to keep their towns and villages in a ſtate of defence. They are indeed ſubject to Ruſſian waiwodes, to whom they pay an annual tribute in corn, wax, honey, and cattle; but they have alſo their particular chiefs, who govern them according to their ancient cuſtoms. Though the generality of the Yaik Coſſacks profeſs the Greek religion, yet a great many relics of Mahometaniſm and Paganiſm are ſtill found among them. Being naturally bold and hardy, they make excellent ſoldiers; and they are not ſo turbulent as the other Coſſacks. They live entirely at peace with the Calmucks and their other neighbours, and even maintain a commercial intercourſe with them.

COSSE DE GENISTE, an order of knighthood inſtituted in 1234, by Louis IX. at his marriage with Margaret of Provence. The motto on the collar of this order was *Exaltat humiles*.

COSSET, among farmers, a colt, calf, or lamb, brought up by hand without the dam.

COSTA, CHRISTOPHER, a celebrated botaniſt of the 16th century, was born in Africa, of a Portugueſe father, and went into Aſia, to perfect himſelf in the knowledge of ſimples, where he was taken priſoner, but found means to make his eſcape, and after ſeveral voyages, practiſed phyſic at Burgos. He wrote, 1. A treatiſe on Indian drugs and medicines. 2. His Voyages to the Indies. 3. A book in praiſe of Women; and other works.

COSTAL, an appellation given by anatomiſts to ſeveral parts belonging to the ſides; thus we meet with coſtal muſcles, vertebræ, &c.

COSTANZO, ANGELO DI, an Italian hiſtorian and poet, lord of Catulopa, was born in 1507, of a noble and ancient family of Naples, and died about 1591. He wrote, 1. A Hiſtory of Naples, from 1250 to 1489; the beſt edition of which is that of Aquila, in 1582, in folio, very ſcarce. 2. Italian poems, which are eſteemed, and have had ſeveral editions.

COSTA-RICCA, a province of North America in New Spain, and in the audience of Guatimala, bounded on the north-eaſt by the Northern ocean, on the ſouth-weſt by the South ſea, on the north-weſt by Nicaragua, and on the ſouth-eaſt by Veragua. The ſoil is not very fertile, though there is plenty of cattle. Carthagena is the capital town.

COSTARD, GEORGE, a clergyman of the church of England, and author of ſeveral learned works, was born about the year 1710. He was educated at Wadham college, Oxford; and took the degree of M. A. in 1733. The firſt eccleſiaſtical ſituation in which he was placed was that of curate of Iſlip in Oxfordſhire. In 1747 he publiſhed, in 8vo, Some Obſervations tending to illuſtrate the Book of Job. In 1750 he publiſhed Two Diſſertations: I. On the meaning of the word *Keſita*, mentioned in Job, chap. xlii. ver. 11. II. On the Signification of the word *Hermes*. In 1752 he publiſhed in 8vo, at Oxford, *Diſſertationes II. Critico-ſacræ, quarum prima explicatur Ezek.* xiii. 18. *altera vero*, 2 *Reg.* x. 22. In 1755 he wrote a letter to Dr Birch, which is preſerved in the Britiſh Muſeum, reſpecting the meaning of the phraſe *ſphæra barbarica*. Some time after this he undertook to publiſh a ſecond edition of Dr Hyde's *Hiſtoria Religionis veterum Perſarum, eorumque Magorum;* and which was accordingly printed under his inſpection and with his corrections, at the Clarendon

Coſtard || Coſtus.

rendon Preſs at Oxford, in 4to. In 1760, Mr Coſtard's extenſive learning having now recommended him to the notice of Lord Chancellor Northington, he obtained, by the favour of that nobleman, in June 1764, the vicarage of Twickenham in Middleſex, in which ſituation he continued till his death. In 1767, he publiſhed, in one volume quarto, The Hiſtory of Aſtronomy, with its application to Geography, Hiſtory, and Chronology; occaſionally exemplified by the Globes. This work was chiefly intended for the uſe of ſtudents, and contains a full and diſtinct view of the ſeveral improvements made in geography and aſtronomy. Mr Coſtard has ſhown, by a gradual deduction, at what time, and by whom, the principal diſcoveries have been made in geography and aſtronomy; how each diſcovery has paved the way to what followed; and by what eaſy ſteps, through the revolution of ſo many ages, theſe very uſeful ſciences have advanced towards their preſent ſtate of perfection. In 1778, he publiſhed, in 8vo, A Letter to Nathaniel Braſſey Halhed, Eſq. containing ſome Remarks on his preface to the Code of Gentoo Laws. This appears to have been the laſt of his publications. It contains ſome criticiſms which were intended to invalidate the opinion which Mr Halhed had conceived concerning the great antiquity of the Gentoo laws; and ſome arguments againſt a notion which had been adopted by ſeveral writers, drawn from the obſervation of natural phenomena, that the world is far more ancient than it is repreſented to be by the Hebrew chronology. Mr Coſtard died on the 10th of January 1782. He was a man of uncommon learning, and eminently ſkilled in Grecian and oriental literature. His private character was amiable, and he was much reſpected in the neighbourhood in which he lived for his humanity and benevolence. Beſides the works already mentioned, he wrote ſome others; and was alſo the author of learned papers, inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, on aſtronomical and chronological ſubjects.

COSTIVENESS, a preternatural detention of the feces, with an unuſual dryneſs and hardneſs thereof, and thence a ſuppreſſion of their evacuation. See MEDICINE *Index*.

COSTMARY, the Engliſh name of a ſpecies of tanſy. See TANACETUM, BOTANY *Index*.

COSTS, in *Law*, imply the expences of a ſuit recovered by the plaintiff, together with damages. Coſts were not allowed by the common law, the amercement of the vanquiſhed party being his only puniſhment; but they are given by ſtatute*. Coſts are allowed in chancery for failing to make anſwer to a bill exhibited, or making an inſufficient anſwer; and if a firſt anſwer be certified by a maſter to be inſufficient, the defendant is to pay 40s.; 3l. for a ſecond inſufficient anſwer; 4l. for a third, &c. But if the anſwer be reported good, the plaintiff ſhall pay the defendant 40s. coſts.

* *Blackſt. Comment.*

COSTUME, a rule or precept in painting, by which the artiſt is enjoined to make every perſon and thing ſuſtain its proper character, and not only obſerve the ſtory, but the circumſtances, the ſcene of action, the country or place, and take care that the habits, arms, manners, proportion, and the like, exactly correſpond.

COSTUS, a genus of plants belonging to the monandria claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the eighth order, *Scitamineæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

Coſtus || Coterie.

COTA, RODRIGUEZ, a Spaniſh poet in the 16th century, was the author of the *Tragi-comedia de Caliſto y Melibea*, which has been tranſlated into Latin by Gaſper Barthius, and into French by James de Lavardin. The Spaniards ſet a great value on this performance.

CO-TANGENT, the tangent of an arch which is the complement of another to 90. See GEOMETRY.

COTBUS, a town of Germay in Lower Luſatia. It is a ſtrong important place, and has been ſubject to the king of Pruſſia ever ſince the year 1645. It is ſeated on the river Spree, 60 miles ſouth-by-eaſt of Berlin, and 55 ſouth-eaſt of Wirtemburg. Here are a great number of French Proteſtants, who have introduced manufactures; and this place is noted for excellent beer, pitch, and the cultivation of flax. E. Long. 15. 29. N. Lat. 51. 40.

COTE, a term uſed in courſing, to expreſs the advantage one greyhound has over another when he runs by the ſide of it, and putting before it, gives the hare a turn. See COURSING.

COTE-Gare, a kind of refuſe wool, ſo clung or clotted together that it cannot be pulled aſunder. By 13 Rich. II. ſtat. 1. c. 9. it is provided, that neither denizen or foreigner make any other refuſe of wool, but cot-gare and villein. So the printed ſtatute has it; but in the parliament roll of that year it is *cod-land*, and *villein*. *Cot*, or *cote*, ſignifies as much as cottage in many places, and was ſo uſed by the Saxons according to Verſtegan.

COTELERIUS, JOHN BAPTIST, fellow of the Sorbonne, and king's Greek profeſſor, was born at Niſmes in Languedoc in 1627. He made a collection of the fathers who lived in the apoſtolic age, which he publiſhed at Paris in two volumes folio in 1672; all reviewed and corrected from ſeveral MSS. with a Latin tranſlation and notes. He alſo publiſhed *Monumenta Eccleſiæ Græcæ*, in 3 vols; being a collection of Greek tracts out of the king's and M. Colbert's libraries, and which had never been publiſhed before; to theſe he added a Latin tranſlation and notes. He intended a farther proſecution of this work; but his intenſe ſtudies broke his conſtitution, and deprived him of life in 1686. Beſides his great ſkill in languages and eccleſiaſtical antiquities, Cotelerius was remarkable for his probity and candour.

COTERELLUS. *Cotarius* and *Coterellus*, according to Spelman and Du Freſne, are ſervile tenants; but in Doomſday and other ancient MSS. there appears a diſtinction, as well in their tenure and quality as in their name; for the cotarius hath a free ſoccage tenure, and paid a ſtated firm or rent in proviſions or money, with ſome occaſional cuſtomary ſervices; whereas the coterellus ſeems to have held in mere villenage, and his perſon, iſſue, and goods, were diſpoſable at the pleaſure of the lord.

COTERIE, a term adopted from the French trading aſſociations or partnerſhips, where each perſon advances his quota of ſtock, and receives his proportion of gain; and which retains its original meaning when applied to little aſſemblies or companies aſſociated for mirth and good humour, where each one furniſhes his quota

quota of pleaſantry. Here they coin new words not underſtood elſewhere, but which it becomes faſhionable for others to uſe; and they are thought ridiculous who are ignorant of them. It has been ſometimes uſed to ſignify a club of ladies.

COTES, Roger, an excellent mathematician of the 18th century. He early diſcovered an inclination to the mathematics; and at 17 years of age, was admitted a penſioner of Trinity college, Cambridge. In 1706, he was appointed profeſſor of aſtronomy in the profeſſorſhip founded by Dr Plume archdeacon of Rocheſter, being choſen the firſt in that chair for his great merit and learning. In the year 1713, at the requeſt of Dr Richard Bentley, he publiſhed at Cambridge, in 4to, a ſecond edition of Sir Iſaac Newton's *Principia*, with all the improvements which the author had annexed thereto: to which he prefixed an excellent preface. He prepared ſeveral uſeful books for the public; and wrote A Deſcription of the great Meteor which appeared on the 6th of March 1716, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. He lived but a little while to carry on the diſcourſes for which he was eminently qualified; dying in the prime of his age in 1716, to the great regret of all the lovers of the ſciences.

COTESWOLD, ſeveral ſheep-cotes, and ſheep feeding on hills. It comes from the Saxon *cote*, i. e. *caſa*, "a cottage," and *wold*, "a place where there is no wood."

COTHURNUS, Buskin, a very high ſhoe or patten raiſed on ſoles of cork, worn by the ancient actors in tragedy, to make them appear taller and more like the heroes they repreſented, moſt of whom were ſuppoſed to be giants. It covered the greateſt part of the leg, and was tied beneath the knee. Æſchylus is ſaid to have invented the cothurnus. See Buskin.

COTICE, or Cotise', in *Heraldry*, is the fourth part of the bend; which with us is ſeldom or ever borne but in couples, with a bend between them; whence probably the name; from the French *cote*, "ſide;" they being borne, as it were, aſide of the bend. A bend thus bordered is ſaid to be *cotiſed*, *coticé*. He bears ſable on a bend cotiſed argent three cinquefoils.

COTILLON, the name of a well-known briſk dance, in which eight perſons are employed. The term is French, and ſignifies an under-petticoat.

COTRONE, a town in the Hither Calabria ſtanding on the ſite of the ancient Croton, though not occupying the ſame extent of ground: (See Croton). It is fortified with ſingle walls, and a caſtle erected by Charles V. Its private buildings are poor and ſordid, the ſtreets diſmal and narrow. Cheeſe and corn are the principal commodities. For the ſtowage of corn, there are ranges of granaries in the ſuburbs; and the annual export is about 20,000 tomoti. The cheeſe is tolerably good; but has a great deal of that hot acrid taſte ſo common to all cheeſe made with goat's milk. The wine is not unpleaſant, and appears ſuſceptible of improvement by better management in the making and keeping.

COTT, a particular ſort of bed-frame, ſuſpended from the beam of a ſhip for the officers to ſleep in between the decks. This contrivance is much more convenient at ſea than either the hammocks or fixed cabins: being a large piece of canvas ſewed into the form of a cheſt, about ſix feet long, and one foot deep, and from two to three feet wide. It is extended by a ſquare wooden frame with a canvas bottom, equal to its length and breadth, to retain it in an horizontal poſition.

COTTAGE, Cottagium, is properly a little houſe for habitation without lands belonging to it: ſtat. 4. Edw. I. But by a later ſtatute 31 Eliz. c. 7. no man may build a cottage unleſs he lay four acres of land thereto; except it be in market-towns or cities, or within a mile of the ſea, or for the habitation of labourers in mines, ſailors, foreſters, ſhepherds, &c. and cottages erected by order of juſtices of the peace for poor impotent people are excepted out of the ſtatute. The four acres of land to make it a cottage within the law are to be freehold, and land of inheritance; and four acres holden by copy, or for life or lives, or for any number of years, will not be ſufficient to make a lawful cottage.

COTTON, in *Commerce*, a ſoft downy ſubſtance found on the goſſypium, or cotton-tree. See Gossypium, Botany *Index*.

Cotton is ſeparated from the ſeeds of the plant by a mill, and then ſpun and prepared for all ſorts of fine work, as ſtockings, waiſtcoats, quilts, tapeſtry, curtains, &c. With it they likewiſe make muſlin; and ſometimes it is mixed with wool, ſometimes with ſilk, and even with gold itſelf.

The fineſt ſort comes from Bengal and the coaſt of Coromandel.

Cotton makes a very conſiderable article in commerce, and is diſtinguiſhed into cotton-wool and cotton-thread. The firſt is brought moſtly from Cyprus, St John d'Acre, Smyrna, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; the moſt eſteemed is white. Thoſe who buy it in bales ſhould ſee that it has not been wet: moiſture being very prejudicial to it.

Of cotton-thread, that of Damas, called *cotton d'ounce*, and that of Jeruſalem, called *bazas*, are the moſt eſteemed; as alſo that of the Weſt India iſlands. It is to be choſen white, fine, very dry, and evenly ſpun. The other cotton threads are the half bazas, the rames, the beledin, and gondezel; the payas and mountaſiri, the geneguins, the baquins, the joſſelaſſars, of which there are two ſorts. Thoſe of India, known by the name of Tutucorin, Java, Bengal, and Surat, are of four or five ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by the letters A, B, C, &c. They are ſold in bags, with a deduction of one pound and a half on each of thoſe of Tutucorin, which are the deareſt, and two pounds on each bag of the other ſorts. For thoſe of Fielebas, Smyrna, Aleppo, and Jeruſalem, the deduction at Amſterdam is eight in the hundred for the tare, and two in the hundred for weight, and on the value one per cent. for prompt payment.

Cotton of Siam, is a kind of ſilky cotton in the Antilles, ſo called becauſe the grain was brought from Siam. It is of an extraordinary fineneſs, even ſurpaſſing ſilk in ſoftneſs. They make hoſe of it there preferable to ſilk ones for their luſtre and beauty. They ſell from 10 to 12 and 15 crowns a pair, but there are very few made unleſs for curioſity.

The manner of packing COTTON *as practiſed in the Antilles.* The bags are made of coarſe cloth, of which they

they take three ells and a half each; the breadth is one ell three inches. When the bag has been well ſoaked in water, they hang it up, extending the mouth of it to croſs pieces of timber nailed to poſts fixed in the ground ſeven or eight feet high. He who packs it goes into the bag, which is ſix feet nine inches deep, or thereabouts, and preſſes down the cotton, which another hands him, with hands and feet; obſerving to tread it equally everywhere, and putting in but little at a time. The beſt time of packing is in rainy moiſt weather, provided the cotton be under cover. The bag ſhould contain from 300 to 320 pounds. The tare abated in the Antilles is three in the hundred. Cotton being a production applicable to a great variety of manufactures, it cannot be too much cultivated in our own plantations that will admit of it.

COTTON-Spinning, the art or proceſs of reducing cotton-wool into yarn or thread.

The moſt ſimple method for this purpoſe, and the only one in uſe for a long time in this country, was by the hand, upon the well-known domeſtic machine called a *one-thread wheel*. But as the demand for cotton-goods began to increaſe, other inventions were thought of for expediting this part of the manufacture. About 50 years ago, one Paul and others of London contrived an engine for a more eaſy and expeditious method of ſpinning cotton, and for which they obtained a patent; but the undertaking did not prove ſucceſsful. Some years thereafter, various machines were conſtructed by different perſons for facilitating the ſpinning of cotton; but without producing any very material or laſting advantage. At length, about the year 1767, Mr James Hargrave, a weaver in the neighbourhood of Blackburn in Lancaſhire, conſtructed a machine by which a great number of threads (from 20 to 80) might be ſpun at once, and for which he obtained his majeſty's letters-patent. This machine is called a *jenny*, and is the beſt contrivance for ſpinning *woof* or *ſhute* that has hitherto appeared. It is now commonly conſtructed for 84 threads; and with it one perſon can ſpin 100 Engliſh hanks in the day, each hank containing 840 yards.

Carding of cotton, as a preparation for ſpinning, uſed formerly to be performed by the hand, with a ſingle pair of cards upon the knee: but this being a tedious method, ill ſuited to the rapid operations of the new ſpinning machines, other methods were contrived for affording a quicker and more adequate ſupply. The firſt improvement for this purpoſe was likewiſe made by Mr Hargrave; and conſiſted in applying two or three cards to the ſame board, and fixing them to a ſtool or ſtock; whence they obtained the name of *ſtock-cards*. With theſe, one woman could perform two or three times as much work as ſhe could do before in the common way. A ſtill more expeditious method of carding, however, by what are commonly called *cylinder cards*, was ſoon afterwards invented, and is that which is now moſt commonly practiſed: but as ſeveral perſons lay claim to this invention, it is not eaſy to determine to whom in particular the merit of it is due.

The next and moſt capital improvements which this branch of manufacture received were from Mr Arkwright, a native of Lancaſhire, afterward Sir Richard Arkwright of Cromford in Derbyſhire. He firſt brought forward his new method of ſpinning cotton in 1768, for which he obtained a patent in 1769. In 1775, he obtained another patent for engines which he had conſtructed to prepare the materials for ſpinning; though one of theſe patents, being challenged at law, was ſet aſide ſome years before it expired. The reſult of Mr Arkwright's different inventions and improvements is a combination of machinery, by which cotton is *carded*, *roved*, and *ſpun*, with the utmoſt exactneſs and equality; and ſuch a degree of perfection attained in ſpinning *warp*, as is not to be equalled in any other part of the world. To theſe improvements this country is entirely indebted for the great extent of its cotton manufactures; large buildings having been erected for that branch both in England and Scotland, many of which contain ſeveral thouſands of ſpindles, each driven by one or more large water wheels; and ſome of ſuch extent as to ſpin at the rate of one thouſand yards of twiſt or warp yarn in the minute.

Other machines have been invented at different times, and a variety of improvements made by different mechanics and manufactures; one of which in particular we muſt not omit to mention. It is called a *mule*, being a kind of mixture of machinery between the *warp*-machine of Mr Arkwright and the *woof*-machine or hand jenny of Mr Hargrave; and was alſo invented in Lancaſhire. This machine bids fair to be of great uſe in ſpinning cotton-yarn for muſlins to a degree of fineneſs never known before in this country, being nearly equal in quality to thoſe uſually brought from India.

COTTON-Mills, are large buildings with peculiar machinery for carding, roving, and ſpinning cotton: (ſee the preceding article). Theſe were entirely unknown in this country before the different inventions and improvements of Meſſrs Arkwright and Hargrave; ſince which time great numbers have been erected in England, many in Scotland, and ſome in Ireland.

The firſt erections of the kind were by Meſſrs Arkwright and Hargrave, both in the town of Nottingham, and both nearly at the ſame time. The engines were then driven by horſes; but ſince that time they have been chiefly erected upon water-falls in different parts of the country; particularly the warp-machines, which are better adapted for being driven by water than any other. The moſt extenſive of theſe is in the village and neighbourhood of Cromford in Derbyſhire, and under the immediate inſpection of Sir Richard Arkwright. The firſt that was erected in Scotland was for Mr Peter Brotherſton, under the inſpection and direction of Mr John Hacket from Nottingham; and is in the neighbourhood of Pennycuick near Edinburgh. Since which time many have been erected in the neighbourhood of Glaſgow, Paiſley, Lanark, Perth, &c. Many are driven by ſteam-engines.

General State of the COTTON Manufactory. The facilities which the manufacturers of Great Britain had ſuddenly acquired, and the immenſe capitals which they have ſo recently laid out in expenſive machinery and other heavy eſtabliſhments for carrying on the cotton trade, are unparalleled in the annals of the world. Above 140 cotton mills are now (1787) built in Great Britain, of which nearly two thirds have been erected within theſe ſeven years. Beſides theſe, there are above 20,500 hand-mills or jennies for ſpinning

Cotton.

ning the ſhute for the twiſted yarn ſpun by the water-mills.

Above a million of money was within this time ſunk in mills, hand-engines, and other machines, including the grounds and neceſſary buildings.

Expence of water-mills, -	L.715,000
Ditto of hand jennies, houſes, buildings, and auxiliary machinery, ſuppoſed at leaſt,	285,000
Total,	L.1,000,000

A power had been alſo created of working nearly two millions of ſpindles; and men, women, and children were trained to this buſineſs, capable of carrying the cotton manufacture almoſt to any extent. In 1787, the power of ſpindles capable of being worked was eſtimated as follows:

In the water-mills, - - -	286,000
In the jennies, - - -	1,665,100
Total ſpindles,	1,951,100

In the branches applicable to muſlin and callico, it was calculated that employment was given to 100,000 men and women, and at leaſt 60,000 children; many of the latter having been taken from different pariſhes and hoſpitals in Great Britain.

The quantity of the raw material of cotton wool conſumed in this manufacture, which did not amount to 6,000,000 pounds in 1781, and was only about 11,000,000 pounds ſix years ago, had amounted in the year 1787 to the enormous height of 22,000,000 lb. and upwards; and the aſtoniſhing rapidity of this increaſe is in ſome meaſure to be attributed to the extenſion of theſe branches to the goods of India, particularly the callicoes and muſlins.

Britiſh callicoes were firſt made in Lancaſhire about the year 1772, but the progreſs was ſlow till within theſe laſt 12 years. The quantity manufactured has ſince extended from about 50,000 to 1,000,000 of pieces made in the courſe of a ſingle year.

Britiſh muſlins were not ſucceſsfully introduced until the year 1781, and were carried to no great extent until 1785, after which period the progreſs during two years became rapid beyond all example. The acquiſition of cotton wool of a ſuperior quality from Demerara and the Brazils, and the improvements made in the ſpinning fine yarns upon the mule jennies had given a ſpring to this branch of the cotton manufactory, which extended it beyond what it was poſſible to have conceived. Above half a million pieces of muſlin of different kinds, including ſhawls and handkerchiefs, were computed to be annually made in Great Britain; while the quantity not only increaſed daily with the new acceſſion of powers that were burſting forth upon the country, but the quality was exceedingly improved; and ſince a yearly ſupply of about 300 bales of Eaſt Indian cotton has been obtained by the way of Oſtend, yarns have been ſpun, and muſlins have been wove, equal to any from India. Nothing, therefore, but a fine raw material appeared wanting to enable the Britiſh manufacturer to carry this branch to the greateſt extent: and, of all others, it is that ſpecies of cotton goods which deſerves moſt to be encouraged, becauſe of the immenſe return it makes for labour more than any other branch of the cotton manufactory. Eaſt India cotton wool has been ſpun into one pound of yarn worth five guineas; and when wove into muſlin, and afterwards ornamented by children in the tambour, has extended to the value of 15l.; yielding a return of 5900 per cent. on the raw material.

But the ſtate of the raw materials, and the progreſſive and aſtoniſhing increaſe of this manufacture, will be beſt explained by what follows:

	Cotton wool uſed in the Manufacture.	Suppoſed Value when Manufactured.
1781,	lb. 5,101,920	L. 2,000,000
1782,	11,206,810	3,900,000
1783,	9,546,179	3,200,000
1784,	11,280,238	3,950,000
1785,	17,992,888	6,000,000
1786,	19,151,867	6,500,000
1787,	22,600,000	7,500,000

Such was the progreſs of the Britiſh cotton manufactory till 1787; when, with eſtabliſhments and mechanical powers capable of bringing forward immenſe quantities of goods into the conſumption, this manufacture was checked by a great and ſudden reduction of the prices of Eaſt India goods of the ſame ſpecies, which were ſold above 20 per cent. on an average under the loweſt prices at which the Britiſh manufacturer can afford to ſell without loſs.

This conduct in the Eaſt India Company quickly operated to the great prejudice of the Britiſh manufactures; and there is no ſaying how far theſe might be reduced, ſhould that company be allowed to preſs goods upon the market at prices which have no relation to the original coſt, and under circumſtances where every idea of protecting duties is annihilated in the effect of the general ſyſtem.

The home-manufacture of this article, however, in all its different branches, has been greatly extended, and is likely to be carried on with greater advantage to the manufacturer than ever it was before.

Lavender COTTON. See SANTOLINA, BOTANY *Index*.

Philoſophic COTTON, a name given to the flowers of zinc, on account of their white colour, extreme lightneſs, and reſemblance to cotton.

Flax made to reſemble COTTON. See FLAX.

*Silk-*COTTON. See BOMBAX, BOTANY *Index*.

COTTON-*Weed*. See GNAPHALIUM, BOTANY *Index*.

COTTON, *Sir Robert*, a moſt eminent Engliſh antiquarian, deſcended from an ancient family, was born in 1570. In his 18th year he began to collect ancient records, charters, and other MSS. Camden, Selden, and Speed, acknowledged their obligations to him in their reſpective works. He was highly diſtinguiſhed by Queen Elizabeth, and by James I. who created him a baronet. He wrote many things himſelf; but our principal obligations to him are for his valuable library, conſiſting of curious manuſcripts, &c. which he was 40 years in collecting. At his death in 1631, he left the property of it to his family, though deſigned for public uſe. A large acceſſion was made to this library by private benefactions before the death of the founder, and afterwards by the purchaſes of his heirs, and

and donations of others, who added to it a great number of books, chiefly relating to the history and antiquities of our own nation. An act of parliament was obtained, at the request of Sir John Cotton, in 1790, for preserving it after his decease, under the above denomination, for public use. It is now fixed in the British Museum. For statutes relating to it, see 12 and 13 W. III. c. 3. and 5 Anne, cap. 30.

COTTON, *Charles*, a burlesque poet, was descended of a good family, and lived in the reign of Charles II. and James II. His most celebrated piece is *Scarronides*, or *Travestie* of the first and fourth books of the Æneid. But though, from the title, one would be apt to imagine it an imitation of Scarron's famous Travestie of the same author, yet, upon examination, it will be found greatly to excel not only that, but every other attempt of the same kind that has been hitherto made in any language. He has also translated several of Lucian's dialogues, in the same manner, under the title of *The Scoffer Scoff'd*;—and written another poem of a more serious kind, entitled *The Wonders of the Peak*. The exact period of either Mr Cotton's birth or his death, is nowhere recorded; but it is probable the latter happened about the time of the revolution. Neither is it better known what his circumstances were with respect to fortune: they appear, however, to have been easy, if one may judge from the turn of his writings, which is such as seems scarcely possible for any one to indulge whose mind was not perfectly at ease. Yet there is one anecdote told of him, which seems to show that his vein of humour could not restrain itself on any consideration, viz. that in consequence of a single couplet in his *Virgil Travestie*, wherein he has made mention of a peculiar kind of ruff worn by a grandmother of his who lived in the Peak, he lost an estate of 400l. per annum; the old lady, whose humour and testy disposition he could by no means have been a stranger to, being never able to forgive the liberty he had taken with her; and having her fortune wholly at her disposal, although she had before made him her sole heir, altered her will, and gave it away to an absolute stranger.

COTTUS, or BULL-HEAD, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of thoracici. See ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

COTULA, MAY-WEED, a genus of plants belonging to the syngenesia class. See BOTANY *Index*.

COTULA, or *Cotyla*, a liquid measure in use among the ancients.

Fannius says the cotyla was the same thing with the hemina, which was half a sextary.

At cotylas, *quas si placeat, dixisse licebit*
Heminas recepit geminas sextarias unus.

Chorier observes, that the cotyla was used as a dry measure as well as a liquid one; from the authority of Thucydides, who in one place mentions two cotylæ of wine, and in another two cotylæ of bread.

COTURNIX. See TETRAO, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

COTYLEDON, NAVEL-WORT, a genus of plants belonging to the decandria class; and ranking under the natural order *Succulentæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

COTYLEDONES, in *Anatomy*, are certain glandular bodies, adhering to the chorion of some animals.

COTYLEDONES, in *Botany*, the perishable porous side lobes of the seed, which involve, and for some time furnish nourishment to, the embryo plant. See BOTANY *Index*.

COTYTTO, the goddess of all debauchery. Her festivals, called *Cotyttia*, were celebrated by the Athenians, Corinthians, Thracians, &c. during the night. Her priests were called *baptæ*, and nothing but debauchery and wantonness prevailed at the celebration. A festival of the same name was observed in Sicily, where the votaries of the goddess carried about boughs hung with cakes and fruit, which it was lawful for any person to pluck off. It was a capital punishment to reveal whatever was seen or done at these sacred festivals. It cost Eupolis his life for an unseasonable reflection upon them. The goddess Cotytto is supposed to be the same as Proserpine.

COUCH, in *Painting*, denotes a lay, or impression of colour, whether in oil or water, wherewith the painter covers his canvas, wall, wainscot, or other matter to be painted.

The word is also used for a lay or impression on any thing, to make it firm and consistent, or to screen it from the weather.

Paintings are covered with a couch of varnish; a canvas to be painted must first have two couches of size, before the colours be laid; two or three couches of white lead are laid on wood, before the couch of gold be applied: the leather-gilders lay a couch of water and whites of eggs on the leather, before they apply the gold or silver-leaf.

The gold-wire-drawers also use the word *couch* for the gold or silver leaf wherewith they cover the mass to be gilded or silvered, before they draw it through the iron that is to give it its proper thickness.

The gilders use couch for the quantity of gold or silver leaves applied on the metals in gilding or silvering. Each couch of gold is about one leaf, or two at most, and each of silver three to gild: if the gilding be hatched, there are required from eight to twelve couches; and only three or four if it be without hatching. To silver there are required from four to ten couches, according to the beauty of the work.

COUCH-Grass. See TRITICUM, BOTANY *Index*.

COUCHANT, in *Heraldry*, is understood of a lion, or other beast, when lying down, but with his head raised; which distinguishes the posture of couchant from dormant, wherein he is supposed quite stretched out and asleep.

COUCHÉ, in *Heraldry*, denotes any thing lying along: thus chevron-couche, is a chevron lying sidewise, with the two ends on each side of the shield, which should properly rest on the base.

COUCHER, or COURCHER, in our statutes, is used for a factor, or one that continues in some place or country for traffic; as formerly in Gascoign, for the buying of wines. Anno 37 Edw. III. c. 16.

COUCHER, is also used for the general book in which any religious house or corporation register their particular acts. Anno 3 and 4 Edw. VI. c. 10.

COUCHING *of a* CATARACT, in *Surgery*. See SURGERY *Index*.

COVE,

COVE, a ſmall creek or bay, where boats and ſmall veſſels may ride at anchor, ſheltered from the wind and ſea.

COVENANT, in *Law*, is the conſent and agreement of two or more perſons to do, or not to do, ſome act, or thing, contracted between them. Alſo it is the declaration the parties make, that they will ſtand to ſuch agreement, relating to lands or other things; and is created by deed in writing, ſealed and executed by the parties, or otherwiſe it may be implied in the contract as incident thereto. And if the perſons do not perform their covenants, a writ or action of covenant is the remedy to recover damages for the breach of them.

COVENANT, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, denotes a contract or convention agreed to by the Scotch in the year 1638, for maintaining their religion free from innovation. In 1581, the general aſſembly of Scotland drew up a confeſſion of faith, or national covenant, condemning epiſcopal government, under the name of *hierarchy*, which was ſigned by James I. and which he enjoined on all his ſubjects. It was again ſubſcribed in 1590 and 1596. The ſubſcription was renewed in 1638, and the ſubſcribers engaged by oath to maintain religion in the ſame ſtate as it was in 1580, and to reject all innovations introduced ſince that time. This oath annexed to the confeſſion of faith received the name of the *covenant*: as thoſe who ſubſcribed it were called *covenanters*.

COVENANT, in *Theology*, is much uſed in connection with other terms; as, 1. *The Covenant of Grace* is that which is made between God and thoſe who believe the goſpel, whereby they declare their ſubjection to him, and he declares his acceptance of them and favour to them. The goſpel is ſometimes denominated a *covenant of grace*, in oppoſition to the Moſaic law. 2. *Covenant of Redemption* denotes a mutual ſtipulation, tacit or expreſs, between Chriſt and the Father, relating to the redemption of ſinners by him, previous to any act on Chriſt's part under the character of Mediator. 3. *Covenant of Works* ſignifies, in the language of ſome divines, any covenant whereby God requires perfect obedience from his creatures, in ſuch a manner as to make no expreſs proviſion for the pardon of offences to be committed againſt the precepts of it, on the repentance of ſuch ſuppoſed offenders, but pronounces a ſentence of death upon them: ſuch, they ſay, was the covenant made with Adam in a ſtate of innocence, and that made with Iſrael at Mount Sinai.

Solemn League and COVENANT, was eſtabliſhed in the year 1643, and formed a bond of union between Scotland and England. It was ſworn and ſubſcribed by many in both nations; who hereby ſolemnly abjured popery and prelacy, and combined together for their mutual defence. It was approved by the parliament and aſſembly at Weſtminſter, and ratified by the general aſſembly of Scotland in 1645. King Charles I. diſapproved of it when he ſurrendered himſelf to the Scots army in 1646: but in 1650 Charles II. declared his approbation both of this and the national covenant by a ſolemn oath; and in Auguſt of the ſame year, made a farther declaration at Dunfermline to the ſame purpoſe, which was alſo renewed on occaſion of his coronation at Scone in 1651. The covenant was ratified by parliament in this year; and the ſubſcription of it required by every member, without which the conſtitution of the parliament was declared null and void. It produced a ſeries of diſtractions in the ſubſequent hiſtory of that country, and was voted illegal by parliament, and proviſion made againſt it. Stat. 14 Car. II. c. 4.

Ark of the COVENANT, in Jewiſh antiquity. See ARK.

COVENTRY, a town of Warwickſhire, in England, ſituated in W. Long. 1. 26. N. Lat. 52. 25. It is an ancient place, and is ſuppoſed to derive its name from a convent formerly ſituated here. Leofric, earl of Mercia, who rebuilt the religious houſe after it had been deſtroyed by the Danes, and was lord of the place about the year 1040, is ſaid, upon ſome provocation, to have loaded them with heavy taxes. Being importuned by his lady, Godina, to remit them, he conſented, upon condition that ſhe ſhould ride naked through the town, which he little imagined ſhe would ever comply with. But he found himſelf miſtaken: for ſhe accepted the offer, and rode through the town with her long hair ſcattered all over her body; having firſt enjoined the citizens not to venture, on pain of death, to look out as ſhe paſſed. It is ſaid, however, that a certain taylor could not help peeping: and to this day there is an effigy of him at the window whence he looked. To commemorate this extraordinary tranſaction, and out of reſpect to the memory of their patroneſs, the citizens make a proceſſion every year, with the figure of a naked woman on horſeback. After Leofric's death, the earls of Cheſter became lords of the city, and granted it many privileges. At length it was annexed to the earldom of Cornwall; and growing conſiderable, had divers immunities and privileges conferred upon it by ſeveral kings; particularly that of a mayor and two bailiffs by Edward III.; and Henry VI. made it, in conjunction with ſome other towns and villages, a diſtinct county, independent of the county of Warwick. But afterwards Edward VI. for their diſloyalty, deprived them of their liberties, which were not reſtored till they had paid a fine of 500 merks. By a charter from James I. an alderman is allotted to each ward, with the powers of the juſtices of the peace within the city and its liberties. The walls were ordered to be demoliſhed at the Reſtoration; and now nothing remains of them but the gates, which are very lofty. Coventry is noted for the two parliaments which were held in it; the one called the parliament of *Dunces*, and the other of *Devils*. The former was ſo called on account of the excluſion of the lawyers; and the attainders of the duke of York, the earls of Saliſbury, Warwick, and March, procured the other the epithet of *Devils*. The town-houſe of Coventry is much admired for its painted windows, repreſenting ſeveral kings and others that have been benefactors to the city. The chief manufactures carried on here are temmies and ribbands.

Coventry ſends two members to parliament, and gives title of earl to an ancient family of the ſame name.—Coventry is a biſhop's ſee. The biſhoprick is ſaid to have been founded by Ofwy king of Mercia, in the year 656 or 657; and although it hath a double name, yet, like Bath and Wells, it is a ſingle dioceſe. It was ſo extremely wealthy, that King Offa, by the favour of Pope Adrian, conſtituted it an archiepiſcopal ſee; but this

this title was laid aſide on the death of that king. In 1075, Peter, the 34th biſhop, removed the ſee to Cheſter. In 1102, Robert de Limſey, his immediate ſucceſſor, removed it to Coventry; and Hugo Novant, the 41ſt biſhop, removed it back to Litchfield, but with great oppoſition from the monks of Coventry. The diſpute was finally ſettled in a manner nearly ſimilar to that which is mentioned between Bath and Wells. Here it was agreed that the biſhop ſhould be ſtyled from both places, and that Coventry ſhould have the precedence; that they ſhould chooſe the biſhop alternately; and that they ſhould both make one chapter to the biſhop, in which the prior of Coventry ſhould be the chief man. Matters continued thus till the Reformation, when the priory of Coventry being diſſolved by King Henry VIII. the ſtyle of the biſhop continued as before. But an act of parliament paſſed 33d of King Henry VIII. to make the dean and chapter of Litchfield one ſole chapter to the biſhop. This ſee hath given three ſaints to the church; and to the nation one lord chancellor, three lord treaſurers, three preſidents of Wales, one chancellor to the univerſity of Cambridge, and one maſter of the wardrobe. The old church built by King Oſwy being taken down by Roger de Clinton, the 37th biſhop, he built the beautiful fabric that now ſtands in 1148, and dedicated it to the Virgin Mary and St Chad. During the grand rebellion, the church ſuffered much; but ſoon after the Reſtoration, it was repaired and beautified. This dioceſe contains the whole counties of Stafford and Derby (except two pariſhes of the former), the largeſt part of Warwickſhire, and nearly one half of Shropſhire, in which are 555 pariſhes, of which 250 are impropriate. It hath four archdeaconries, viz. Stafford, Derby, Coventry, and Shrewſbury. It is valued in the king's books at 559l. 18s. 2¾d. and is computed to be worth annually 2800l. The clergy's tenth is 590l. 16s. 11¼d. To this cathedral belong a biſhop, a dean, a precentor, a chancellor, a treaſurer, four archdeacons, twenty-ſeven prebendaries, five prieſt-vicars, ſeven lay clerks or ſinging men, eight choriſters, and other under officers and ſervants.

CO-VERSED SINE, in *Geometry*, the remaining part of the diameter of a circle, after the verſed ſine is taken from it. See GEOMETRY.

COVERT, in *Law*.—*Femme Covert* denotes a woman married, and ſo covered by, or under the protection of, her huſband.

COVERT Way, or CORRIDOR, in *Fortification*, a ſpace of ground, level with the field on the edge of the ditch, three or four fathoms broad, ranging quite round the half moons and other works towards the country. It has a parapet raiſed on a level, together with its banquets and glacis. See FORTIFICATION.

COVERTURE, in *Law*, is applied to the ſtate and condition of a married woman, who is under the power of her huſband, and therefore called *femme couvert*.

COUGH, in *Medicine*. See MEDICINE *Index*.

COUGH, in *Farriery*. See FARRIERY *Index*.

COUGH, called the huſk, is a diſeaſe to which young bullocks are ſubject. In this diſorder the wind-pipe and its branches are loaded with ſmall taper worms. Farmers count the diſeaſe incurable; but fumigations with mercurials, as cinnabar, or with fœtids, as tobacco, might prove ſerviceable.

COUHAGE, or STINKING BEANS; a kind of kidney-beans imported from the Eaſt Indies, where they are uſed as a cure for the dropſy. The down growing on the outſide of the pod is ſo pointed as, like a nettle, to ſting the fleſh, though not with ſo painful a ſenſation. This, by a corruption of the word, is called *cowitch*. See DOLICHOS, BOTANY *Index*.

COVIN, a deceitful compact or agreement between two or more to deceive or prejudice a third perſon: As, if a tenant for life conſpire with another, that this other ſhall recover the land which the tenant holds in prejudice of him in reverſion. Dr Skinner takes the word to be a corruption of the Latin *conventum*, and therefore writes it *coven*. See CONSPIRACY.

COVING, in building, is when houſes are built projecting over the ground-plot, and the turned projecture arched with timber, lathed and plaſtered.

COVINUS, among the ancients, a kind of chariot, in which the Gauls and Britons uſed to fight in battles.

COUL, or COWL. See COWL.

COULTER, in *Huſbandry*, an iron inſtrument, fixed in the beam of a plough, and ſerving to cut the edge of each furrow. See AGRICULTURE.

COUNCIL, or COUNSEL, in a general ſenſe, an aſſembly of divers conſiderable perſons to concert meaſures relative to the ſtate.

In Britain, the law, in order to aſſiſt the king in the diſcharge of his duties, the maintenance of his dignity, and the exertion of his prerogative, hath aſſigned him a diverſity of councils to adviſe with.

1. The firſt of theſe is the high court of parliament. See PARLIAMENT.

2. The peers of the realm are by their birth hereditary counſellors of the crown; and may be called together by the king, to impart their advice in all matters of importance to the realm, either in time of parliament, or, which hath been their principal uſe, when there is no parliament in being. Accordingly, Bracton, ſpeaking of the nobility of his time, ſays, they might properly be called "conſules à conſulendo; reges enim tales ſibi aſſociant ad conſulendum." And in the law-books it is laid down, that the peers are created for two reaſons: 1. *Ad conſulendum*, 2. *Ad defendendum, regem:* for which reaſons the law gives them certain great and high privileges; ſuch as freedom from arreſts, &c. even when no parliament is ſitting; becauſe the law intends, that they are always aſſiſting the king with their counſel for the common-wealth, or keeping the realm in ſafety by their proweſs and valour.

Inſtances of conventions of the peers, to adviſe the king, have been in former times very frequent; though now fallen into diſuſe, by reaſon of the more regular meetings of parliament. Sir Edward Coke gives us an extract of a record, 5 Henry IV. concerning an exchange of lands between the king and the earl of Northumberland, wherein the value of each was agreed to be ſettled by advice of parliament (if any ſhould be called before the feaſt of St Lucia), or otherwiſe by advice of the grand council of peers, which the king promiſes to aſſemble before the ſaid feaſt, in caſe no parliament ſhall be called. Many other inſtances of this

Council. Blackstone's Comment.

this kind of meeting are to be found under our ancient kings: though the formal method of convoking them had been so long left off, that when King Charles I. in 1640, issued out writs under the great seal to call a council of all the peers of England, to meet and attend his majesty at York, previous to the meeting of the long parliament, the earl of Clarendon mentions it as a new invention, not before heard of: that is, as he explains himself, so old, that it had not been practised in some hundreds of years. But though there had not for long time before been an instance, nor has there been any since, of assembling them in so solemn a manner, yet in cases of emergency, our princes have at several times thought proper to call for, and consult as many of the nobility as could easily be brought together; as was particularly the case with King James II. after the landing of the prince of Orange; and with the prince of Orange himself before he called the convention parliament which afterwards called him to the throne.

Besides this general meeting, it is usually looked upon to be the right of each particular peer of the realm, to demand an audience of the king, and to lay before him with decency and respect such matters as he shall judge of importance to the public weal. And therefore, in the reign of Edward II. it was made an article of impeachment in parliament against the two Hugh Spencers, father and son, for which they were banished the kingdom, "that they by their evil covin would not suffer the great men of the realm, the king's good counsellors, to speak with the king, or to come near him; but only in presence and hearing of said Hugh the father and Hugh the son, or one of them, and at their will, and according to such things as pleased them."

3. A third council belonging to the king, are, according to Sir Edward Coke, his judges of the courts of law, for law-matters. And this appears frequently in the English statutes, particularly 14 Edward III. c. 5. and in other books of law. So that when the king's council is mentioned generally, it must be defined, particularized, and understood *secundum subjectam materiem;* "according to the subject matter;" and if the subject be of a legal nature, then by the king's council is understood, his council for matters of law; namely, his judges. Therefore, when by statute 16 Richard II. c. 5. it was made a high offence to import into England any papal bulls, or other processes from Rome; and it was enacted, that the offenders should be attached by their bodies and brought before the king and his council to answer for such offence; here, by the expression of king's *council*, were understood the king's judges of his courts of justice, the subject matter being legal: this being the general way of interpreting the word *council*.

4. But the principal council belonging to the king is his *privy council*, which is generally by way of eminence, called *the council*. For an account of its constitution and powers, see the article *PRIVY Council*.

Aulic COUNCIL. See AULIC.

Common COUNCIL, in the city of London, is a court wherein are made all the bye-laws which bind the citizens. It consists, like the parliament, of two houses; an upper, composed of the lord-mayor and aldermen; and a lower, of a number of common-council men, chosen by the several wards, as representatives of the body of the citizens.

Council. Counsel.

COUNCIL of War, an assembly of the principal officers of an army or fleet, occasionally called by the general or admiral to concert measures for their conduct with regard to sieges, retreats, engagements, &c.

COUNCIL, in church history, an assembly of prelates and doctors, met for regulating matters relative to the doctrine or discipline of the church.

National COUNCIL, is an assembly of the prelates of a nation under their primate or patriarch.

Oecumenical or *General* COUNCIL, is an assembly which represents the whole body of the universal church. The Romanists reckon eighteen of them; Bullinger, in his Treatise de Conciliis, six; Dr Prideaux, seven; and Bishop Beveridge has increased the number to eight, which, he says, are all the general councils which have ever been held since the time of the first Christian emperor. They are as follows: 1. The council of Nice, held in the reign of Constantine the Great, on account of the heresy of Arius. 2. The council of Constantinople, called under the reign and by the command of Theodosius the Great, for much the same end that the former council was summoned. 3. The council of Ephesus, convened by Theodosius the younger at the suit of Nestorius. 4. The council of Chalcedon, held in the reign of Martinus, which approved of the Eutychian heresy. 5. The second council of Constantinople, assembled by the emperor Justinian, condemned the three chapters taken out of the book of Theodorus of Mopsuestia, having first decided that it was lawful to anathematise the dead. Some authors tell us, that they likewise condemned the several errors of Origen about the Trinity, the plurality of worlds, and pre-existence of souls. 6. The third council of Constantinople, held by the command of Constantius Pogonatus the emperor, in which they received the definitions of the five first general councils, and particularly that against Origen and Theodorus of Mopsuestia. 7. The second Nicene council. 8. The fourth council of Constantinople, assembled when Louis II. was emperor of the West. The regulations which they made are contained in twenty-seven canons, the heads of which are set down by M. du Pin, to whom the reader is referred.

COUNSEL, in a general sense, signifies advice or instruction how to behave in any difficult matter.

COUNSEL, or *Advocates*, in English courts of law, are of two species or degrees; BARRISTERS, and SERJEANTS. See these articles; also ADVOCATE.

From both these degrees some are usually selected to be his majesty's counsel, learned in the law; the two principal of whom are called his *attorney-general*, and *solicitor-general*. The first king's counsel, under the degree of serjeant, was Sir Francis Bacon, who was made so *honoris causa*, without either patent or fee; so that the first of the modern order (who are now the sworn servants of the crown, with a standing salary) seems to have been Sir Francis North; afterwards lord keeper of the great seal to King Charles II. These king's counsel answer, in some degree, to the advocates of the revenue, *advocati fisci*, among the Romans. For they must not be employed in any case against the crown without special license; in which restriction they agree with

Counsel || Count

with the advocates of the fisc; but, in the imperial law, the prohibition was carried still farther, and perhaps was more for the dignity of the sovereign; for, excepting some peculiar causes, the fiscal advocates were not permitted to be at all concerned in private suits between subject and subject. A custom has of late years prevailed of granting letters patent of precedence to such barristers as the crown thinks proper to honour with that mark of distinction; whereby they are entitled to such rank and preaudience as are assigned in their respective patents; sometimes next after the king's attorney-general, but usually next after his majesty's counsel next being. These, as well as the queen's attorney and solicitor-general, rank promiscuously with the king's counsel; and, together with them, sit within the bar of their respective courts: but receive no salaries, and are not sworn; and therefore are at liberty to be retained in causes against the crown. And all other serjeants and barristers indiscriminately, (except in the court of common pleas, where only serjeants are admitted), may take upon them the protection and defence of any suitors, whether plaintiff or defendant; who are therefore called their *clients;* like the dependants on the ancient Roman orators. These indeed practised *gratis*, for honour merely, or at most for the sake of gaining influence; and so likewise it is established with us, that a counsel can maintain no action for his fees; which are given, not as *locatio vel conductio*, but as *quiddam honorarium;* not as a salary or hire, but as a mere gratuity, which a counsellor cannot demand without doing wrong to his reputation; as is also laid down with regard to advocates in the civil law, whose *honorarium* was directed, by a decree of the senate, not to exceed in any case 10,000 sesterces, or about 80l. of English money. And in order to encourage due freedom of speech in the lawful defence of their clients, and at the same time to check the unseemly licentiousness of prostitute and illiberal men (a few of whom may sometimes insinuate themselves even into the most honourable professions), it hath been holden that a counsel is not answerable for any matter by him spoken, relative to the cause in hand, and suggested in the client's instructions; although it should reflect upon the reputation of another, and even prove absolutely groundless; but if he mentions an untruth of his own invention, or even upon instructions, if it be impertinent to the cause in hand, he is then liable to an action from the party injured. And counsel guilty of deceit and collusion are punishable by the statute Westm. I. 3 Edw. I. c. 28. with imprisonment for a year and a day, and perpetual silence in the courts: a punishment still sometimes inflicted for gross misdemeanors in practice.

Blackstone's Comment.

COUNSELLOR, in general, a person who advises another: thus we say, a counsellor at law, a privy counsellor, &c.

COUNSELLOR at Law, a person retained by a client, to plead his cause in a public court of judicature. See ADVOCATE, BARRISTER, COUNSEL, and SERJEANT.

Privy COUNSELLOR. See *PRIVY Council.*

COUNT, (COMES), a nobleman who possesses a domain erected into a county. See VISCOUNT.

English and Scottish counts we distinguish by the title of *earls;* foreign ones still retain their proper name. The dignity of a count is a medium between that of a duke and a baron. According to the modern use, most plenipotentiaries and ambassadors assume the title of counts, though they have no county; as the count d'Avaux, &c.

Count.

Anciently, all generals, counsellors, judges, and secretaries of cities under Charlemagne, were called *counts;* the distinguishing character of a duke and count being this, that the latter had but one town under him, but the former had several.

A count has a right to bear on his arms a coronet, adorned with three precious stones, and surmounted with three large pearls, whereof those in the middle and extremities of the coronet advance above the rest.

Counts were originally lords of the court, or of the emperor's retinue, and had their name *comites*, *à comitando*, or *à commeando:* hence those who were always in the palace, or at the emperor's side, were called *counts palatine*, or *comites à latere.* See PALATINE.

In the times of the commonwealth, *comites* among the Romans was a general name for all those who accompanied the proconsuls and proprætors into the provinces, there to serve the commonwealth; as the tribunes, præfects, scribes, &c.

Under the emperors, *comites* were the officers of the palace. The origin of what we now call *counts* seems owing to Augustus, who took several senators to be his *comites*, as Dion observes, i. e. to accompany him in his voyages and travels, and to assist him in the hearing of causes; which were thus judged with the same authority as in full senate. Gallienus seems to have abolished this council, by forbidding the senators being found in the armies; and none of his successors re-established it.

These counsellors of the emperor were really counts, *comites*, i. e. companions of the prince; and they sometimes took the title thereof, but always with the addition of the emperor's name whom they accompanied: so that it was rather a mark of their office than a title of dignity. Constantine was the first who converted it into a dignity; and under him it was that the name was first given absolutely. The name once established was in a little time indifferently conferred, not only on those who followed the court, and accompanied the emperor, but also on most kinds of officers; a long list whereof is given us by Du Cange.

Eusebius tells us, that Constantine divided the counts into three classes; the first bore the title of *illustres*, the second that of *clarissimi*, and afterwards *spectabiles;* the third were called *perfectissimi.* Of the two first classes was the senate composed: those of the third had no place in the senate, but enjoyed several other of the privileges of senators.

There were counts who served on land, others at sea; some in a civil, some in a religious, and some in a legal capacity; as *comes ærarii*, *comes sacrarum largitionum*, *comes sacri consistorii*, *comes curiæ*, *comes capellæ*, *comes archiatrorum*, *comes commerciorum*, *comes vestiarius*, *comes horreorum*, *comes opsoniorum* or *annonæ*, *comes domesticorum*, *comes equorum regiorum* or *comes stabuli*, *comes domorum*, *comes excubitorum*, *comes notariorum*, *comes legum* or *professor in jure*, *comes limitum* or *marcarum*, *comes portus Romæ*, *comes patrimonii*, &c.

Count.

The Franks, Germans, &c. paſſing into Gaul and Germany, did not aboliſh the form of the Roman government: and as the governors of cities and provinces were called *counts*, *comites*, and *dukes*, *duces*, they continued to be called ſo. They commanded in time of war; and in time of peace they adminiſtered juſtice. Thus, in the time of Charlemagne, counts were the ordinary judges and governors of the cities.

Theſe counts of cities were beneath the dukes and counts who preſided over provinces; the firſt being conſtituted in the particular cities, under the juriſdiction of the latter. The counts of provinces were in nothing inferior to dukes, who themſelves were only governors of provinces. Under the laſt of the ſecond race of French kings, they got their dignity rendered hereditary, and even uſurped the ſovereignty when Hugh Capet came to the crown; his authority was not ſufficient to oppoſe their encroachments; and hence it is they date the privilege of wearing coronets in their arms; they aſſumed it then, as enjoying the rights of ſovereigns in their particular diſtricts or counties. But, by degrees, moſt of the counties became reunited to the crown.

The quality of count is now become very different from what it was anciently; being now no more than a title, which a king grants upon erecting a territory into a county, with a reſerve of juriſdiction and ſovereignty to himſelf. At firſt there was no clauſe in the patent of erection intimating the reverſion of the county to the crown in default of heirs male; but Charles IX. to prevent their being too numerous, ordained that duchies and counties, in default of heirs male, ſhould return to the crown.

The point of precedence between counts and marquiſes was formerly much controverted: the reaſon was, that there were counts who were peers of France, but no marquiſes; but the point was given up, and marquiſes took place; though anciently, when counts were governors of provinces, they were on a level even with dukes.

William the Conqueror, as is obſerved by Camden, gave the dignity of counts in fee to his nobles; annexing it to this or that county or province, and allotting for their maintenance a certain proportion of money, ariſing from the prince's profits in the pleadings and forfeitures of the provinces. To this purpoſe he quotes an ancient record, thus: Hen. II. *Rex Angliæ his verbis comitem creavit; ſciatis nos feciſſe Hugonem Bigot comitem de Norf, &c. de tertio denarii de Norwich et Norfolk, ſicut aliquis comes Angliæ, &c.*

The Germans call a count, *graaf*, or *graff*; which, according to a modern critic, properly ſignifies *judge*; and is derived from *gravio* or *graffio*, of γραφω, *I write*. They have ſeveral kinds of theſe counts or graffs; as landgraves, marchgraves, burg-graves, and palſ-graves, or counts palatine. Theſe laſt are of two kinds: the former are of the number of princes, and have the inveſtiture of a palatinate; the others have only the title of *count palatine* without the inveſtiture of any palatinate. Some aſſert, that by publicly profeſſing the imperial laws for twenty years, the perſon acquires the dignity of a count palatine; and there are inſtances of profeſſors in law who have aſſumed the title accordingly; but there are others who queſtion this right.

COUNT, in *Law*, denotes the original declaration in a real action; as the declaration is in a perſonal one: the libellus of the civilians anſwers to both. Yet, count and declaration are ſometimes confounded, and uſed for each other; as, count in debt, count in appeal, &c.

Count ‖ Counter-paſſant.

COUNT-Wheel, in the ſtriking part of a clock, a wheel which moves round once in 12 or 24 hours. It is ſometimes called the *locking-wheel*. See *CLOCK-Making*.

COUNTER, a term which enters into the compoſition of divers words of our language, and generally implies oppoſition; but when applied to deeds, means an exact copy kept of the contrary party, and ſometimes ſigned by both parties.

COUNTER-Changed, in *Heraldry*, the intermixture or oppoſition of any metal with a colour.

COUNTER-Flory, in *Heraldry*, is ſaid of a treſſure whoſe flowers-de-luce are oppoſite to others. See HERALDRY.

COUNTER-Drawing, in *Painting*, is the copying a deſign or painting, by means of a fine linen-cloth, an oiled paper, or other tranſparent matter, where the ſtrokes appearing through are followed with a pencil, with or without colour. Sometimes it is done on glaſs, and with frames or nets divided into ſquares with ſilk or with thread, and alſo by means of inſtruments invented for the purpoſe, as the parallelogram.

COUNTER-Ermine, in *Heraldry*, is the contrary of ermine, being a black field with white ſpots.

COUNTERFEITS, in *Law*, are perſons that obtain any money or goods by counterfeit letters or falſe tokens, who being convicted before juſtices of aſſize or of peace, &c. are to ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as ſhall be thought fit to be inflicted under death, as impriſonment, pillory, &c.

COUNTER-FOIL, or COUNTER-*ſtock*, in the exchequer, that part of a tally which is kept by an officer of the court.

COUNTER-Guard, in *Fortification*, is a work raiſed before the point of a baſtion, conſiſting of two long faces parallel to the faces of the baſtion, making a ſalient angle; they are ſometimes of other ſhapes, or otherwiſe ſituated.

COUNTER-Light, or *Counter-jour*, a light oppoſite to any thing, which makes it appear to diſadvantage. A ſingle counter-light is ſufficient to take away all the beauty of a fine painting.

COUNTER March, in military affairs, a change of the face or wings of a battalion, by which means thoſe that were in the front come to be in the rear. It alſo ſignifies returning, or marching back again.

COUNTER-Mine, in *War*, a well and gallery drove and ſunk till it meet the enemy's mine, to prevent its effect.

COUNTER-Paled, in *Heraldry*, is when the eſcutcheon is divided into twelve pales parted per feſſe, the two colours being counter-changed; ſo that the upper are of one colour and the lower of another.

COUNTER-Part, in *Muſic*, denotes one part to be applied to another. Thus the baſs is ſaid to be a counterpart to the treble.

COUNTER-Paſſant, in *Heraldry*, is when two lions are in a coat of arms, and the one ſeems to go quite the contrary way from the other.

COUNTER-

COUNTER-Point, in *Music*, a term derived from the Latin preposition *contra* and the verb *pungere*; because the musical characters by which the notes in each part are signified are placed in such a manner, each with respect to each, as to show how the parts answer one another. See COMPOSITION.

COUNTER-Pointed (Contre-pointé), in *Heraldry*, is when two cheverons in one escutcheon meet in the points, the one rising as usual from the base, and the other inverted falling from the chief; so that they are counter to one another in the points. They may also be counter-pointed when they are founded upon the sides of the shield, and the points meet that way, called *counter-pointed* in *fesse*.

COUNTERPOISE, in the manege, is the liberty of the action and seat of a horseman; so that in all the motions made by the horse, he does not incline his body more to one side than to the other, but continues in the middle of the saddle, being equally on his stirrups, in order to give the horse the proper and reasonable aids.

COUNTER-POTENT *(contre-potencé)*, in *Heraldry*, is reckoned a fur as well as vaire ermine; but composed of such pieces as represent the tops of crutches, called in French *potences*, and in old English *potents*.

COUNTER-Proof, in rolling-press printing, a print taken off from another fresh printed; which by being passed through the press, gives the figure of the former, but inverted. To counter-prove, is also to pass a design in black lead, or red chalk, through the press, after having moistened with a sponge both that and the paper on which the counter-proof is to be taken.

COUNTER-Quartered (contre-ecartelé,) in *Heraldry*, denotes the escutcheon, after being quartered, to have each quarter again divided into two.

COUNTER-Saliant, is when two beasts are borne in a coat leaping from each other directly the contrary way.

COUNTER-Scarp, in *Fortification*, is properly the exterior talus or slope of the ditch; but it is often taken for the covered way and the glacis. In this sense we say, the enemy have lodged themselves in the counter-scarp. Angle of the counter-scarp, is that made by two sides of the counter-scarp, meeting before the middle of the curtain.

COUNTER-Signing, the signing the writing of a superior in quality of secretary. Thus charters are signed by the king, and counter-signed by a secretary of state, or lord-chancellor.

COUNTER-Time, in the manege, is the defence or resistance of a horse that interrupts his cadence, and the measure of his manege, occasioned either by a bad horseman or by the malice of a horse.

COUNTER, is also the name of a counting-board in a shop, and of a piece of metal with a stamp on it, used in playing at cards.

COUNTER of a Horse, that part of a horse's forehand which lies between the shoulders and under the neck.

COUNTERS in a ship, are two. 1. The hollow arching from the gallery to the lower part of the straight piece of the stern, is called the *upper-counter*. 2. The lower counter is between the transom and the lower part of the gallery.

COUNTER, is also the name of two prisons in the city of London, viz. the Poultry and Woodstreet.

COUNTORS, COUNTOURS, or COUNTERS, has been used for serjeants at law, retained to defend a cause, or to speak for their client in any course of law.

It is of these Chaucer speaks:

——A sheriff had he been, and a contour,
Was nowhere such a worthy vavasour.

They were anciently called *sergeant contours*.

COUNTRIES, among the miners, a term or appellation they give to their works under ground.

COUNTRY, among geographers, is used indifferently to denote either a kingdom, province, or lesser district. But its most frequent use is in contradistinction to town.

COUNTRY-Dance is of English origin, though now transplanted into almost all the countries and courts of Europe. There is no established rule for the composition of tunes to this dance, because there is in music no kind of time whatever which may not be measured by the motions common in dancing; and there are few song tunes of any note within the last century, that have not been applied to country-dances.

COUNTY, in *Geography*, originally signified the territory of a count or earl, but now it is used in the same sense with shire; the one word coming from the French, the other from the Saxon.—In this view, a county is a circuit or portion of the realm; into fifty-two of which the whole land, England and Wales, is divided for its better government and the more easy administration of justice.

For the execution of the laws in the several counties, excepting Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Durham, every Michaelmas term officers are appointed, under the denomination of *sheriffs*. Other officers of the several counties are, lord-lieutenant, who has the command of the militia of the county; custodes rotulorum, justices of peace, bailiffs, high-constable, and coroner.

Of the fifty-two counties, there are three of special note, which are therefore termed *counties palatine*, as Lancaster, Chester, and Durham. See PALATINE.

COUNTY-Corporate, is a title given to several cities, or ancient boroughs, on which our monarchs have thought fit to bestow extraordinary privileges; annexing to them a particular territory, land, or jurisdiction; and making them counties of themselves, to be governed by their own sheriffs and magistrates.

COUNTY Court, in *English Law*, a court incident to the jurisdiction of the sheriff. It is not a court of record, but may hold pleas of debt or damages under the value of 40s. Over some of which causes these inferior courts have, by the express words of the statute of Gloucester, a jurisdiction totally exclusive of the king's superior courts. For in order to be entitled to sue an action of trespass for goods before the king's justiciars, the plaintiff is directed to make affidavit that the cause of action does really and *bona fide* amount to 40s. which affidavit is now unaccountably disused, except in the court of exchequer. The statute

tute alſo 43 Eliz. c. 6. which gives the judges in many perſonal actions, where the jury aſſeſs leſs damages than 40s. a power to certify the ſame and abridge the plaintiff of his full coſts, was alſo meant to prevent vexation by litigious plaintiffs; who, for purpoſes of mere oppreſſion, might be inclinable to inſtitute ſuch ſuits in the ſuperior courts for injuries of a trifling value. The county court may alſo hold plea of many real actions, and of all perſonal actions to any amount, by virtue of a ſpecial writ called *juſticies*; which is a writ empowering the ſheriff for the ſake of diſpatch to do the ſame juſtice in this county-court, as might otherwiſe be had at Weſtminſter. The freeholders of the county are the real judges in this court, and the ſheriff is the miniſterial officer. The great conflux of freeholders, which are ſuppoſed always to attend at the county court (which Spelman calls *forum plebeiæ juſtitiæ et theatrum comitivæ poteſtatis*), is the reaſon why all acts of parliament at the end of every ſeſſion were wont to be there publiſhed by the ſheriff; why all outlawries of abſconding offenders are there proclaimed; and why all popular elections which the freeholders are to make, as formerly of ſheriffs and conſervators of the peace, and ſtill of coroners, verderors, and knights of the ſhire, muſt ever be made *in pleno comitatu*, or in full county-court. By the ſtatute 2 Edw. VI. c. 25. no county-court ſhall be adjourned longer than for one month, conſiſting of 28 days. And this was alſo the ancient uſage, as appears from the laws of King Edward the elder; *prepoſitus* (that is the ſheriff) *ad quartam circiter ſeptimanam frequentem populi concionem celebrato; cuique jus dicito; liteſque ſingulas dirimito.* In thoſe times the county-court was a court of great dignity and ſplendour, the biſhop and the ealdorman (or earl), with the principal men of the ſhire, ſitting therein to adminiſter juſtice both in lay and eccleſiaſtical cauſes. But its dignity was much impaired, when the biſhop was prohibited, and the earl neglected to attend it. And, in modern times, as proceedings are removeable from hence into the king's ſuperior courts, by writ of *pone* or *recordare*, in the ſame manner as from hundred-courts and courts-barons; and as the ſame writ of falſe judgment may be had, in nature of a writ of error, this has occaſioned the ſame diſuſe of bringing actions therein.

COUPAR, or CUPAR, *of* ANGUS, a town of Scotland, in the valley of Strathmore, and though deſignated in Angus, by far the greater part is ſituated in the county of Perth. The town is placed on the Iſla, and is divided by a rivulet into two parts; that part which lies ſouth of this rivulet being all that belongs to the county of Angus. The ſtreets are well paved and lighted, and the town has much improved of late years; there is a town-houſe and ſteeple on the ſpot where the priſon of the court of regality ſtood. The linen manufacture is carried on to a conſiderable extent, nearly 200,000 yards of different kinds of cloth being annually ſtamped here. The number of inhabitants in 1793, amounted to 1604. Cupar is diſtant about 12 miles from Perth, and nearly the ſame diſtance from Dundee. The pariſh of Cupar extends about 5 miles in length from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and is from 1 to 2 miles in breadth; it is divided lengthways by an elevated ridge: a conſiderable extent of haugh ground lies on the banks of the Iſla, which is frequently ſwelled by the rains, and lays nearly 600 acres under water. There are ſtill viſible at Cupar, the veſtiges of a Roman camp, ſaid to have been formed by the army of *Agricola* in his 7th expedition. On the centre of this camp, Malcolm IV. in 1104, founded and richly endowed an abbey for Ciſtertian monks; from what remains, it muſt have been a houſe of conſiderable magnitude.

COUPAR, or *Cupar, of Fife*, a town in Scotland, capital of the county of Fife, about 10 miles weſt of St Andrews; W. Long. 2. 40. N. Lat. 56. 20. It is ſituated on the north bank of the Eden, nearly in the centre of the county; it boaſts of great antiquity; the thanes of Fife, from the earlieſt times of which any account has been tranſmitted to us, held here their courts of juſtice; and in the rolls of parliament, aſſembled in the beginning of the reign of King David II. may be ſeen the names of commiſſioners from the royal borough of Cupar. It is governed by a provoſt, 3 bailies, a dean of guild, and 21 counſellors. The revenue of the town amounts to 430l. ſterling per annum. Cupar has the appearance of a neat, clean, well built, thriving town. The ſtreets are well paved, and upwards of one third of the town is newly built. The church is a neat new building, and the ſpire is much admired for its light and elegant appearance. Adjoining to the town-houſe, the gentlemen of the county lately built a room for county meetings, and other apartments. The priſons are on the oppoſite ſide of the town-houſe. In Cupar, and the neighbouring country, a conſiderable quantity of coarſe linens are manufactured; about 500,000 yards are annually ſtamped, the aggregate value of which is nearly 30,000l. ſterling. Population of the town is about 3140. The pariſh of Cupar is an irregular ſquare of 5 miles, divided into two parts by the river Eden, the banks of which are covered with numerous farm houſes, and ornamented with elegant and ſtately villas. *Carſlogie*, the ſeat of Colonel Clephane, is an ancient manſion. *Garlie bank*, the property of James Wemyſs, Eſq. of Winthank, is celebrated for the treaty concluded on the 13th of June 1559, between the duke de Chattelherault, on the part of the queen-regent, and the earl of Argyle commanding the forces of the congregation. The population of the pariſh (including the town of Cupar) in 1793, amounted to 3702; in 1801, there were 4463 inhabitants in the ſame diſtrict.

COUPED, in *Heraldry*, is uſed to expreſs the head, or any limb, of an animal, cut off from the trunk, ſmooth; diſtinguiſhing it from that which is called *craſſed*, that is, forcibly torn off, and therefore is ragged and uneven.

COUPED, is alſo uſed to ſignify ſuch croſſes, bars, bends, chevrons, &c. as do not touch the ſides of the eſcutcheon, but are, as it were, cut off from them.

COUPEE, a motion in dancing, wherein one leg is a little bent, and ſuſpended from the ground; and with the other a motion is made forwards.

The word in the original French ſignifies a *cut*.

COUPLE CLOSS, in *Heraldry*, the fourth part of a chevron, never borne but in pairs, except there be a chevron between them, ſaith Guillim, though Bloom gives an inſtance to the contrary.

COUPLET, a diviſion of a hymn, ode, ſong, &c. wherein

wherein an equal number, or equal meafure, of verfes, is found in each part; which divifions, in odes, are called *ftrophes*. Couplet, by an abufe of the word, is frequently made to fignify a couple of verfes.

COURAGE, in *Ethics*, is that quality of the mind, derived either from conftitution or principle, or both, that enables men to encounter difficulties and dangers. See FORTITUDE.

COURANT, a French term fynonymous with *current*, and properly fignifies running. See CURRENT.

COURANT, is alfo a term in mufic and dancing; being ufed to exprefs both the tune or air and the dance. With regard to the firft, *courant* or *currant* is a piece of mufic in triple time: the air of the courant is ordinarily noted in triples of minims; the parts to be repeated twice. It begins and ends when he who beats the meafure falls his hands; in contradiftinction from the faraband, which ordinarily ends when the hand is raifed. With regard to dancing, the courant was long the moft common of all the dances practifed in England: it confifts, effentially, of a time, a ftep, a balance, and a coupee; though it alfo admits of other motions. Formerly they leaped their fteps; in which point the courant differed from the low dance and pavades. There are fimple courants and figured courants, all danced by two perfons.

COURAP, the modern name for a diftemper very common in Java and other parts of the Eaft Indies. It is a fort of herpes or itch on the arm-pits, groins, breaft, and face; the itching is almoft perpetual; and the fcratching is followed by great pain and a difcharge of matter, which makes the linen ftick fo to the fkin as not eafily to be feparated without tearing off the cruft. *Courap* is a general name for any fort of itch; but this diftemper is thus called by way of eminence. It is fo contagious that few efcape it. For the cure, gentle and repeated purging is ufed, and externally the fublimate in a fmall quantity is a good topic.

COURAYER, PETER FRANCIS, a Roman Catholic clergyman, diftinguifhed by great moderation, charity, and temper, concerning religious affairs, as well as by learning, was born at Vernon in Normandy, 1681. While canon regular and librarian of the abbey of St Genevieve at Paris, he applied to our archbifhop Wake for the refolution of fome doubts, concerning the epifcopal fucceffion in England, and the validity of our ordinations: he was encouraged to this by the friendly correfpondence which had paffed between the archbifhop and M. du Pin of the Sorbonne. The archbifhop fent him exact copies of the proper records; and on thefe he built his "Defence of Englifh Ordinations," which was publifhed in Holland, in 1727. This expofed him to a profecution in his own country; he therefore took refuge in England; where he was well received, and prefented the fame year by the univerfity of Oxford with a doctor's degree. As it is fomewhat uncommon for a Roman Catholic clergyman to be admitted to degrees in divinity by Proteftant univerfities, the curious may be gratified with a fight of the diploma, and the doctor's letter of thanks, in "The prefent State of the Republic of Letters, for June 1728." In 1736, he tranflated into French, and publifhed, "Father Paul's Hiftory of the Council of Trent," in 2 vols. folio, and dedicated it to Queen Caroline; who augmented to 200l. a penfion of 100l. a year, which he had obtained before from the court. The learned Jer. Markland, in a letter to his friend Bowyer, September 1756, fays, "Mr Clarke has given me F. Courayer's tranflation of the Hiftory of the Council of Trent; with whofe preface I am fo greatly pleafed, that if he be no more a papift in other tenets than he is in thofe he mentions (which are many, and of the moft diftinguifhing clafs), I dare fay there are very few confiderate Proteftants who are not as good Catholics as he is." His works are many, and all in French: he tranflated Sleidan's "Hiftory of the Reformation." He died in 1776, after two days illnefs, at the age of 95; and was buried in the cloifter of Weftminfter-abbey. In this will, dated Feb. 3. 1774, he declares, that he "dies a member of the Catholic church, but without approving of many of the opinions and fuperftitions which have been introduced into the Romifh church, and taught in their fchools and feminaries; and which they have infifted on as articles of faith, though to him they appear to be not only not founded in truth, but alfo to be highly improbable." And his practice was conformable to this declaration; for at London he conftantly went to mafs, and at Ealling in the country, whither he often retired, as conftantly attended the fervice of the parifh church; declaring at all times, that he "had great fatisfaction in the prayers of the church of England."

COURBARIL. See HYMENEA.

COURIER, or CURRIER, (from the French *courir*, "to run,") a meffenger fent poft, or exprefs, to carry difpatches.

The ancients too, had their couriers. We meet with two kinds: 1. Thofe who ran on foot, called by the Greeks *hemerodromi*, q. d. "couriers of a day." Pliny, Corn. Nepos, and Cæfar, mention fome of thofe who would run 20, 30, 36, and in the circus even 40 leagues per day. 2. Riding couriers (*curfores equitantes*), who changed horfes as the modern couriers do.

Xenophon attributes the firft couriers to Cyrus. Herodotus fays they were very ordinary among the Perfians, and that there was nothing in the world more fwift than thefe kind of meffengers. "That prince (fays Xenophon) examined how far a horfe would go in a day; and built ftables, at fuch diftances from each other, where he lodged horfes, and perfons to take care of them; and at each place kept a perfon always ready to take the packet, mount a frefh horfe, and forward it to the next ftage; and thus quite through his empire."

But it does not appear that either the Greeks or Romans had any regular fixed couriers till the time of Auguftus; under that prince they travelled in cars; though it would appear that they afterwards went on horfeback. Under the weftern empire they were called *viatores*; and under that of Conftantinople, *curfores*: whence the modern name. See POST.

COURLAND, a duchy fituated between E. Long. 21. 26. and between N. Lat. 56. 30. and 57. 20. It is bounded by the river Dwina, which divides it from Livonia on the north; by Lithuania, on the eaft; by Samogitia, on the fouth, and by the Baltic fea on the weft; being 120 miles long and 30 broad. This duchy

Courland || Courfing.

duchy was formerly independent, and elected their own duke; but it is now subject to Ruffia.

COURSE (*route*), in *Navigation*, the angle contained between the nearest meridian and that point of the compafs upon which a ship fails in any particular direction.

COURSE, in *Architecture*, denotes a continued range of ftones, level, or of the fame height, throughout the whole length of the building; and not interrupted by any aperture. It forms a parapet to the intermediate fpace between the body of the building and the wings.

COURSE of Plinths, is the continuity of a plinth of ftone or plafter in the face of a building; to mark the feparation of the ftories.

COURSE is alfo ufed for the time ordinarily fpent in learning the principles of a fcience, or the ufual points and queftions therein. Thus, a ftudent is faid to have finifhed his courfe in the humanity, in philofophy, &c.

COURSE is alfo ufed for the elements of an art exhibited and explained, either in writing or by actual experiment. Hence our courfes of philofophy, anatomy, chemiftry, mathematics, &c. probably fo called as going throughout or running the whole length or courfe of the arts, &c.

COURSES, a name by which the principal fails of a fhip are diftinguifhed, viz. the main-fail, the fore-fail, and the mizen: the mizen ftay-fail and fore-fail are alfo fometimes comprehended in this denomination; as are the main ftay-fails of all brigs and fchooners. See SAIL.

COURSING, among fportfmen. There are three feveral forts of courfes with grehounds: 1. At the hare; 2. At the fox; and 3. At the deer.

For the *deer*, there are two forts of courfes; the one in the paddock, the other either in the foreft or the purlieu. For the paddock courfe, there muft be the grehound and the terrier, and the mongrel grehound, whofe bufinefs it is to drive away the deer before the grehounds are flipped; a brace or a leafh are the ufual number flipped at a time, feldom at the utmoft more than two brace. In courfing the deer in the foreft or purlieu, there are two ways in ufe; the one is courfing from wood to wood; and the other, upon the lawns clofe by the keeper's lodge. In the courfing from wood to wood, the way is to throw in fome young hounds into the wood to bring out the deer; and if any deer come out that is not weighty, or a deer or antler which is buck, fore, or forrel, then you are not to flip your grehounds, which are held at the end of the wood, where the keepers, who can guefs very well on thefe occafions, expect that the deer will come out. If a proper deer come out, and it is fufpected that the brace or leafh of grehounds flipped after him will not be able to kill him, it is proper to waylay him with a couple of frefh grehounds.

The courfing upon the lawn is the moft agreeable of all other ways. When the keeper has notice of this, he will lodge a deer for the courfe; and then, by coming under the wind, the grehounds may be brought near enough to be flipped for a fair courfe.

The beft method of courfing the *hare*, is to go out and find a hare fitting; which is eafily done in the fummer, by walking acrofs the lands, either ftubble, fallow, or corn grounds, and cafting the eye up and down: for in fummer they frequent thofe places for fear of the ticks, which are common in the woods at that feafon; and in autumn the rains falling from the trees offend them. The reft of the year there is more trouble required; as the bufhes and thickets muft be beat to roufe them, and oftentimes they will lie fo clofe, that they will not ftir till the pole almoft touches them: the fportfmen are always pleafed with this, as it promifes a good courfe. If a hare lies near any clofe or covert, and with her head that way, it is always to be expected that fhe will take to that immediately on being put up; all the company are therefore to ride up, and put themfelves between her and the covert before fhe is put up, that fhe may take the other way, and run upon open ground. When a hare is put up, it is always proper to give her ground, or *law*, as it is called; that is, to let her run 12 fcore yards or thereabouts, before the grehounds are flipped at her; otherwife fhe is killed too foon, the greater part of the fport is thrown away, and the pleafure of obferving the feveral turnings and windings that the creature will make to get away is all loft. A good fportfman had rather fee a hare fave herfelf after a fair courfe, than fee her mudered by the grehounds as foon as fhe is up.

In courfing the *fox*, no other art is required, than ftanding clofe, and in a clear wind, on the outfide of fome grove where it is expected he will come out; and when he is come out, he muft have head enough allowed him, otherwife he will return back to the covert. The floweft grehound will be able to overtake him, after all the odds of diftance neceffary; and the only danger is the fpoiling the dog by the fox, which too frequently happens. For this reafon, no grehound of any value fhould be run at this courfe; but the ftrong, hard, bitter dogs, that will feize any thing.

The laws of courfing eftablifhed by the duke of Norfolk, and other fportfmen of the kingdom of England, are thefe:

1. He that is chofen fewterer or letter-loofe of the dogs, fhall receive the grehounds matched to run together into his leafh as foon as he comes into the field; he is to march next to the hare-finder, or him who is to ftart the hare, until he come to the form; and no horfeman or footman is to go before or fideways, but all ftraight behind, for the fpace of about 40 yards. 2. A hare ought never to be courfed with more than a brace of grehounds. 3. The hare-finder is to give the hare three fohoes before he puts her up from her form or feat, to the end that the dogs may be prepared and attend her ftarting. 4. If there be not a particular danger of lofing the hare, fhe fhould have about twelve fcore yards law. 5. The dog that gives the firft turn, if after that there be neither cote, flip, nor wrench, wins the wager. 6. A go-by, or bearing the hare, is counted equivalent to two turns. 7. If either dog turns the hare, he that leads to the laft covert wins. 8. If any dog turns the hare, ferves himfelf, and turns her again, it is as much as a cote, and a cote is efteemed as much as two turns. 9. If all the courfe be equal, he that bears the hare fhall win; and if he be not borne, the courfe

fhall

Courſing, Court.

ſhall then be judged *dead*. 10. If a dog take a fall in his courſe, and yet perform his part, he may challenge the advantage of a turn more than he gave. 11. If a dog turn the hare, ſerve himſelf, and give divers cotes, and yet in the end ſhall ſtand ſtill in the field, the other dog, if he turns home to the covert, although he gives no other, ſhall be adjudged to win the wager. 12. If by misfortune a dog be rid over in the courſe, that courſe ſhall be adjudged void, and he that did the miſchief is to make reparation to the owner. 13. If a dog gives the firſt and laſt turn, and there be no other advantage betwixt them, he that gives the odd turn wins. 14. A cote is when a grehound goes endways by the ſide of his fellow, and gives the hare a turn. 15. A cote ſerves for two turns, and two trippings or jerkings for a cote; and if the hare turns not quite about, ſhe only *wrencheth*, in the ſportſman's phraſe. 16. If there be no cotes given by either of the grehounds, but one ſerves the other at turning, then he that gives the moſt turns wins the wager. 17. Sometimes a hare does not turn, but wrenches; for ſhe does not turn, except ſhe turns as it were round. In theſe caſes, two wrenches ſtand for one turn. 18. He that comes in firſt at the death of the hare takes her up, and ſaves her from breaking; he cheriſhes the dogs, and cleanſes their mouths from the wool; he is adjudged to have the hare for his pains. 19. Finally, thoſe who are judges for the leaſh, muſt give their judgment before they depart out of the field, or elſe it is not to ſtand as valid.

COURT, an appendage to a houſe or habitation; conſiſting of a piece of ground incloſed with walls, but open upwards.

COURT is alſo uſed for the palace or place where a king or ſovereign prince reſides.

COURT, in a law ſenſe, is defined to be a place wherein juſtice is judicially adminiſtered. And, as, by our excellent conſtitution, the ſole executive power of the laws is veſted in the perſon of the king, it will follow that all courts of juſtice, which are the medium by which he adminiſters the laws, are derived from the power of the crown. For whether created by act of parliament or letters patent, or ſubſiſting by preſcription (the only methods by which any court of judicature can exiſt), the king's conſent in the two former is expreſsly, and in the latter impliedly, given. In all theſe courts, the king is ſuppoſed in contemplation of law to be always preſent; but as that is in fact impoſſible, he is there repreſented by his judges, whoſe power is only an emanation of the royal prerogative.

Blackſt. Comment.

For the more ſpeedy, univerſal, and impartial adminiſtration of juſtice between ſubject and ſubject, the law hath appointed a prodigious variety of courts, ſome with a more limited, others with a more extenſive juriſdiction; ſome conſtituted to inquire only, others to hear and determine; ſome to determine in the firſt inſtance, others upon appeal and by way of review. See LAW, N° xcviii. xcix. c. cxli. clvi. clvii. clviii. and the reſpective articles in the order of the alphabet. One diſtinction may be here mentioned, that runs throughout them all; viz. that ſome of them are courts *of record*, others *not of record*. A court of record is that where the acts and judicial proceedings are enrolled in parchment for a perpetual memorial and teſtimony: which rolls are called the *records of the court*, and are of ſuch high and ſupereminent authority, that their truth is not to be called in queſtion. For it is a ſettled rule and maxim, that nothing ſhall be averred againſt a record, nor ſhall any plea, or even proof, be admitted to the contrary. And if the exiſtence of a record be denied, it ſhall be tried by nothing but itſelf; that is, upon bare inſpection whether there be any ſuch record or not: elſe there would be no end of diſputes. But if there appears any miſtake of the clerk in making up ſuch record, the court will direct him to amend it. All courts of record are the king's courts in right of his crown and royal dignity, and therefore no other court hath authority to fine or impriſon: ſo that the very erection of a new juriſdiction, with power of fine or impriſonment, makes it inſtantly a court of records. A court not of record is the court of a private man; whom the law will not intruſt with any diſcretionary power over the fortune or liberty of his fellow ſubjects. Such are the courts-baron incident to every manor, and other inferior juriſdictions; where the proceedings are not enrolled or recorded; but as well their exiſtence as the truth of the matters therein contained ſhall, if diſputed, be tried and determined by a jury. Theſe courts can hold no plea of matters cognizable by the common law, unleſs under the value of 40s.; nor of any forcible injury whatſoever, nor having any proceſs to arreſt the perſon of the defendant.

Court.

In every court there muſt be at leaſt three conſtituent parts, the *actor*, *reus*, and *judex*: the *actor*, or plaintiff, who complains of an injury done; the *reus*, or defendant, who is called upon to make ſatisfaction for it; and the *judex*, or judicial power, which is to examine the truth of the fact, to determine the law ariſing upon that fact, and, if any injury appears to have been done, to aſcertain, and by its officers to apply the remedy. It is alſo uſual in the ſuperior courts to have attorneys, and advocates or counſel, as aſſiſtants. See ATTORNEY and COUNSEL.

COURT-Baron, in *Engliſh Law*, a court incident to every manor in the kingdom, to be holden by the ſteward within the ſaid manor. This court-baron is of two natures: the one is a cuſtomary court, appertaining entirely to the copyholders, in which their eſtates are transferred by ſurrender and admittance, and other matters tranſacted relative to their tenures only. The other is a court of common law, and it is the court of the *barons*, by which name the freeholders were ſometimes anciently called: for that it is held before the freeholders who owe ſuit and ſervice to the manor, the ſteward being rather the regiſter than the judge. Theſe courts, though in their nature diſtinct, are equally confounded together. The court we are now conſidering, viz. the freeholder's court, was compoſed of the lord's tenants, who were the *pares* of each other, and were bound by their feodal tenure to aſſiſt their lord in the diſpenſation of domeſtic juſtice. This was formerly held every three weeks; and its moſt important buſineſs is to determine, by writ of right, all controverſies relating to the right of lands within the manor. It may alſo hold plea of any perſonal actions, of debt, treſpaſs on the caſe, or the like, where the debt or damages do not amount to 40s. Which is the ſame ſum, or three marks, that bounded the juriſdiction

risdiction of the ancient Gothic courts in their lowest instance, or *fierding courts*, so called because four were instituted within every superior district or hundred. But the proceedings on a writ of right may be removed into the county-court by a precept from the sheriff called a *tolt, quia tollit atque eximit causam è curia baronum.* And the proceedings in all other actions may be removed into the superior courts by the king's writs of *pone*, or *accedas ad curiam*, according to the nature of the suit. After judgment given, a writ also of *false judgment* lies to the courts at Westminster to rehear and review the cause, and not a writ of *error;* for this is not a court of record; and therefore, in some of these writs of removal, the first direction given is to cause the plaint to be recorded, *recordari facias loquelam.*

COURT Martial, a court appointed for the punishing offences in officers, soldiers, and sailors, the powers of which are regulated by the mutiny-bill.

For other courts, see ADMIRALTY, ARCHES, BENCH, CHANCERY, CHIVALRY. *COMMON-Pleas*, COUNTY, DUCHY, ECCLESIASTICAL, FACULTY, FOREST, HUSTINGS, LEET, LEGATE, MAYOR, PIEPOUDRE, PREROGATIVE, REQUESTS, STANNARY, *STAR-Chamber*, UNIVERSITY, &c.

COURTESY, or CURTESY, *of England;* a certain tenure whereby a man marrying an heiress seized of lands of fee-simple, or fee-tail general, or seized as heir of the tail special, and getteth a child by her that cometh alive into the world, though both it and his wife die forthwith; yet, if she were in possession, he shall keep the land during his life, and is called *tenant per legem Angliæ*, "or tenant by the courtesy of England;" because this privilege is not allowed in any country except Scotland, where it is called *curialitas Scotiæ.*

COURTESAN, a woman who prostitutes herself for hire, especially to people of superior rank. Laïs the famous Theban courtesan, stands on record for requiring no less than 10,000 crowns for a single night. Of all places in the world, Venice is that where courtesans abound the most. It is now 300 years since the senate, which had expelled them, was obliged to recal them; in order to provide for the security of women of honour, and to keep the nobles employed, lest they should turn their heads to make innovations in the state.

COURTRAY, a town of the Austrian Netherlands, situated on the river Lys, about 23 miles south-west of Ghent, and 14 east of Ypres. E. Long. 3. 10. N. Lat. 50. 48.

COUSIN, a term of relation between the children of brothers and sisters, who in the first generation are called *cousins-german*, in the second generation, *second cousins*, &c. If sprung from the relations of the father's side, they are denominated *paternal* cousins; if on the mother's, *maternal.*

The word is ordinarily derived from *consanguineus;* though Menage brings it from *congenius*, or *congeneus*, q. d. *ex eodem genere.*

In the primitive times, it was allowed cousins-german to marry, to prevent their making alliances in heathen families: but Theodosius the Great prohibited it under pain of death; on pretence that they were, in some sort, brothers and sisters with regard to each other.

COUSIN, *John*, a celebrated French painter, who excelled in painting on glass. His picture of the Last Judgment, in the vestry of the Minims of the Wood of Vincennes, is much admired. He was also a good sculptor. He wrote several works on geometry and perspective; and died after the year 1689.

COUSU, in *Heraldry*, signifies a piece of another colour or metal placed in the ordinary, as if it were sewed on, as the word imports. This is generally of colour upon colour, or metal upon metal, contrary to the general rule of heraldry.

COUTANCES, a port town of Normandy, and capital of Coutantin, in W. Long. 1. 32. N. Lat. 49. 10. This town, anciently called *Constantia* or *Cosedia*, is pleasantly situated among meadows and rivulets about five miles distant from the sea. By the remains of a Roman aqueduct, and other ancient ruins, it appears to be a place of great antiquity. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Rome; and has a magnificent cathedral, esteemed one of the finest pieces of Gothic architecture in Europe. The trade of this town is very inconsiderable, and the fortifications are quite demolished. They have several religious houses, and two parochial churches.

COUTHUTLAUGH, from the Saxon *couth*, "knowing," and *utlaugh*, "outlaw;" he that wittingly receives a man outlawed, and cherishes or conceals him: for which offence he was in ancient times subject to the same punishment with the outlaw himself.

COVERT, in *Heraldry*, denotes something like a piece of hanging, or a pavilion falling over the top of a chief or other ordinary, so as not to hide, but only to be a covering to it.

COW. See BOS, MAMMALIA *Index.*

COW-Burner. See BUPRESTIS, ENTOMOLOGY *Index.*

Sea-COW. See TRICHECUS, MAMMALIA *Index.*

COW-Itch, or *Couhage.* See COUHAGE and DOLICHOS, BOTANY *Index.*

COW's-Lip. See PRIMULA, BOTANY *Index.*

COWARD, in *Heraldry*, a term given to a lion borne in an escutcheon, with his tail doubled, or turned in between his legs.

COWEL, DR JOHN, a learned and eminent civilian, born about the year 1554. In 1607 he compiled a Law Dictionary, which gave great offence to Sir Edward Coke and the common lawyers: so that they first accused him to James I. as asserting that the king's prerogative was in some cases limited; and when they failed in that attempt, they complained of him to the house of commons, as a betrayer of the rights of the people, by asserting that the king was not bound by the laws; for which he was committed to custody, and his book publicly burnt. He also published *Institutiones Juris Anglicani*, in the manner of Justinian's Institutes; and died in the operation for the stone, in 1611.

COWES, a town and harbour on the north-east coast of the isle of Wight in Hampshire. It has no market, but is the best place for trade in the whole island; but as it lies low, the air is accounted unhealthy.

Cowes || Cowley.

It is eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Portſmouth. W. Long. 1. 25. N. Lat. 50. 45.

COWL, or COUL, a ſort of monkiſh habit worn by the Bernardines and Benedictines. The word is formed from *cucullus*, by confounding the two firſt ſyllables into one, as being the ſame twice repeated. There are two kinds of cowls: the one white, very large, worn in ceremony, and when they aſſiſt at the office; the other black, worn on ordinary occaſions, in the ſtreets, &c.

F. Mabillon maintains the coul to be the ſame thing in its origin with the ſcapular. The author of the apology of the emperor Henry IV. diſtinguiſhes two forms of couls; the one is a gown reaching to the feet, having ſleeves, and a capuchin, uſed in ceremonies; the other a kind of hood to work in, called alſo a *ſcapular*, becauſe it only covers the head and ſhoulders.

COWLEY, ABRAHAM, an eminent poet, was born at London in 1618. His father, who was a grocer, dying before he was born, his mother procured him to be admitted a king's ſcholar at Weſtminſter. His firſt inclination to poetry aroſe on his lighting on Spenſer's Fairy Queen, when he was but juſt able to read; and this inclination ſo far improved on him, that at 13 he began to write ſeveral poems; a collection of which was publiſhed in 1613, when he was but 15. He has been repreſented as poſſeſſed of ſo bad a memory that his teachers could never bring him to retain the ordinary rules of grammar. But the fact was, as Dr Johnſon notices, not that he could not learn or retain the rules; but that being able to perform his exerciſes without them, he ſpared himſelf the trouble. In 1636 he was elected a ſcholar of Trinity college, Cambridge, and removed to that univerſity. Here he went through all his exerciſes with a remarkable degree of reputation; and at the ſame time muſt have purſued his poetical turn with great eagerneſs, as it appears that the greateſt part of his poems were written before he left that univerſity. He had taken his degree of maſter of arts before 1643, when, in conſequence of the turbulence of the times, he, among others, was ejected from the college; whereupon, retiring to Oxford, he entered himſelf of St John's College; and that very year, under the denomination of a *ſcholar of Oxford*, publiſhed a ſatire called the Puritan and the Papiſt. It is apparent, however, that he did not remain very long at Oxford; for his zeal to the royal cauſe engaging him in the ſervice of the king, who was very ſenſible of his abilities, and by whom he was frequently employed, he attended his majeſty in many of his journeys and expeditions, and gained not only that prince's eſteem, but that of many other great perſonages, and in particular of Lord Falkland, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

During the heat of the civil war, he was ſettled in the earl of St Alban's family; and when the queen-mother was obliged to retire into France, he accompanied her thither, laboured ſtrenuouſly in the affairs of the royal family, undertook ſeveral very dangerous journeys on their account, and was the principal inſtrument in maintaining an epiſtolary correſpondence between the king and queen, whoſe letters he ciphered and deciphered with his own hand. His poems, entitled The Miſtreſs, were publiſhed at London in 1647; and his comedy called The Guardian, afterwards altered and publiſhed under the title of Cutter of Coleman-ſtreet, in 1650. In 1656 it was thought proper by thoſe on whom Mr Cowley depended that he ſhould come over into England, and, under pretence of privacy and retirement, ſhould give notice of the poſture of affairs in this nation. Upon his return he publiſhed a new edition of all his poems, conſiſting of four parts; viz. I. Miſcellanies. II. The Miſtreſs, or Several copies of Love-verſes. III. Pindaric Odes, written in imitation of the ſtyle and manner of Pindar. IV. Davideis, a ſacred poem of the troubles of David, in four books.

Soon after his arrival, however, he was ſeized, in the ſearch after another gentleman of conſiderable note, in the king's party; but although it was through miſtake that he was taken, yet when the republicans found all their attempts of every kind to bring him over to their party proved ineffectual, he was committed to a ſevere confinement, and it was even with conſiderable difficulty that he obtained his liberty; when, venturing back to France, he remained there, in his former ſituation, till near the time of the king's return. During his ſtay in England he wrote his Two Books of Plants, publiſhed firſt in 1662; to which he afterwards added four books more; and all ſix, together with his other Latin poems, were printed at London in 1678. It appears by Mr Wood's *Faſti Oxonienſes*, that our poet was created doctor of phyſic at Oxford, December 2. 1657.

Soon after the Reſtoration he became poſſeſſed of a very competent eſtate, through the favour of his principal friends the duke of Buckingham and the earl of St Alban's; and being now upwards of 40 years of age, he took up a reſolution to paſs the remainder of a life which had been a ſcene of tempeſt and tumult, in that ſituation which had ever been the object of his wiſhes, a ſtudious retirement. His eagerneſs to get out of the buſtle of a court and city made him leſs careful than he might have been in the choice of a heathful habitation in the country; by which means he found his ſolitude from the very beginning ſuit leſs with the conſtitution of his body than with his mind. His firſt rural reſidence was at Barn Elms, a place which, lying low, and being near a large river, was ſubject to a variety of breezes from land and water, and liable in the winter-time to great inconvenience from the dampneſs of the ſoil. The conſequence of this Mr Cowley too ſoon experienced, by being ſeized with a dangerous and lingering fever. On his recovery from this he removed to Chertſey, a ſituation not much more healthy, where he had not been long before he was ſeized with another conſuming diſeaſe. Having languiſhed under this for ſome months, he at length got the better of it, and ſeemed pretty well recovered from the bad ſymptoms, when one day in the heat of ſummer 1667, ſtaying too long in the fields to give ſome directions to his labourers, he caught a moſt violent cold, which was attended with a defluxion and ſtoppage in his breaſt; and for want of timely care, by treating it as a common cold, and refuſing advice till it was paſt remedy, he departed this life on the 28th of July in that year, being the 49th of his age; and on the 3d of Auguſt following, he

was

Cowley. was interred in Weſtminſter-abbey, near the aſhes of Chaucer, and his beloved Spenſer. He was a man of a very amiable character, as well as an admirable genius. King Charles II. on the news of his death, declared "that Mr Cowley had not left a better man behind him in England." A monument was erected to his memory by George Villiers duke of Buckingham in 1675.

Beſides the works already mentioned, Mr Cowley wrote, among other things, A Propoſition for the Advancement of Experimental Philoſophy; A Diſcourſe by way of Viſion concerning the Government of Oliver Cromwell; and Several Diſcourſes by way of Eſſays in Proſe and Verſe. Mr Cowley had deſigned alſo a Diſcourſe concerning Style, and a Review of the Principles of the Primitive Chriſtian Church, but was prevented by death. A ſpurious piece, entitled The Iron Age, was publiſhed under Mr Cowley's name during his abſence; and, in Mr Dryden's Miſcellany Poems, we find A Poem on the Civil War, ſaid to be written by our author, but not extant in any edition of his works. An edition of his works was publiſhed by Dr Spratt, afterwards biſhop of Rocheſter, who alſo prefixed to it an account of the author's life. The reverend editor mentions, as very excellent of their kind, Mr Cowley's letters to his Friends; none of which, however, were publiſhed.

The moral character of Mr Cowley appears, from every account of it, to have been very excellent; "He is repreſented by Dr Spratt (ſays Dr Johnſon), as the moſt amiable of mankind; and this poſthumous praiſe may be ſafely credited, as it has never been contradicted by envy or by faction."

As a poet, his merits have been variouſly eſtimated. Lord Clarendon has ſaid he made a flight above all men; Addiſon, in his account of the Engliſh poets, that he improved upon the Theban bard; the duke of Buckingham upon his tomb-ſtone, that he was the Engliſh Pindar, the Horace, the Virgil, the delight, the glory of his time. And with reſpect to the harſhneſs of his numbers, the eloquent Spratt tells us, that if his verſes in ſome places ſeem not as ſoft and flowing as one would have them, it was his choice and not his fault.

"Such (ſays Mr Knox) is the applauſe laviſhed on a writer who is now ſeldom read. That he could ever be eſteemed as a Pindaric poet, is a curious literary phenomenon. He totally miſtook his own genius when he thought of imitating Pindar. He totally miſtook the genius of Pindar, when he thought his own incoherent ſentiments and numbers bore the leaſt reſemblance to the wild yet regular ſublimity of the Theban. He neglected even thoſe forms, the ſtrophe, antiſtrophe, and epode, which even imitative dulneſs can copy. Sublime imagery, vehement pathos, poetic fire, which conſtitute the eſſence of the Pindaric ode, are incompatible with witty conceits, accurate antitheſes and vulgar expreſſion. All theſe imply the coolneſs of deliberate compoſition, or the meanneſs of a little mind; both of them moſt repugnant to the truly Pindaric ode, in which all is rapturous and noble. Wit of any kind would be improperly diſplayed in ſuch compoſition: but to increaſe the abſurdity, the wit of Cowley is often falſe. That he had a taſte for Latin poetry, and wrote in it with elegance, the well known epitaph on himſelf, upon his retirement, and an admirable imitation of Horace, are full proofs. But ſurely his rhetorical biographer makes uſe of the figure hyperbole, when he affirms that Cowley has excelled the Romans themſelves. He was inferior to many a writer of leſs name in the *Muſæ Anglicanæ*. But ſtill he had great merit; and I muſt confeſs I have read his Latin verſes with more pleaſure than any of his Engliſh can afford." *Eſſays*, vol. ii. p. 363—365.

To Cowley's compoſitions in proſe Mr Knox has paid a very honourable teſtimony. He ſays, that in this department he is an elegant, a pleaſing, a judicious writer; and that it is much to be lamented that he did not devote a greater part of his time to a kind of writing which appeared natural to him, and in which he excelled.

Dr Joſeph Warton obſerves, that it is no caricature of Cowley to repreſent him as being poſſeſſed of a ſtrained affectation of ſtriving to be witty upon all occaſions. "It is painful (adds this excellent critic), to cenſure a writer of ſo amiable a mind, ſuch integrity of manners, and ſuch ſweetneſs of temper. His fancy was brilliant, ſtrong, and ſprightly; but his taſte falſe and unclaſſical, even though he had much learning."

Dr Beattie has characteriſed Cowley in the following terms. "I know not whether any nation ever produced a more ſingular genius than Cowley. He abounds in tender thoughts, beautiful lines, and emphatical expreſſions. His wit is inexhauſtible, and his learning extenſive; but his taſte is generally barbarous, and ſeems to have been formed upon ſuch models as Donne, Martial, and the worſt parts of Ovid: nor is it poſſible to read his longer poems with pleaſure, while we retain any reliſh for the ſimplicity of ancient compoſition. If this author's ideas had been fewer, his conceits would have been leſs frequent; ſo that in one reſpect learning may be ſaid to have hurt his genius. Yet it does not appear that Greek and Latin did him any harm; for his imitations of Anacreon are almoſt the only parts of him that are now remembered or read. His Davideis, and his tranſlations of Pindar, are deſtitute of harmony, ſimplicity, and every other claſſical grace."

But the works of this celebrated poet have been nowhere ſo amply criticiſed as in his Life by Dr Johnſon. After a particular examination of the different pieces, the Doctor, in taking a general review of Cowley's poetry, obſerves, that "he wrote with abundant fertility, but negligent or unſkilful ſelection; with much thought, but with little imagery; that he is never pathetic, and rarely ſublime, but always either ingenious or learned, either acute or profound." Of his proſe he ſpeaks with great approbation. "No author (ſays he) ever kept his verſe and his proſe at a greater diſtance from each other. His thoughts are natural, and his ſtyle has a ſmooth and placid equality, which has never yet obtained its due commendation. Nothing is far ſought or hard laboured; but all is eaſy without feebleneſs, and familiar without groſſneſs." Upon the whole, he concludes as follows: "It may be affirmed, without any encomiaſtic fervour, that he brought to his poetic labours a mind replete with learning, and that his paſſages are embelliſhed with all the ornaments which books could ſup-

ply;

ply; that he was the first who imparted to English numbers the enthusiasm of the greater ode and the gaiety of the less; and he was qualified for sprightly sallies and for lofty flights; that he was among those who freed translation from servility, and, instead of following his author at a distance, walked by his side; and that though he had left versification yet improveable, he left likewise from time to time such specimens of excellence as enabled succeeding poets to improve it."

So many of Cowley's productions being now esteemed scarcely worthy of a perusal, while others of them are distinguished by their beauty, Dr Hurd (the present bishop of Worcester), thought proper to make a selection of them, which he published in 1772, under the title of Select Works of Mr Abraham Cowley, in two volumes; with a preface and notes by the Editor.

COWPER, William, a distinguished modern poet, was born at Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire, in the year 1732. His father, who was rector of the parish, was nephew to Lord Chancellor Cowper. Mr Cowper was educated at Westminster school; and in that celebrated seminary he acquired his classical knowledge. But it would appear from his poem, entitled "*Tirocinium*," that the impressions which he then received were not favourable to this system of education, and gave him a permanent dislike to public schools. Through family interest, the honourable and lucrative place of clerk to the house of lords had been provided for him; he was therefore entered at the Temple for the study of the law, in order to qualify him for it. In this situation his manners were amiable and decent; and though it is probable that he did not refuse to indulge in those pleasures which are usual among young men similarly situated, yet there seems no reason to suppose that he had any peculiar causes for self-accusation. His natural disposition was timid and diffident; his spirits were constitutionally weak, even to the borders of absolute unfitness for worldly concerns; so that when the time came for assuming that post to which he had been destined, he shrunk with such terror from the idea of making his appearance before the most august assembly in the nation, that, after a violent struggle with himself, he actually resigned the employment, and with it all his prospects in life. It appears to have been under the agitation of mind which this circumstance occasioned, and which threw him into a serious illness, that he was led to a deep consideration of his state in a religious view; and from the system he had adopted, this course of reflection excited in him the most alarming and distressful apprehensions. In vain did his theological friends set before him those encouraging views which the theory of Christian justification is calculated to present, and which to many is the source of a confidence perhaps as excessive as their former fears; the natural disposition of his mind fitted it to receive all the horrors, without the consolations of his faith. We are told, that "the terror of eternal judgment overpowered and wholly disordered his faculties; and he remained seven months in a continual expectation of being instantly plunged into final misery." In this shocking condition he became the subject of medical care, and he was placed in the receptacle for lunatics kept by Dr Cotton at St Alban's, an amiable and worthy physician, and the author of some well-known poems. At length he recovered a degree of serenity; but his mind had acquired that indelible tinge of melancholy by which it was ever after characterised, and which rendered his whole life little more than a succession of intervals of comfort between long paroxysms of settled despondency. It is unnecessary to follow him through all his scenes of retirement. Part of his time was spent at the house of his relation, Earl Cowper, at Cole-green; and part at Huntingdon, with his intimate friend the reverend Mr Unwin. After the death of the latter, he removed with his widow to Olney in Buckinghamshire, which was thenceforth the principal place of his residence. The affectionate intimacy he enjoyed with this lady is strongly expressed in the following lines, which have probably been understood by most readers as expressive of a conjugal union:

—Witness, dear companion of my walks,
Whose arm this twentieth winter I perceive
Fast lock'd in mine, with pleasure such as love
Confirm'd by long experience of thy worth
And well tried virtues could alone inspire—
Witness a joy that thou has doubled long.

Task, Book I.

At Olney he contracted a close friendship with the reverend Mr Newton, then minister there, and since rector of St Mary Woolnoth, London, whose religious opinions were in unison with his own. When Mr Newton published his volume of Hymns, called "The Olney's Collection," it was enriched with some compositions from the pen of Cowper, distinguished by the letter C. They bear internal evidence of a cultivated understanding, and an original genius. His time was now wholly dedicated to that literary leisure, in which the mind, left to its own operations, follows up that line of pursuit which is the most congenial to its taste, and the most adapted to its powers. In his garden, in his library, and in his daily walks, he seems to have disciplined his muse to the picturesque and vivid habits of description, which will always distinguish Cowper among our national poets. No writer, with the exception of Thomson, seems to have studied nature with more diligence, and to have copied her with more fidelity. An advantage which he has gained over other men, by his disdaining to study her "through the spectacles of books," as Dryden calls it; and by his pursuing her through her haunts, and watching her in all her attitudes, with the eye of a philosopher as well as of a poet. As Mr Cowper had no relish for public concerns, it was not singular that he should have neglected the study of the law, on which he had entered. That knowledge of active life, which is so requisite for the legal profession, would hardly be acquired on the banks of the Ouse, and in silent contemplations on the beauties of nature. In this retreat, he exchanged for the society and converse of the muses, the ambition and tumult of a forensic occupation; dedicating his mind to the cultivation of poetry, and storing it with those images which he derived from the inexhaustible treasury of a rich and varied scenery, in a most beautiful and romantic country. The first volume of his poems, which was published by Mr Newton in 1787, consists of

Cowper.

of various pieces, on various ſubjects. It ſeems, that he had been aſſiduous in cultivating a turn for grave and argumentative verſification, on moral and ethical topics. Of this kind is The Table Talk, and ſeveral other pieces in the collection. He who objects to theſe poems as containing too great a neglect of harmony in the arrangement of his words, and uſe of expreſſions too proſaic, will condemn him on principles of criticiſm which are by no means juſt, if the object and ſtyle of the ſubject be conſidered. Horace apologized for the ſtyle of his own ſatires, which are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, only ethical and moral diſcourſes, by obſerving, that thoſe topics required the *pedeſtrian* and familiar diction, and a form of expreſſion not carried to the heights of poetry. But if the reader will forego the delight of ſmooth verſification, and recollect that poetry does not altogether conſiſt in even and poliſhed metre, he will remark, in theſe productions, no ordinary depth of thinking and of judgment, upon the moſt important objects of human intercourſe; and he will be occaſionally ſtruck with lines, not unworthy of Dryden for their ſtrength and dignity. His lighter poems are well known. Of theſe, the verſes ſuppoſed to be written by Alex. Selkirk, on the iſland of Juan Fernandez, are in the moſt popular eſtimation. There is great originality in the following ſtanza.

> I am out of humanity's reach;
> I muſt finiſh my journey alone;
> Never hear the ſweet muſic of ſpeech;
> I ſtart at the ſound of my own."

It would be abſurd to give one general character of the pieces that were publiſhed in this volume: yet, this is true concerning Mr Cowper's productions; that in all the varieties of his ſtyle, there may ſtill be diſcerned the likeneſs and impreſſion of the ſame mind; the ſame unaffected modeſty, which always rejects unſeaſonable ambitions and ornaments of language; the ſame eaſy vigour; the ſame ſerene and cheerful hope, derived from a ſteady and unſhaken faith in the dogmas of Chriſtianity. Mr Cowper, perhaps, does not derive praiſe from the choice and elegance of his words; but he has the higher praiſe of having choſen them without affectation. He appears to have uſed them as he found them; neither introducing faſtidious refinements nor adhering to obſolete barbariſms. He underſtood the whole ſcience of numbers, and he has practiſed their different kinds with conſiderable happineſs; and, if his verſes do not flow ſo ſoftly as the delicacy of a modern ear requires, that roughneſs, which is objected to his poetry, is his choice, not his defect. But this ſort of critics, who admire only what is exquiſitely poliſhed, like Cuyp's pictures, theſe lovers of "gentleneſs without ſinews," ought to take into their eſtimate, that vaſt effuſion of thought which is ſo abundantly poured over the writings of Cowper, without which human diſcourſe is only an idle combination of ſounds and ſyllables. The favourable reception which this volume experienced, produced another of ſuperior merit. His principal performance was undoubtedly "The Taſk," a poem. The occaſion that gave birth to it was trivial. A lady had requeſted him to write a piece in blank verſe, and gave him for its ſubject a thing next to her, viz. *the ſofa*. This he expanded into one of the fineſt moral poems our language has produced. It is written in blank verſe as deſired; and though in that reſpect it reſembles Milton's, it is nevertheleſs original and highly characteriſtic. It is not too ſtately for familiar deſcription, or too depreſſed for ſublime and elevated imagery. If it has any fault, it is that of being too much laden with idiomatic expreſſion; a fault which the author, in the rapidity with which his ideas and his utterance ſeem to have flowed, very naturally incurred. In this poem, his fancy ran with the moſt excurſive freedom. The poet enlarges upon his topics, and confirms his argument by every variety of illuſtration. He never however dwells upon them too long, and leaves off in ſuch a manner, that it ſeems it was in his power to have ſaid more. The arguments of the poem are various. The works of nature, the aſſociations with which they exhibit themſelves, the deſigns of Providence, and the paſſions of men. Of one advantage, the writer has amply availed himſelf. The work not being rigidly confined to any preciſe ſubject, he has indulged himſelf in all the laxity and freedom of a miſcellaneous poem. Yet he has ſtill adhered ſo faithfully to the general laws of congruity, that whether he inſpires the ſofter affections into his reader, or delights him with keen and playful raillery, or diſcourſes on the ordinary manners of human nature, or holds up the bright pictures of religious conſolation to his mind, he adopts, at pleaſure, a diction juſt and appropriate, equal in elevation to the ſacred effuſions of pious rapture, and ſufficiently eaſy and familiar for deſcriptions of domeſtic life; ſkilful alike in ſoaring without effort, and deſcending without meanneſs. He who deſires to put into the hands of youth a poem, which not deſtitute of poetic embelliſhment, is free from all matter of a licentious tendency, will find in the Taſk a book adapted to his purpoſe. It would be abſurd and extravagant auſterity to condemn thoſe poetical productions in which love conſtitutes the leading feature. That paſſion has in every age been the concernment of life, the theme of the poet, the plot of the ſtage. Yet there is a kind of amorous ſenſibility, bordering on morbid enthuſiaſm, which the youthful mind too often imbibes from the glowing ſentiments of the poets. Their genius deſcribes, in the moſt ſplendid colours, the operations of a paſſion which requires rebuke rather than incentive, and lends to the moſt grovelling ſenſuality the enchantments of a rich and creative imagination. But in the Taſk of Cowper, there is no licentiouſneſs of deſcription. All is grave, majeſtic, and moral. A vein of ſober thinking pervades every page, and, in finiſhed poetry, deſcribes the inſufficiency and vanity of human purſuits. Not that he is always ſevere. He frequently enlivens the mind of his reader by ſportive deſcriptions, and by repreſenting in elevated meaſures, ludicrous objects and circumſtances, a ſpecies of the mock heroic, ſo admired in Phillip's *Splendid Shilling*. The hiſtorical account he has given of chairs, in the firſt book of the Taſk, is a ſtriking ſpecimen of his powers of verſification, and of his talent for humour in this latter ſtyle. The attention is however the moſt detained by thoſe paſſages, in which the charms of rural life, and the endearments of domeſtic retirement, are deſcribed. The Taſk abounds with incidents, introduced as epiſodes, and interpoſing an agreeable relief to the grave and ſerious part of the poetry. His

Dr Spratt's Life of Cowley.

Crazy

Crazy Kate is a description of the calamity of a disordered reason, admirably exact and affecting.

"She begs an idle pin of all she meets."

What poet would have introduced so minute a circumstance into his representation! and yet that minuteness constitutes its happy effect.

Of his talent for painting there cannot be a better specimen than his sketch of the melancholy man, probably sketched from what too faithful remembrance suggested of himself:

Look where he comes—In this embower'd alcove
Stand close concealed, and see a statue move;
Lips busy, and eyes fixt, foot falling slow,
Arms hanging idly down, hands clasp'd below,
Interpret to the marking eye, distress,
Such as its symptoms only can express.
That tongue is silent now;—that silent tongue
Could argue once, could jest or join the song,
Could give advice, could censure or commend,
Or charm the sorrows of a drooping friend.
Renounc'd alike its office and its sport,
Its brisker and its graver strains fall short;
Both fall beneath a fever's secret sway,
And like a summer brook are past away.

Retirement.

His John Gilpin is universally known, and may be considered as a sportive piece of humour, which would have done credit to many writers, but can hardly be said to have added to Mr Cowper's reputation. His next work was a translation of the Iliad and Odyssey into Miltonic blank verse. It is an unjust piece of criticism to compare the version of Mr Pope to that of Mr Cowper. The merits of each are distinct and appropriate. Mr Pope has exhibited Homer as he would have sung had he been born in England. Mr Cowper has endeavoured to pourtray him as he wrote in Greece, adhering frequently to the peculiarities of his original's idiom, and desiring to preserve his strength and energy, together with his harmony and smoothness. Mr Cowper died of a severe and lingering illness, at East Dereham, in Norfolk, April 25. 1800.

COX, RICHARD, a learned prelate, and principal pillar of the Reformation, was born at Whaddon in Buckinghamshire, of low parentage, in the year 1499. From Eton school he obtained a scholarship in King's college in Cambridge, of which he became a fellow in 1519: he was thence invited to Oxford by Cardinal Wolsey, and was there made one of the junior canons of Cardinal college. In 1525 he was incorporated bachelor; and the following year took the degree of master of arts in the same university. In this situation he became remarkable for his learning and poetical abilities; but his attachment to the opinions of Luther rendered him hateful to his superiors, who stripped him of his preferment, and threw him into prison on a suspicion of heresy. Being, however, soon released, he was chosen master of Eton school, which flourished remarkably under his care. In 1537 he commenced doctor of divinity at Cambridge; in 1540 was made archdeacon of Ely; and the following year prebendary of that cathedral, on its being new founded by King Henry VIII. In 1546 he was made dean of Christ-church, Oxford. By the recommendation of Archbishop Cranmer and Bishop Goodrich, to the latter of whom he had been chaplain, he not only obtained the above preferments, but was chosen preceptor to Prince Edward, on whose accession to the throne he became a favourite at court, was sworn of the privy council, and made king's almoner. In 1547 he was elected chancellor of Oxford; in 1548 canon of Windsor; and the next year dean of Westminster. About this time he was appointed one of the commissioners to visit the university of Oxford; in which office his zeal for reformation was so excessive, that he destroyed a number of curious and valuable books, for no better reason than because they were written by Roman Catholics. On the accession of Queen Mary he was stripped of all his preferments and committed to the Marshalsea. He was, however, soon released, and immediately left the kingdom. Having resided some time at Strasburg with his intimate friend Peter Martyr, on the death of Queen Mary he returned to England, and, with other divines, was appointed to revise the liturgy. He often preached before the queen; and in 1559 was preferred to the see of Ely, which he continued to enjoy upwards of 21 years. He was, however, no favourite with the queen; the reason assigned for which was, his zealous opposition to her retaining the crucifix and wax-candles on the altar of the royal chapel; also his strenuous defence of the marriage of the clergy, which her majesty always disapproved. He died on the 22d of July 1581, aged 81. He was a man of considerable learning, a zealous and rigid bulwark of the church of England, and an implacable enemy both to Papists and Puritans. In a letter to Archbishop Parker, he advises him to proceed vigorously in reclaiming or *punishing* the Puritans, and not to be discouraged at the frown of the court-favourites who protected them; assuring him that he might expect the blessing of God on his *pious* labours to free the church from their dangerous attempts, and to establish uniformity. This zealous reformer we find had not totally lost sight of the Popish text, *compel them to come in;* but a stronger proof of his implacability and self-importance appears in his letter to the lord treasurer Burleigh, in which he warmly expostulates with the council for interposing in behalf of the Puritans, or meddling in affairs of the church, admonishing them to keep their own sphere. Such language from a bishop would make a modern privy council stare. His works are, 1. Two Latin Orations on the Dispute between Dr Tresham and Peter Martyr, Lond. 1549, 4to. 2. Liturgy of the Church of England; in compiling, and afterwards correcting which, he was principally concerned. 3. The Lord's Prayer in verse, commonly printed at the end of David's Psalms by Sternhold and Hopkins. 4. Translation of the four Gospels, the Acts of the Apostles, and the Epistle to the Romans, in the new translation of the Bible in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. 5. Resolutions of some Questions concerning the Sacrament in the Collection of Records at the end of Burnet's History of the Reformation. 6. Several Letters to the Queen and others published in Strype's Annals of the Reformation. He is also said to have been concerned in the declaration concerning the divine institution of bishops, and to have assisted Lyle in his Grammar.

COXWOLD, a town in the north riding of Yorkshire,

Coxwold || Crab.

ſhire, 14 miles north of York. W. Long. 1. 10. N. Lat. 54. 16.

COYPEL, Anthony, an excellent French painter, born at Paris in 1661. Noyel Coypel, his father, being choſen by M. Colbert to be director of the academy at Rome, he took his ſon with him into Italy, where Anthony Coypel formed himſelf on the works of the greateſt maſters, and on his return to France was made firſt painter to the duke of Orleans. That prince employed him in painting the grand gallery of the royal palace, and allowed him a penſion. In 1714, he was director of the Academy of Painting and Sculpture. In 1715, he was made the firſt painter to the French king, and was ennobled on account of his merit. He died in 1722. M. Coypel, his ſon, alſo excelled in the ſame art.

COZENING; tricking, or defrauding.—In law, it denotes an offence where any thing is done deceitfully, whether belonging to contracts or not, which cannot be properly termed by any ſpecial name.

COZUMEL, an iſland near the weſtern coaſt of Jucatan, where Cortez landed and refreſhed his troops before entering upon the conqueſt of Mexico. W. Long. 89. 0. and N. Lat. 13. 0.

CRAB. See Cancer, Entomology *Index*.

Crab's Claws, in the *Materia Medica*, are the tips of the claws of the common crab broken off at the verge of the black part, ſo much of the extremity of the claws only being allowed to be uſed in medicine as is tinged with this colour. The blackneſs, however, is only ſuperficial; they are of a grayiſh white within, and when levigated furniſh a white powder.

Crab's claws are of the number of the alkaline abſorbents; but they are ſuperior to the generality of them, in ſome degree, as they are found on a chemical analyſis to contain a volatile urinous ſalt.

Crab's Eyes, in *Pharmacy*, are a ſtrong concretion in the head of the cray-fiſh. They are rounded on one ſide, and depreſſed and ſinuated on the other, conſiderably heavy, moderately hard, and without ſmell. We have them from Holland, Muſcovy, Poland, Denmark, Sweden, and many other places. What are uſually met with in the ſhops are prepared by art.

Crab's eyes are much uſed both in the ſhop medicines and extemporaneous preſcription, being accounted abſorbent.

Crab-Lice, a troubleſome kind of vermine, which ſtick ſo faſt with their claws to the ſkin as to render it difficult to diſlodge them. They are called *plactulæ*, *morpiones*, *petolæ*, and *peſſolatæ*: they uſually infeſt the arm-pits and *pudenda*. Cleanlineſs is the beſt preventive. But theſe vermine may be eaſily removed with the application of a little mercurial ointment.

Crab, a ſort of wooden pillar, whoſe lower end, being let down through a ſhip's deck, reſts upon a ſocket like the capſtern; and having in its upper end three or four holes, at different heights, through the middle of it, one above another, into which long bars are thruſt, whoſe length is nearly equal to the breadth of the neck. It is employed to wind in the cable, or to purchaſe any other weighty body which requires a great mechanical power. This differs from a capſtern, as not being furniſhed with a *drum-head*, and by having the bars to go entirely through it, reaching from one ſide of the deck to the other; whereas thoſe of the capſtern, which are ſuperior in number, reach only about eight inches or a foot into the drum-head, according to its ſize. See Capstern.

Crab || Crackow.

Crab-Yaws, a name in Jamaica for a kind of ulcer on the ſoles of the feet, with hard callous lips, ſo hard that it is difficult to cut them. The *ungt. cærul. fort.* is their cure.

CRACATOA, the moſt ſoutherly of a cluſter of iſlands lying in the entrance of the ſtraits of Sunda in the Eaſt Indies. Its whole circumference does not exceed nine miles; and off its north-eaſtern extremity is a ſmall iſland forming a road, in which Captain Cook anchored when viſiting this iſland on his laſt voyage. On the ſouthern part of the ſmall iſland is a reef of rocks, within which is a tolerable ſhelter againſt all northerly winds, there being 27 fathoms water in the mid channel, and 18 near the reef. Between the two iſlands there is a narrow paſſage for boats. The ſhore that conſtitutes the weſt ſide of the road runs in a north-weſterly direction, having a bank of coral running into the ſea for a little way, ſo that it is difficult for boats to land except at the time of high water; but the anchoring ground is very good and free from rocks. In the inland parts the ground is elevated, riſing on all ſides gradually from the ſea, and is entirely covered with wood, excepting a few ſpots which are cleared by the inhabitants for ſowing rice. The climate is reckoned very healthy in compariſon with the neighbouring countries, but it is very thinly inhabited. There are abundance of turtle on the coral reefs; but other refreſhments are ſcarce, and ſold at an extravagant price. Water is not plentiful: Captain Cook was obliged to ſupply himſelf from a ſmall ſpring oppoſite to the ſouthern extremity of the ſmall iſland above mentioned. To the ſouthward is a hot ſpring, whoſe waters are uſed as a bath by the inhabitants. The road where the Reſolution anchored lies in S. Lat. 8. 6.; and by obſervation, in 105. 36. E. Long. by the time-keeper in 104. 48. The variation of the compaſs one degree W. On the full and change days it is high water at ſeven o'clock in the morning, and the tide riſes three feet four inches perpendicular.

CRACKOW, or Cracow, a city of Poland, ſituated in a palatinate of the ſame name. E. Long. 20. 16. N. Lat. 50. 8. It was formerly the capital of Poland, where the kings were elected and crowned, and was once almoſt the centre of the Poliſh dominions, but is now a frontier town; a proof how much the power of this republic has been contracted.

Crackow ſtands in an extenſive plain, watered by the Viſtula, which is broad but ſhallow: the city and its ſuburbs occupy a vaſt tract of ground, but are ſo badly peopled, that they ſcarcely contain 16,000 inhabitants. The great ſquare in the middle of the town is very ſpacious, and has ſeveral well built houſes, once richly furniſhed and well inhabited, but moſt of them now either untenanted or in a ſtate of melancholy decay. Many of the ſtreets are broad and handſome; but almoſt every building bears the moſt ſtriking marks of ruined grandeur: the churches alone ſeem to have preſerved their original ſplendour. The devaſtation of this unfortunate town was begun by the Swedes at the commencement of the preſent century, when it was beſieged and taken by Charles XII. but the

the mischiefs it suffered from that ravager of the north were far less destructive than those it experienced during the late dreadful commotions, when it underwent repeated sieges, and was alternately in possession of the Russians and Confederates. The effects of cannon, grape, and musket shot, are still discernible on the walls and houses. In a word, Crackow exhibits the remains of ancient magnificence, and looks like a great capital in ruins: from the number of fallen and falling houses one would imagine it had lately been sacked, and that the enemy had left it only yesterday. The town is surrounded with high walls of brick, strengthened by round and square towers of whimsical shapes, in the ancient style of fortification: these walls were built by Venceslaus king of Bohemia during the short period in which he reigned over Poland.

The university of Crackow was formerly, and not unjustly, called the mother of Polish literature, as it principally supplied the other seminaries with professors and men of learning; but its lustre has been greatly obscured by the removal of the royal residence to Warsaw, and still more by the late intestine convulsions. In this city the art of printing was first introduced into Poland by Haller; and one of the earliest books was the Constitutions and Statutes compiled by Casimir the Great, and afterwards augmented by his successors. The characters are Gothic, the same which were universally used at the invention of printing: the great initial letters are wanting, which shows that they were probably painted and afterwards worn away. The year in which this compilation was printed is not positively known; but its publication was certainly anterior to 1496, as it does not contain the statutes passed by John Albert in that year. The most flourishing period of the university was under Sigismond Augustus in the 16th century, when several of the German reformers fled from the persecutions of the emperor Charles V. and found an asylum in this city. They gave to the world several versions of the sacred writings, and other theological publications, which diffused the reformed religion over great part of Poland. The protection which Sigismond Augustus afforded to men of learning of all denominations, and the universal toleration which he extended to every sect of Christians, created a suspicion that he was secretly inclined to the new church; and it was even reported that he intended to renounce the Catholic faith, and publicly profess the reformed religion.

Towards the southern part of the town, near the Vistula, rises a small eminence or rock, upon the top of which is built the palace, surrounded with brick walls and old towers, which form a kind of citadel to the town. This palace owes its origin to Ladislaus Jaghellon; but little of the ancient structure now appears, as the greatest part was demolished by Charles XII. in 1701, when he entered this town in triumph after the battle of Cliffow. It has been since repaired. The remains of the old palace consist of a few apartments, which are left in their ancient state as they existed in the last century. This palace was formerly the residence of the kings of Poland, who, from the time of Ladislaus Locketec, have been crowned at Crackow. The Polish and German historians differ concerning the time when the title of king was first claimed by the sovereigns of this country; but the most probable account is, according to Mr Coxe, that in 1295 Premislaus assumed the regal title, and was inaugurated at Gnesna by the archbishop of that diocese. He was succeeded by Ladislaus Locketec, who offending the Poles by his capricious and tyrannical conduct, was deposed before he was crowned; and Venceslaus king of Bohemia, who had married Richsa daughter of Premislaus, being elected in his stead, was in 1300 consecrated at Gnesna. Ladislaus, after flying from his country and undergoing a series of calamitous adventures, was at length brought to a sense of his misconduct. Having regained the affection of his subjects, he was restored, in the lifetime of Venceslaus, to part of his dominions; and he recovered them all upon the demise of that monarch in the year 1305: he governed, however, for some years without the title of king; but at length in 1320 was crowned at Crackow, to which place he transferred the ceremony of the coronation; and afterwards enacted, that for the future his successors should be inaugurated in the cathedral of this city,

Since that period all the sovereigns have been consecrated at Crackow, excepting the last king. Previous to his election a decree was issued by the diet of convocation, that the coronation should be solemnized for this turn at Warsaw, without prejudice in future to the ancient right of Crackow; a proviso calculated to satisfy the populace, but which will not probably prevent any future sovereign from being crowned at Warsaw, now become the capital of Poland and the residence of its kings. The diadem and other regalia used at the coronation are still kept in the palace of Crackow, under so many keys, and with such care, that it it is impossible to obtain a sight of them.

Adjoining to the palace stands the cathedral, also within the walls of the citadel. Here all the sovereigns, from the time of Ladislaus Locketec, have been interred, a few only excepted, viz. Louis and Ladislaus II. who were kings of Hungary as well as of Poland, and whose bodies were deposited in Hungary; Alexander, who died and was buried at Vilna; Henry of Valois, interred in France; and the late monarch Augustus III. The sepulchres of the kings of Poland are not distinguished by any peculiar magnificence; their figures are carved in marble of no extraordinary workmanship, and some are without inscriptions.

The bishop of Crackow is the first in the kingdom, duke of Saveria, and very often a cardinal. His revenues are larger than those of his metropolitan the archbishop of Gnesna, and are computed to amount to 40,000 dollars per annum.

CRADLE, a well known machine in which infants are rocked to sleep.

It denotes also that part of the stock of a cross bow where the bullet is put.

CRADLE, in *Surgery*, a case in which a broken leg is laid after being set.

CRADLE, in engraving, is the name of an instrument used in scraping mezzotintos, and preparing the plate. It is formed of steel, resembling a chissel with one sloping side, upon which are cut hollow lines very near each other, and at equal distances. The acting part of this tool is made circular, and the corners are rounded.

rounded. After being properly tempered, it muſt be ſharpened on the whetſtone. There are various ſizes of this inſtrument.

CRADLE, among ſhipwrights, a frame placed under the bottom of a ſhip, in order to conduct her ſmoothly and ſteadily into the water when ſhe is going to be launched; at which time it ſupports her weight while ſhe ſlides down the deſcent or ſloping paſſage called *the ways*, which are for this purpoſe daubed with ſoap and tallow.

CRAFT, a general name for all ſorts of veſſels employed to load or diſcharge merchant ſhips, or to carry alongſide or return the ſtores of men of war. Such are lighters, hoys, barges, prames, &c. See thoſe articles.

CRAKE, or CORN-CRAKE. See RALLUS, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CRAIL, or CAREIL, a borough town of Scotland, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt of the county of Fife, about ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of St Andrews. W. Long. 2. 20. N. Lat. 56. 17.

CRAMBE, SEA-CABBAGE, SEA-BEACH KALE, or SEA COLEWORT, a genus of plants belonging to the tetradynamia claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, *Siliquoſæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRAMERIA, a genus of plants belonging to the tetrandria claſs. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRAMOND, OVER and NETHER, two villages about four miles weſt of Edinburgh; of which only the laſt deſerves notice, as having been once a famous naval ſtation of the Romans. It is ſituated at the influx of the river Almond into the Forth. Three Roman roads meet at this place, which was called by them *Alaterva*, and whither they brought their grain for the ſupport of their troops. The village contains about 300 inhabitants. Here are the remains of a bath and ſudatory; and many altars, medals, &c. have been dug up.

CRAMP, a ſpaſmodic affection of the muſcles of different parts of the body, as thoſe of the neck, arms, legs, &c. accompanied with a violent but tranſitory pain. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CRAMP-Fiſh, or *Torpedo*. See RAJA, ICHTHYOLOGY *Index*.

CRAMP-Iron, or *Cramps*, a piece of iron bent at each end, which ſerves to faſten together pieces of wood, ſtones, or other things.

CRAMPONEE, in *Heraldry*, an epithet given to a croſs which has at each end a cramp or ſquare piece coming from it; that from the arm in chief towards the ſiniſter angle, that from the arm on that ſide downwards, that from the arm in baſe towards the dexter ſide, and that from the dexter arm upwards.

CRANAGE, the liberty of uſing a crane at a wharf, and alſo the money paid for drawing up wares out of a ſhip, &c. with a crane.

CRANE. See ARDEA, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CRANE, in *Mechanics*, a machine uſed in building for raiſing large ſtones and other weights. See MECHANICS.

CRANE'S Bill. See GERANIUM, BOTANY *Index*.

CRANE-Fly, a ſpecies of TIPULA. See ENTOMOLOGY *Index*.

CRANGANOR, a Dutch factory on the Malabar coaſt in the Eaſt Indies, ſeated in E. Long. 75. 5. N. Lat. 10. 0. See COCHIN.

CRANIOLARIA, a genus of plants belonging to the didynamia claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*.

CRANIUM, in *Anatomy*, an aſſemblage of ſeveral bones which cover and encloſe the brain and cerebellum, popularly called the *ſkull*. See ANATOMY *Index*. —The word comes from the Greek κρανιον, of κρανος, *galea*, "helmet;" becauſe it ſerves to defend the brain like a head-piece. Pezron, again, derives κρανιον from the Celtic *cren*, becauſe of its roundneſs.

CRANK, a contrivance in machines, in manner of an elbow, only of a ſquare form, projecting out from an axis or ſpindle; and ſerving, by its rotation, to raiſe and fall the piſtons of engines for raiſing water or the like.

CRANK, in ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to be *crank-ſided*, when for want of a ſufficient quantity of ballaſt or cargo, ſhe cannot bear her ſails, or can bear but ſmall ſail for fear of overſetting. She is ſaid to be *crank by the ground*, when her floor is ſo narrow that ſhe cannot be brought on ground without danger.

CRANK is alſo an iron brace which ſupports the lanthorns on the poop-quarters, &c.

CRANMER, THOMAS, a celebrated archbiſhop, reformer, and martyr, was the ſon of Thomas Cranmer, Eſq. of Aſlacton in Nottinghamſhire, where our author was born in 1489. At the age of 14, he was admitted a ſtudent of Jeſus College, Cambridge, of which he afterwards became fellow; but marrying the relation of an innkeeper's wife, he loſt his fellowſhip and quitted the college. On the death of his wife he was re-admitted fellow of Jeſus College. In 1523 he took the degree of doctor of divinity, and was made theological lecturer and examiner. The plague being at Cambridge, he retired to the houſe of a relation at Waltham Abbey, where, meeting with Fox the king's almoner, and Gardiner the ſecretary, he gave his opinion concerning King Henry's marriage with Catharine much to the ſatisfaction of his majeſty. This opinion was, that inſtead of diſputing about the validity of the king's marriage with Catharine, they ſhould reduce the matter to this ſimple queſtion, "Whether a man may marry his brother's wife or not?" When the king was told of it, he ſaid, "This fellow has got the right ſow by the ear." He then ſent for him to court, made him one of his chaplains, and ordered him to write in vindication of the divorce in agitation. This book having quieted the tender conſcience of the king, he was deſirous that all Europe ſhould be convinced of the illegality of his marriage with Queen Catharine; and for that purpoſe ſent Cranmer to France, Italy, and Germany, to diſpute the matter with the divines of thoſe countries. At Nuremberg Cranmer married a ſecond wife. Being returned to England, in March 1533 he was conſecrated archbiſhop of Canterbury; in May following he pronounced the ſentence of divorce between the king and queen; and ſoon after married the amorous monarch to Ann Boleyn. Being now at the head of the church, he exerted himſelf in the buſineſs of the Reformation. The Bible was tranſlated into Engliſh, and monaſteries diſſolved, principally by his means.

In 1536 the royal conſcience again required the aſ-

Cranmer. fistance of our archbishop: in this year he divorced the king from Ann Boleyn. In 1537 he visited his diocese, and endeavoured to abolish the superstitious observance of holidays. In 1539 he and some of the bishops fell under the king's displeasure, because they could not be brought to give their consent in parliament that the monasteries should be suppressed for the king's sole use. He also strenuously opposed the act for the six articles in the house of lords, speaking three days against it; and upon the passing of that statute sent away his wife into Germany. In 1540 he was one of the commissioners for inspecting into matters of religion and explaining some of its chief doctrines. The result of their commission was the book entitled A necessary Erudition of any Christian man. After Lord Cromwell's death (in whose behalf he had written to the king), he retired and lived in great privacy, meddling not at all with state affairs. In 1541 he gave orders, pursuant to the king's directions, for taking away superstitious shrines; and exchanging Bishopsbourn for Beckesbourn, united the latter to his diocese. In 1542 he procured the "Act for the advancement of true religion and the abolishment of the contrary," which moderated the rigour of the six articles. But the year following, some enemies preferring accusations against him, he had like to have been ruined, had not the king interposed in his behalf. His majesty continued afterwards to protect him from his enemies; and at his death appointed him one of the executors of his will, and one of the regents of the kingdom. In 1556 he crowned young Edward, during whose short reign he promoted the reformation to the utmost of his power; and was particularly instrumental in composing, correcting, and establishing the liturgy by act of parliament. He had also a share in compiling the thirty-nine articles of religion.

In 1553 he opposed the new settlement of the crown upon Lady Jane Gray, and would no way be concerned in that affair (though at last, through many importunities, he was prevailed upon to set his hand to it); neither would he join in any of Dudley's ambitious projects. Upon Queen Mary's accession to the throne, he was committed to the Tower; partly for setting his hand to the instrument of Lady Jane's succession, and partly for the public offer he had made a little before of justifying openly the religious proceedings of the late king. Some of his friends, foreseeing the storm that was likely to fall upon him, advised him to fly, but he absolutely refused. In the ensuing parliament, on November the 3d, he was attainted, and at Guildhall found guilty of high treason; whereupon the fruits of his archbishopric were sequestrated. In April 1554, he and Ridley and Latimer were removed to Oxford, in order for a public disputation with the Papists; which was accordingly held there towards the middle of the month, with great noise, triumph, and impudent confidence on the Papists side, and with as much gravity, learning, modesty, and convincing sufficiency on the side of the Protestant bishops. The 20th of April, two days after the end of these disputations, Cranmer and the two others were brought before the commissioners, and asked, Whether they would subscribe (to Popery)? which they unanimously refusing, were condemned as heretics. From this sentence the archbishop appealed to the just judgment of the Almighty; and wrote to the council, giving them an account of the disputation, and desiring the queen's pardon for his treason, which it seems was not yet remitted. By the convocation, which met this year, his Defence of the true and Catholic Doctrine of the Sacrament of the Body and Blood of our Saviour Christ was ordered to be burnt. Some of his friends petitioned the queen in his behalf; putting her in mind how he had once preserved her in her father's time by his earnest intercessions with him for her, so that she had reason to believe he loved her, and would speak the truth to her more than all the rest of the clergy. All endeavours in his behalf, however, were ineffectual; and the archbishop being degraded and most ignominiously treated, was at last flattered and terrified into an insincere recantation and renunciation of the Protestant faith. But this triumph was not sufficient to gratify the pious vengeance of the Romish Mary. On the 24th of Feb. 1556, a writ was signed for the burning of Cranmer; and on the 24th March, which was the fatal day, he was brought to St Mary's church, Oxford, and placed on a kind of stage over against the pulpit, where Dr Cole, provost of Eton, was appointed to preach a sermon on the occasion. While Cole was haranguing, the unfortunate Cranmer expressed great inward confusion; often lifting up his hands and eyes to heaven, and frequently pouring out floods of tears. At the end of the sermon, when Cole desired him to make an open profession of his faith, as he had promised him he would, he first prayed in the most fervent manner; then made an exhortation to the people present, not to set their minds upon the world, to obey the king and queen, to love each other, and to be charitable. After this he made a confession of his faith, beginning with the creed, and concluding with these words: "And I believe every word and sentence taught by our Saviour Jesus Christ, his apostles, and prophets, in the Old and New Testament.—And now (added he) I come to the great thing that so much troubleth my conscience, more than any thing I ever did or said in my whole life; and that is the setting abroad a writing contrary to the truth, which I here now renounce as things written with my hand contrary to the truth which I thought in my heart; and written for fear of death, and to save my life if it might be: that is, all such bills and papers which I have written or signed with my hand since my degradation, wherein I have written many things untrue. And forasmuch as my hand offended, writing contrary to my heart, my hand shall first be punished; for, may I come to the fire, it shall be first burned. As for the pope, I refuse him as Christ's enemy and antichrist, with all his false doctrine. And as for the sacrament, I believe as I have taught in my book against the bishop of Winchester." Thunderstruck as it were with this unexpected declaration, the enraged Popish crowd admonished him not to dissemble. "Ah! (replied he with tears) since I lived hitherto, I have been a hater of falsehood and a lover of simplicity, and never before this time have I dissembled." Whereupon they pulled him off the stage with the utmost fury, and hurried him to the place of his martyrdom over against Baliol college; where he put off his clothes in haste, and standing in his shirt, and without shoes, was fastened with a chain to the stake. Some pressing him to agree to his former recantation, he

Cranmer. he anſwered, ſhowing his hand, " This is the hand that wrote it, and therefore it ſhall firſt ſuffer puniſhment." Fire being applied to him, he ſtretched out his right hand into the flame, and held it there unmoved (except that once with it he wiped his face) till it was conſumed; crying with a loud voice, " This hand hath offended;" and often repeating, " This unworthy right hand." At laſt the fire getting up, he ſoon expired, never ſtirring or crying out all the while; only keeping his eyes fixed to heaven, and repeating more than once, " Lord Jeſus receive my ſpirit." Such was the end of the renowned Thomas Cranmer, in the 67th year of his age.

It was noticed above, that after the paſſing of the act for the ſix articles, Archbiſhop Cranmer ſent his wife into Germany. But ſhe afterwards returned again to England; and Mr Strype informs us, that " in the time of King Edward, when the marriage of the clergy was allowed, he brought her forth, and lived openly with her." Mr Gilpin ſays, " he left behind him a widow and children; but as he always kept his family in obſcurity for prudential reaſons, we know little about them. They had been kindly provided for by Henry VIII.; who, without any ſolicitation from the primate himſelf, gave him a conſiderable grant from the abbey of Walbeck in Nottinghamſhire, which his family enjoyed after his deceaſe. King Edward made ſome addition to his private fortune; and his heirs were reſtored in blood by an act of parliament in the reign of Elizabeth.

Archbiſhop Cranmer wrote a great number of books: many of them he publiſhed himſelf; and many of them ſtill remain in MSS. viz. two folio volumes in the king's library, ſeveral letters in the Cotton collection, &c.

Mr Gilpin remarks, That " the character of the archbiſhop hath been equally the ſubject of exaggerated praiſe and of undeſerved cenſure. The moſt indefenſible parts of the archbiſhop's character are the readineſs with which he ſometimes concurred in the unjuſtifiable proceedings of Henry VIII. and the inſtances wherein he ſhowed himſelf to be actuated by intolerant principles.

" He firſt recommended himſelf to Henry by the zeal which he diſplayed in promoting the king's divorce from Queen Catharine. As to this, it may be allowed, that Dr Cranmer might think the marriage wrong: but though it poſſibly might be a point of conſcience with the king, it could, however, be none with him; and there was manifeſtly a difference between adviſing not to do a thing, and adviſing to undo it when already done, at leaſt in a matter of ſo diſputable a nature. On the other hand, to repudiate a woman with whom the king had cohabited near 20 years as his wife, and to illegitimate a daughter, bred up in the higheſt expectations, and now marriageable, were acts of ſuch cruelty, that it ſeems to indicate a want of feeling to be in any degree acceſſary to them. To this may be added, that the notoriety of the king's paſſion for Ann Boleyn, which all men believed to be, if not the firſt mover, at leaſt the principal ſpring of his pretended ſcruples, threw a very indelicate imputation on all who had any concern in the affair. No ſerious churchman, one would imagine, could be fond of the idea of adminiſtering to the king's paſſions. It is with concern, therefore, that we ſee a man of Dr Cranmer's integrity and ſimplicity of manners acting ſo much out of character as to compound an affair of this kind, if not with his conſcience, at leaſt with all delicacy of ſentiment; and to parade through Europe, in the quality of an ambaſſador, defending everywhere the king's *pious intentions*. But the cauſe (continues Mr Gilpin) animated him. With the illegality of the king's marriage, he endeavoured virtually to eſtabliſh the inſufficiency of the pope's diſpenſation; and the latter was an argument ſo near his heart, that it ſeems to have added merit to the former. We cannot, indeed, account for his embarking ſo zealouſly in this buſineſs, without ſuppoſing his principal motive was to free his country from the tyranny of Rome, to which this ſtep very evidently led. So deſirable an end would in ſome degree, he might imagine, ſanctify the means."

Of two of the inſtances of perſecution in which Archbiſhop Cranmer was concerned, Mr Gilpin gives the following account. " Joan Bocher and George Paris were accuſed, though at different times; one for denying the humanity of Chriſt, the other for denying his divinity. They were both tried and condemned to the ſtake; and the archbiſhop not only conſented to theſe acts of blood, but even perſuaded the averſion of the young king into a compliance. " Your majeſty muſt diſtinguiſh (ſaid he, informing his royal pupil's conſcience) between common opinions and ſuch as are the eſſential articles of faith. Theſe latter we muſt on no account ſuffer to be oppoſed." Mr Gilpin juſtly obſerves, that " nothing even plauſible can be ſuggeſted in defence of the archbiſhop on this occaſion, except only that the ſpirit of Popery was not yet wholly repreſſed." Theſe inſtances of injuſtice and barbarity were indeed totally indefenſible, and a great diſgrace to Cranmer, and to all who were concerned in them. It does not appear that he endeavoured to promote the death of Lambert; but, as Mr Gilpin obſerves, it were to be wiſhed he had rid his hand of the diſputation likewiſe. The public diſputation, in which Cranmer bore ſome part, proved the means of bringing Lambert to the ſtake.

One of the moſt honourable tranſactions of Archbiſhop Cranmer's life, was the firm ſtand that he made againſt the act of the ſix articles. This act was ſo ſtrongly ſupported by the king, that even the Proteſtants in parliament made little oppoſition to it. But Cranmer oppoſed it with great zeal and ſteadineſs. " The good archbiſhop (ſays Mr Gilpin) never appeared in a more truly Chriſtian light than on this occaſion. In the midſt of ſo general a defection (for there were numbers in the houſe who had hitherto ſhown great forwardneſs in reformation) he alone made a ſtand. Three days he maintained his ground, and baffled the arguments of all oppoſers. But argument was not their weapon, and the archbiſhop ſaw himſelf obliged to ſink under ſuperior power. Henry ordered him to leave the houſe. The primate refuſed: " It was God's buſineſs (he ſaid), and not man's. And when he could do no more, he boldly entered his proteſt. Such an inſtance of fortitude is ſufficient to wipe off many of thoſe courtly ſtains which have faſtened on his memory."

His behaviour in the cauſe of the duke of Norfolk was alſo entitled to great commendation. " The laſt act

Cranmer. act of this reign (ſays Mr Gilpin) was an act of blood, and gave the archbiſhop a noble opportunity of ſhowing how well he had learned that great Chriſtian leſſon of forgiving an enemy. Almoſt without the ſhadow of juſtice, Henry had given directions to have the duke of Norfolk attainted by an act of parliament. The king's mandate ſtood in lieu of guilt, and the bill paſſed the houſe with great eaſe. No man, except the biſhop of Wincheſter, had been ſo great an enemy to the archbiſhop as the duke of Norfolk. He had always thwarted the primate's meaſures, and oftener than once had practiſed againſt his life. How many would have ſeen with ſecret pleaſure the working of Providence againſt ſo rancorous an enemy; ſatisfied in having themſelves no hand in his unjuſt fate! But the archbiſhop ſaw the affair in another light: he ſaw it with horror; and although the king had in a particular manner intereſted himſelf in this buſineſs, the primate oppoſed the bill with all his might; and when his oppoſition was vain, he left the houſe with indignation, and retired to Croydon."

He was indeed remarkable for the placability of his temper, and for ſhowing kindneſs to thoſe by whom he had been greatly injured. Hence it is mentioned in Shakeſpeare's Henry VIII. as a common ſaying concerning him:

——— "Do my lord of Canterbury
But one ſhrewd turn, and he's your friend for ever."

Archbiſhop Cranmer was a great friend and patron of learned foreigners, who had been perſecuted for their attachment to the principles of the reformation. Mr Gilpin ſays, "the ſuffering profeſſors of Proteſtantiſm, who were ſcattered in great numbers about the various countries of Europe, were always ſure of an aſylum with him. His palace at Lambeth might be called a ſeminary of learned men: the greater part of whom perſecution had driven from home. Here, among other celebrated reformers, Martyr, Bucer, Aleſs, Phage, found ſanctuary. Martyr, Bucer, and Phage, were liberally penſioned by the archbiſhop till he could otherwiſe provide for them. It was his wiſh to fix them in the two univerſities, where he hoped their great knowledge and ſpirit of inquiry would forward his deſigns of reſtoring learning; and he at length obtained profeſſorſhips for them all. Bucer and Phage were ſettled at Cambridge; where they only ſhowed what might have been expected from them, both dying within a few months after their arrival. But at Oxford Martyr acted a very conſpicuous part, and contributed to introduce among the ſtudents there a very liberal mode of thinking.

Of the learning of Archbiſhop Cranmer, Mr Gilpin remarks, that "it was chiefly confined to his profeſſion. He had applied himſelf in Cambridge to the ſtudy of the Greek and Hebrew languages; which though eſteemed at that time as the mark of hereſy, appeared to him the only ſources of attaining a critical knowledge of the Scriptures. He had ſo accurately ſtudied canon law, that he was eſteemed the beſt canoniſt in England; and his reading in theology was ſo extenſive, and his collections from the Fathers ſo very voluminous, that there were few points in which he was not accurately informed, and in which he could not give the opinions of the ſeveral ages of the church from the times of the apoſtles. He was a ſenſible writer, rather nervous than elegant. His writings were entirely confined to the great controverſy which then ſubſiſted, and contain the whole ſum of the theological learning of thoſe times. His library was filled with a very noble collection of books, and was open to all men of letters.

Mr Gilpin, after remarking that Archbiſhop Cranmer preached often wherever he viſited, ſays, "In his ſermons to the people, he was very plain and inſtructive; inſiſting chiefly on the eſſentials of Chriſtianity. The ſubjects of his ſermons, for the moſt part, were from whence ſalvation is to be fetched, and on whom the confidence of men ought to lean. They inſiſted much on doctrines of faith and works; and taught what the fruits of faith were, and what place was to be given to works; they inſtructed men in the duties they owed their neighbour, and that every one was our neighbour, to whom we might any way do good; they declared what men ought to think of themſelves after they had done all; and, laſtly, what promiſes Chriſt hath made, and who they are to whom he will make them good. Thus he brought in the true preaching of the goſpel, altogether different from the ordinary way of preaching in thoſe days; which was to treat concerning ſaints, to tell legendary tales of them, and to report miracles wrought for the confirmation of tranſubſtantiation and other popiſh corruptions. And ſuch a heat of conviction accompanied his ſermons, that the people departed from them with minds poſſeſſed of a great hatred of vice, and burning with a deſire of virtue."

He was a great economiſt of his time. Mr Gilpin ſays, "he roſe commonly at five o'clock and continued in his ſtudy till nine. Theſe early hours, he would ſay, were the only hours he could call his own. After breakfaſt he generally ſpent the remainder of the morning either in public or private buſineſs. His chapel-hour was eleven, and his dinner-hour twelve. After dinner he ſpent an hour either in converſation with his friends, in playing at cheſs, or in what he liked better, overlooking a cheſs-board. He then retired again to his ſtudy till his chapel-bell rang at five. After prayers, he generally walked till ſix, which was in thoſe times the hour of ſupper. His evening meal was ſparing. Often he ate nothing; and when that was the caſe, it was his uſual cuſtom, as he ſat down to table, to draw on a pair of gloves; which was as much as to ſay, that his hands had nothing to do. After ſupper, he ſpent an hour in walking and another in his ſtudy, retiring to his bedchamber about nine. This was his uſual mode of living when he was moſt vacant, but very often his afternoons as well as his mornings were engaged in buſineſs. He generally, however, contrived, if poſſible, even in the buſieſt day, to devote ſome portion of his time to his books beſides the morning. And Mr Fox tells us, he always accuſtomed himſelf to read and write in a ſtanding poſture; eſteeming conſtant ſitting very pernicious to a ſtudious man."

Mr Gilpin alſo obſerves, "that he was a very amiable maſter in his family, and admirably preſerved the difficult medium between indulgence and reſtraint. He had, according to the cuſtom of the times, a very numerous retinue, among whom the moſt exact order

was

was obſerved. Every week the ſteward of his houſehold held a kind of court in the great hall of his palace; in which all family affairs were ſettled, ſervants wages were paid, complaints were heard, and faults examined. Delinquents were publicly rebuked, and after the third admonition diſcharged. His hoſpitality and charities were great and noble; equal to his ſtation, greater often than his abilities. A plentiful table was among the virtues of thoſe days. His was always bountifully covered. In an upper room was ſpread his own, where he ſeldom wanted company of the firſt diſtinction. Here a great many learned foreigners were daily entertained, and partook of his bounty. In his great hall a long table was plentifully covered every day for gueſts and ſtrangers of a lower rank: at the upper end of which were three ſmaller tables, deſigned for his own officers and inferior gentlemen. Among other inſtances of the archbiſhop's charity, we have one recorded which was truly noble. After the deſtruction of monaſteries, and before hoſpitals were erected, the nation ſaw no ſpecies of greater miſery than that of wounded and diſbanded ſoldiers. For the uſe of ſuch miſerable objects as were landed on the ſouthern coaſts of the iſland, the archbiſhop fitted up his manor-houſe of Beckeſbourn in Kent. He formed it indeed into a complete hoſpital; appointing a phyſician, a ſurgeon, nurſes, and every thing proper, as well for food as phyſic. Nor did his charity ſtop here. Each man, on his recovery, was furniſhed with money to carry him home, in proportion to the diſtance of his abode."

To conclude with the character given by Mr Hume; "Archbiſhop Cranmer was undoubtedly a man of merit; poſſeſſed of learning and capacity; and adorned with candour, ſincerity, and beneficence, and all thoſe virtues which were fitted to render him uſeful and amiable in ſociety. His moral qualities procured him univerſal reſpect; and the courage of his martyrdom, though he fell ſhort of the rigid inflexibility obſerved in many, made him the hero of the Proteſtant party."

CRANNY, in glaſs-making, an iron inſtrument wherewith the necks of glaſſes are formed.

CRANTARA, among the ancient Britons, was a ſort of military ſignal uſed for collecting the diſtant and ſcattered warriors to the ſtandard of their chief. A prince having immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of his followers to repel ſome ſudden invaſion or engage in ſome expedition, beſides ſtriking the ſhield and ſounding the horn to give warning to thoſe who were within hearing, he ſent the crantara, or a ſtick burnt at the end and dipped in the blood of a goat, by a ſwift meſſenger, to the neareſt hamlet, where he delivered it without ſaying one word but the name of the place of rendezvous. This crantara, which was well underſtood to denounce deſtruction by fire and ſword to all who did not obey this ſummons, was carried with great rapidity from village to village; and the prince in a little time found himſelf ſurrounded by all his warriors ready to obey his commands.

CRANTOR, a Greek philoſopher and poet, was born at Solos in Cilicia. He left his native country where he was admired; went to Athens, and there ſtudied with Polemon under Xenocrates. He was conſidered as one of the chief ſupporters of the Platonic ſect; and was the firſt who wrote commentaries upon Plato's works. He flouriſhed 270 years before Chriſt.

CRAPE, a light tranſparent ſtuff, in manner of gauze: made of raw ſilk gummed and twiſted on the mill; woven without croſſing, and much uſed in mourning.

Crapes are either craped, i. e. criſped, or ſmooth; the firſt double, expreſſing a cloſer mourning; the latter ſingle, uſed for that leſs deep. Note, White is reſerved for young people, or thoſe devoted to virginity. The ſilk deſtined for the firſt is more twiſted than that for the ſecond; it being the greater or leſs degree of twiſting, eſpecially of the warp, which produces the criſping given it when taken out of the loom, ſteeped in clear water, and rubbed with a piece of wax for the purpoſe.

Crapes are all dyed raw. The invention of this ſtuff came originally from Bologna: but the chief manufacture of it is ſaid to be at Lyons.

Hiſtory tells us, that St Bathilda, queen of France, made fine crape (*crepa*) of gold and ſilver, to lay over the body of St Eloy. The Bollandiſts own they cannot find what this *crepa* was. Binet ſays, it was a frame to cover the body of the ſaint: but others, with reaſon, take it to be a tranſparent ſtuff, through which the body might be ſeen; and that this was the *crepa* whence our word crape was formed.

CRAPULA, among phyſicians, a term for SURFEIT.

CRASHAW, RICHARD, who was in his lifetime honoured with the friendſhip of Cowley, and ſince his death by the praiſe of Mr Pope, who condeſcended both to read his poems, and to borrow from them, was the ſon of William Craſhaw, an eminent divine, and educated at the Charter-houſe near London. He was then ſent to Pembroke-hall in Cambridge, and was afterwards of Peter-houſe, where he was fellow; in both which colleges he was diſtinguiſhed for his Latin and Engliſh poetry. Afterwards he was ejected from his fellowſhip, together with many others, for denying the covenant in the time of the rebellion; and he changed his religion, being by catholic artifices perverted to the church of Rome; not *converted*, but rather, as Pope ſays, *outwitted*. He went to Paris, in hopes of recommending himſelf to ſome preferment there; but being a mere ſcholar, was incapable of executing the new plan he had formed. There he fell into great diſtreſs, which Cowley the poet hearing of in 1646, very kindly ſought him out, gave him all the aſſiſtance he could, and at laſt got him recommended to Henrietta Maria queen of England, then reſiding at Paris. Obtaining from her letters of recommendation, he travelled into Italy; and by virtue of thoſe letters became ſecretary to a cardinal at Rome, and at laſt one of the canons or chaplains of the rich church of our lady at Loretto, ſome miles diſtance from thence, where he died and was buried about 1650. Before he left England, he wrote certain poems, entitled, "Steps to the Temple:" becauſe (ſays Wood) he led his life in the temple of God, in St Mary's church, near to his college. There, as we learn from the preface to theſe poems, he lodged under Tertullian's roof of angels. There he made his neſt more gladly than David's ſwallow near the houſe of God; where, like

a primitive saint, he offered more prayers in the night than others usually offer in the day. There he penned the said poems called "Steps to the Temple for Happy Souls to Climb to Heaven by." To the said Steps are joined other poems called, "The Delight of the Muses," wherein are several Latin poems, which though of a mere human mixture, yet they are sweet as they are innocent. He hath also written *Carmen Deo Nostro*, being hymns and other sacred poems, addressed to the countess of Denbigh. He was excellent in five languages besides his mother tongue, namely, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Italian, and Spanish.

CRASIS (from κεραννυμι, "to mix,") the temper of the blood peculiar to every constitution.

CRASIS, in *Grammar*, is a figure whereby two different letters are either contracted into one long letter or a diphthong. Such, e. g. is οφις for οφιας; αληθη for αληθεα, &c. τυχης for τυχεος, &c. where ι and α are contracted into ι; and ε and α into η; and ε and ο into ου.

CRASSAMENTUM, in *Physic*, the thick red or fibrous part of the blood, otherwise called *cruor*, in contradistinction to the serum or aqueous part.

CRASSULA, Lesser Orpine, or *Live-ever;* a genus of plants, belonging to the pentandria class; and in the natural method ranking under the 13th order, *Succulentæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CRASSUS, M. Licinius, a celebrated Roman, surnamed *Rich* on account of his opulence. At first he was very circumscribed in his circumstances, but by educating slaves and selling them at a high price he soon enriched himself. The cruelties of Cinna obliged him to leave Rome, and he retired to Spain, where he remained concealed for eight months. After Cinna's death he passed into Africa, and thence to Italy, where he served Sylla and ingratiated himself in his favour. When the gladiators with Spartacus at their head had spread an universal alarm in Italy and defeated some of the Roman generals, Crassus was sent against them. A battle was fought, in which Crassus slaughtered 12,000 of the slaves, and by this decisive blow soon put an end to the war, and was honoured with an *ovatio* at his return. He was soon after made consul with Pompey in the year of Rome 682, and in this high office he displayed his opulence by entertaining the populace at 10,000 tables. He was afterwards censor, and formed the first triumvirate with Pompey and Cæsar. As his love of riches was more predominant than that of glory, Crassus never imitated the ambitious conduct of his colleagues, but was satisfied with the province of Syria, which seemed to promise an inexhaustible source of wealth. With hopes of enlarging his possessions he set off from Rome, though the omens proved unfavourable, and every thing seemed to threaten his ruin. He crossed the Euphrates, and forgetful of the rich cities of Babylon and Seleucia, he hastened to make himself master of Parthia. He was betrayed in his march by the delay of Artavasdes king of Armenia, and the perfidy of Ariamnes. He was met in a large plain by Surena the general of the forces of Orodes king of Parthia, and a battle was fought in which 20,000 Romans were killed and 10,000 taken prisoners. The darkness of the night favoured the escape of the rest; and Crassus, forced by the mutiny and turbulence of his soldiers, and the treachery of his guides, trusted himself to the general of the enemy on pretence of proposing terms of accommodation, and he was killed. His head was cut off and sent to Orodes, who poured melted gold down his throat, and insulted his misfortunes. Though he has been called avaricious, yet he showed himself always ready of lending money to his friends without interest. He was fond of philosophy, and his knowledge of history was great and extensive.

CRATÆGUS, Wild-service tree, *Hawthorn*, &c. a genus of plants, belonging to the icosandria class; and in the natural method ranking under the 36th order, *Pomaceæ*. See Botany *Index*.

The oxycanthus, hawthorn, or white thorn, grows naturally all over Europe. It is sometimes cultivated as an ornamental tree, but it is chiefly propagated for the purpose of planting as a fence. In order to propagate a quantity of quicks, one method is generally practised; namely, first burying the haws, and taking them up to sow the October following; though, says Hanbury, there is another way more preferable; namely, to prepare the beds, and sow the haws soon after they are gathered. Whoever pursues the former method, having gathered what quantity of haws will answer his purpose, should in some bye-corner of the kitchen-garden or nursery dig a hole or pit capacious enough to receive them; some of the earth which came out of the hole, after the haws are put in it, should be laid upon them; and being thus carefully covered down, they may remain there till October. Then, having ground well dug, and cleared of the roots of all troublesome weeds, and the mould being fit for working, the beds should be made for the haws. Four feet is a very good width of these beds, as they may be easily reached over to be weeded; and if the alleys between be each one foot and a half wide, they will be of a good size. The beds being marked out with a line, sufficient mould must be raked out to cover the haws an inch and a half deep. This being done, and the bottom of the beds being made level and even, the haws should be sown, and afterwards gently tapped down with the back of the spade; and then the fine mould, which had been raked out of the beds, must be thrown over them, covering them an inch and a half deep. In the spring the plants will come up, and in the summer following should be kept clear of weeds; though it does sometimes happen, that few of them will appear till the second spring after sowing. Sometimes the young plants are planted out from the seed-beds at one, two, or three years old; but the best plants are obtained by transplanting them into fresh mould the first or second year, letting them remain in the nursery two or three years longer. The practice of the London nurserymen is this: The strongest of the seed-bed plants having been drawn at two or three years old for sale, they clean the beds entirely by drawing the remaining weak underling plants, and transplanting them into fresh beds in this manner, which they call *bedding them:* The ground having been trenched, and the tips of the plants as well as the lower fibres of their roots having been taken off with a sharp knife, they strain a line along one side of the bed; and by chopping with a spade by the side of the line, leave a clift or drill of a depth proportioned to the length of the plants to be laid in; and drawing the loose mould somewhat towards them, leave the side of the drill next

to

Cratægus || Crato.

to the line with a ſmooth poliſhed face. Againſt this face the plants are ſet up, leaning towards the line, about three inches aſunder, leaving their heads about an inch above the mould, and placing their roots at ſuch a depth as to bury their ſtems from two to three inches deeper than they ſtood in the ſeed-bed. The looſe mould being returned and preſſed gently to the roots with the foot, the line is removed, and another row planted in the ſame manner about a foot from the firſt.

CRATCHES, in the manege, a ſwelling on the paſtern, under the fetlock, and ſometimes under the hoof; for which reaſon it is diſtinguiſhed into the ſinew cratches, which affect the ſinew, and thoſe upon the coronet, called *quittor-bones*.

CRATER, Cup, in *Aſtronomy*, a conſtellation of the ſouthern hemiſphere; whoſe ſtars, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are ſeven; in Tycho's, eight; in Hevelius's, ten; in the Britannic catalogue, thirty-one.

Crater is alſo uſed to ſignify the mouth or opening of a volcano or burning mountain, from whence the fire is diſcharged. See Volcano.

CRATES, of Thebes, a famous philoſopher, was the diſciple of Diogenes the Cynic. It is ſaid that he threw all his money into the ſea, that he might the more freely apply himſelf to the ſtudy of philoſophy. Others aſſert that he placed it into another perſon's hands, with orders to give it to his children if they ſhould happen to be fools: For (ſaid Crates), if they ſhould be philoſophers, they will have no need of it: in which caſe it was to be given to the people. He flouriſhed about 328 years before Chriſt.

He ought not to be confounded with Crates, a famous Academic philoſopher, the diſciple and friend of Polemon. This laſt Crates had Arceſilaus and other celebrated philoſophers for his diſciples; and flouriſhed about 300 years before Chriſt.

CRATEVA, the Garlic Pear; a genus of plants belonging to the dodecandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 25th order, *Putamineæ*. See Botany *Index*.

CRATINUS, an ancient comic poet, of whom we ſhould ſcarcely have known any thing, had not Quintilian, Horace, and Perſius, mentioned him, Eupolis, and Ariſtophanes, as the great maſters of what we call the ancient comedy. It is gathered that he died in the 87th Olympiad. Suidas tells us that he wrote 21 plays, and that he was ſplendid and bright in his characters.

CRATIPPUS, a celebrated Peripatetic philoſopher, was a native of Mitylene, where he taught philoſophy: but at length went to Athens where Brutus and the ſon of Cicero were his diſciples. Pompey went to ſee him after the battle of Pharſalia, and propoſed to him his difficulties in relation to the belief of a Providence: when Cratippus comforted him, and by forcible arguments anſwered his objections. He wrote ſome pieces about divination: and is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with him whom Tertullian, in his book *De Anima*, has ranked among the writers upon dreams.

CRATO, a ſmall town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo, with a rich priory. It is the chief commandery which the knights of Malta have in Portugal. W. Long. 8. 12. N. Lat. 38. 50.

Cravea || Crayer.

CRAVEN, a town of France, in Burgundy, remarkable for its good wine, and for a battle fought there between the Engliſh and French. It is ſeated near the confluence of the rivers Cure and Yonne. E. Long. 3. 30. N. Lat. 47. 42.

Craven, or *Cravent*, a word of reproach, uſed in trials by battel. See Battel.

CRAX, the Curassou, a genus of birds belonging to the order of gallinæ. See Ornithology *Index*.

Cray Fish, or *Craw Fiſh*. See Cancer, Entomology *Index*.

CRAYER, Caspar de, a celebrated painter, was born at Antwerp in 1585, and was a diſciple of Raphael Coxis, the ſon of that Coxis who had ſtudied under Raphael; but he ſoon ſhowed ſuch proof of genius, and of an elevated capacity, that he far ſurpaſſed his maſter. Afterwards he made judicious obſervations on the particular excellencies of the moſt renowned maſters to which he had any acceſs; and taking nature for his conſtant director and guide, he formed for himſelf a manner that was exceedingly pleaſing. The firſt work which eſtabliſhed him in the favour of the court at Bruſſels, was a portrait of Cardinal Ferdinand, brother to the king of Spain, which he painted at full length, and as large as life. In that picture he ſucceeded ſo happily, that it was ſent to Madrid, and received there with ſuch concurrent approbation of the king and the whole court, that it laid the foundation of the fame and fortune of Crayer. For the king, as an acknowledgement of the painter's merit, ſent him a gold chain with a medal; and added, as a farther inſtance of his favour, an appointment for a conſiderable penſion. But nothing places the talents of Crayer in a ſtronger light, than the teſtimony of ſo excellent an artiſt as Rubens. That great man went to Antwerp particularly to viſit Crayer, and to ſee his works; and after examining attentively a picture of his painting, in the refectory of the abbey of Affleghem, he publicly declared that no painter could ſurpaſs Crayer. Nor was this maſter leſs diſtinguiſhed by Vandyck, who always expreſſed a real eſteem and friendſhip for him, and painted his portrait. He had ſomewhat leſs fire in his compoſition than Rubens, but his deſign is frequently more correct. His compoſitions generally conſiſted of a ſmall number of figures; and with diſcreet judgment, he avoided the encumbering his deſign with ſuperfluous particulars, or loading his ſubject with any thing that ſeemed not to contribute to its elegance or probability. He grouped his figures with ſingular ſkill, and his expreſſions have all the truth of nature. There is a remarkable variety in his draperies, and an equal degree of ſimplicity in their folds; and as to his colouring, it is admirable. Of all his contemporary painters, he was accounted to approach neareſt to Vandyck, not only in hiſtory but in portrait. He principally painted religious ſubjects, and was continually at work; and although he lived to a great age, yet his temperance and conſtant regularity preſerved to him the full uſe of all his faculties; and to the laſt month of his life his pencil retained the ſame force and freedom which it poſſeſſed in his moſt vigorous time. The ſubject of that picture which was ſo honoured by the approbation of Rubens is the Centurion alighting from his horſe to proſtrate himſelf at the feet of

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of our Saviour. It is a capital design of Crayer; and although it consists of a great number of figures, the harmony and union are well preserved.

CRAYON, a general name for all coloured stones, earths, or other minerals and substances, used in designing or painting in pastel; whether they have been beaten and reduced to a paste, or are used in their primitive consistence, after sawing or cutting them into long narrow slips. In this last manner are red crayons made, of blood-stone or red chalk; black ones, of charcoal and black-lead. Crayons of all other colours are compositions of earths reduced to paste.

Crayon-Painting. Whether the painter works with oil-colours, water-colours, or crayons, the grand object of his pursuit is still the same: a just imitation of nature. But each species has its peculiar rules and methods. Painting with crayons requires in many respects a treatment different from painting in oil-colours; because all colours used dry are in their nature of a much warmer complexion than when wet with oils, &c. For this reason, in order to produce a rich picture, a much greater portion of what painters term *cooling teints* must be applied in crayon painting than would be judicious to use in oils. Without any danger of a mistake, it is to be supposed, the not being acquainted with this observation is one great cause why so many oil painters have no better success when they attempt crayon-painting. On the contrary, crayon painters being so much used to their teints, which are of a cold nature when used wet, are apt to introduce them too much when they paint oils, which is seldom productive of a good effect.

We shall now endeavour to give the student some directions towards the attainment of excellence in this art.

Of the Application of the Crayons, with some previous Dispositions. The student must provide himself with some strong blue paper, the thicker the better, if the grain is not too coarse or knotty, though it is almost impossible to get any entirely free from knots. The knots should be levelled with a penknife or razor, otherwise they will prove exceedingly troublesome. After this is done, the paper must be pasted very smooth on a linen cloth, previously strained on a deal frame, the size according to the artist's pleasure: on this the picture is to be executed; but it is most eligible not to paste the paper on till the whole subject is first dead coloured. The method of doing this is very easy, by laying the paper with the dead colour on its face, upon a smooth board or table, when, by means of a brush, the backside of the paper must be covered with paste; the frame with the strained cloth, must then be laid on the posted side of the paper; after which turn the painted side uppermost, and lay a piece of clean paper upon it, to prevent smearing it: this being done, it may be stroked gently over with the hand; by which means all the air between the cloth and the paper will be forced out.

When the paste is perfectly dry, the student may proceed with the painting. The advantages arising from pasting the paper on the frame according to this method, after the picture is begun, are very great, as the crayons will adhere much better than any other way; which will enable the student to finish the picture with a firmer body of colour and greater lustre.

When the painters want to make a very correct copy of a picture, they generally make use of tiffany or black gauze, strained tight on a frame, which they lay flat on the subject to be imitated, and with a piece of sketching chalk trace all the outlines on the tiffany. They then lay the canvas to be painted on flat upon the floor, placing the tiffany with the chalked lines upon it, and with an handkerchief brush the whole over; this presents the exact outlines of the picture on the canvas. The crayon-painter may also make use of this method when the subject of his imitation is in oils; but in copying a crayon-picture, he must have recourse to the following method, on account of the glass.

The picture being placed upon the easel, let the outlines be drawn on the glass with a small camel's hair pencil dipped in lake, ground thin with oils, which must be done with great exactness. After this is accomplished, take a sheet of paper of the same size, and place it on the glass, stroking over all the lines with the hand, by which means the colour will adhere to the paper, which must be pierced with pin-holes pretty close to each other. The paper intended to be used for the printing must next be laid upon a table, and the pierced paper placed upon it; then with some fine pounded charcoal, tied up in a piece of lawn, rub over the pierced lines, which will give an exact outline; but great care must be taken not to brush this off till the whole is drawn over with sketching chalk, which is a composition made of whiting and tobacco-pipe clay, rolled like the crayons, and pointed at each end.

When a student paints immediately from the life, it will be most prudent to make a correct drawing of the outlines on another paper, the size of the picture he is going to paint, which he may trace by the preceding method, because erroneous strokes of the sketching chalk (which are not to be avoided without great expertness) will prevent the crayons from adhering to the paper, owing to a certain greasy quality in the composition.

The student will find the sitting posture, with the box of crayons in his lap, the most convenient method for him to paint. The part of the picture he is immediately painting should be rather below his face; for, if it be placed too high, the arm will be fatigued. Let the windows of the room where he paints be darkened, at least to the height of six feet from the ground; and the subject to be painted should be situated in such a manner, that the light may fall with every advantage on the face, avoiding too much shadow, which seldom has a good effect in portrait painting, especially if the face he paints from has any degree of delicacy.

Before he begins to paint, let him be attentive to his subject, and appropriate the action or attitude proper to the age of the subject: if a child, let it be childish; if a young lady, express more vivacity than in the majestic beauty of a middle-aged woman, who also should not be expressed with the same gravity as a person far advanced in years. Let the embellishments of the picture, and introduction of birds, animals, &c. be regulated by the rules of propriety and consistency.

The features of the face being correctly drawn with chalks,

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chalks, let the ſtudent take a crayon of pure carmine, and carefully draw the noſtril and edge of the noſe next the ſhadow; then, with the fainteſt carmine teint, lay in the higheſt light upon the noſe and forehead, which muſt be executed broad. He is then to proceed gradually with the ſecond teint, and the ſucceeding ones, till he arrives at the ſhadows, which muſt be covered brilliant, enriched with much lake, carmine, and deep green. This method will at firſt offenſively ſtrike the eye, from its crude appearance; but in the finiſhing, it will be a good foundation to produce a pleaſing effect, colours being much more eaſily ſullied when too bright than when the firſt colouring is dull, to raiſe the picture into a brilliant ſtate. The ſeveral pearly teints diſcernible in fine complexions muſt be imitated with blue verditer and white, which anſwers to the ultramarine teints uſed in oils. But if the parts of the face where theſe teints appear are in ſhadow, the crayons compoſed of black and white muſt be ſubſtituted in their place.

Though all the face when firſt coloured ſhould be laid in as brilliant as poſſible, yet each part ſhould be kept in its proper tone; by which means the rotundity of the face will be preſerved.

Let the ſtudent be careful, when he begins the eyes, to draw them with a crayon inclined to the carmine teint, of whatever colour the iriſes are of; he muſt lay them in brilliant, and at firſt not loaded with colour, but executed lightly: no notice is to be taken of the pupil yet. The ſtudent muſt let the light of the eye incline very much to the blue caſt, cautiouſly avoiding a ſtaring white appearance (which, when once introduced, is ſeldom overcome), preſerving a broad ſhadow thrown on its upper part by the eyelaſh. A black and heavy teint is alſo to be avoided in the eyebrows; it is therefore beſt to execute them like a broad glowing ſhadow at firſt, on which, in the finiſhing, the hairs of the brow are to be painted; by which method of proceeding, the former teints will ſhow themſelves through, and produce the moſt pleaſing effect.

The ſtudent ſhould begin the lips with pure carmine and lake, and in the ſhadow uſe ſome carmine and black; the ſtrong vermilion teints ſhould be laid on afterwards. He muſt beware of executing them with ſtiff, harſh lines, gently intermixing each with the neighbouring colours, making the ſhadow beneath broad, and enriched with brilliant crayons. He muſt form the corner of the mouth with carmine, brown ochre, and greens, variouſly intermixed. If the hair is dark, he ſhould preſerve much of the lake and deep carmine teints therein; this may eaſily be overpowered by the warmer hair-teints, which, as obſerved in painting the eyebrows, will produce a richer effect when the picture is finiſhed; on the contrary, if this method is unknown or neglected, a poverty of colouring will be diſcernible.

After the ſtudent has covered over, or, as artiſts term it, has dead-coloured the head, he is to ſweeten the whole together, by rubbing it over with his finger, beginning at the ſtrongeſt light upon the forehead, paſſing his finger very lightly, and uniting it with the next teint, which he muſt continue till the whole is ſweetened together, often wiping his finger on a towel to prevent the colours being ſullied. He muſt be cautious not to ſmooth or ſweeten his picture too often, becauſe it will give riſe to a thin and ſcanty effect, and have more the appearance of a drawing than a ſolid painting; as nothing but a body of rich colours can conſtitute a rich effect. To avoid this (as the ſtudent finds it neceſſary to ſweeten with the finger), he muſt commonly repleniſh the picture with more crayon.

When the head is brought to ſome degree of forwardneſs, let the back ground be laid in, which muſt be treated in a different manner, covering it as thin as poſſible, and rubbing it into the paper with a leather ſtump. Near the face the paper ſhould be almoſt free from colour, for this will do great ſervice to the head, and by its thinneſs give both a ſoft and ſolid appearance. In the back ground alſo, no crayon that has whiting in its compoſition ſhould be uſed, but chiefly ſuch as are the moſt brilliant and the leaſt adulterated. The ground being painted thin next the hair, will give the ſtudent an opportunity of painting the edges of the hair over in a light and free manner when he gives the finiſhing touches.

The ſtudent having proceeded thus far, the face, hair, and back ground being entirely covered, he muſt carefully view the whole at ſome diſtance, remarking in what reſpect it is out of keeping, that is, what parts are too light, and what too dark, being particularly attentive to the white or chalky appearances, which muſt be ſubdued with lake and carmine. The above method being properly put into execution, will produce the appearance of a painting principally compoſed of three colours, viz. carmine, black, and white, which is the beſt preparation a painter can make for the producing a fine crayon picture.

The next ſtep is, to complete the back-ground and the hair, as the duſt, in painting theſe, will fall on the face, and would much injure it if that was completed firſt. From thence proceed to the forehead, finiſhing downward till the whole picture is completed.

In painting over the forehead the laſt time, begin the higheſt light with the moſt faint vermilion teint, in the ſame place where the faint carmine was firſt laid, keeping it abroad in the ſame manner. In the next ſhade ſucceeding the lighteſt, the ſtudent muſt work in ſome light blue teints, compoſed of verditer and white, intermixing with them ſome of the deeper vermilion teints, ſweetening them together with great caution, inſenſibly melting them into one another, increaſing the proportion of each colour as his judgment ſhall direct. Some brilliant yellows may alſo be uſed, but ſparingly; and towards the roots of the hair, ſtrong verditer teints, intermixed with greens, will be of ſingular ſervice. Cooling crayons, compoſed of black and white, ſhould ſucceed theſe, and melt into the hair. Beneath the eyes, the ſweet pearly teints are to be preſerved, compoſed of verditer and white, and under the noſe, and on the temples, the ſame may be uſed; beneath the lips, teints of this kind alſo are proper, mixing them with the light greens and ſome vermilion.

In finiſhing the cheeks, let the pure lake clear them from any duſt contracted from the other crayons; then with the lake may be intermixed the bright vermilion; and laſt of all (if the ſubject ſhould require it) a few touches

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touches of the orange-coloured crayon, but with extreme caution; after, ſweeten that part with the finger as little as poſſible, for fear of producing a heavy diſagreeable effect on the cheeks; as the beauty of a crayon-picture conſiſts in one colour ſhowing itſelf through, or rather between, another: this the ſtudent cannot too often remark, it being the only method of imitating beautiful complexions.

The eye is the feature moſt difficult to execute in crayons, as every part muſt be expreſſed with the utmoſt nicety, to appear finiſhed; at the ſame time that the painter muſt preſerve its breadth and ſolidity while he is particularizing the parts. To accompliſh this, it will be a good general rule for the ſtudent to uſe his crayon in ſweetening as much, and his finger as little, as poſſible. When he wants a point to touch a ſmall part with, he may break off a little of his crayon againſt the box, which will produce a corner fit to work with in the minuteſt parts. If the eye-laſhes are dark, he muſt uſe ſome of the carmine and brown ochre, and the crayon of carmine and black; and with theſe he may alſo touch the iris of the eye (if brown or hazel), making a broad ſhadow, cauſed by the eye-laſh. Red teints of vermilion, carmine, and lake, will execute the corners of the eye properly; but if the eyelids are too red, they will have a diſagreeable ſore appearance. The pupil of the eye muſt be made of pure lamp-black: between this and the lower part of the iris, the light will catch very ſtrong, but it muſt not be made too ſudden, but be gently diffuſed round the pupil till it is loſt in ſhade. When the eye-balls are ſufficiently prepared, the ſhining ſpeck muſt be made with a pure white crayon, which ſhould be firſt broken to a point, and then laid on firm; but as it is poſſible they may be defective in neatneſs, they ſhould be corrected with a pin, taking off the redundant parts, by which means they may be formed as neat as can be required.

The difficulty with reſpect to the noſe, is to preſerve the lines properly determined, and at the ſame time ſo artfully blended into the cheek, as to expreſs its projection, and yet no real line to be perceptible upon a cloſe examination; in ſome circumſtances it ſhould be quite blended with the cheek, which appears behind it, and determined entirely with a ſlight touch of red chalk. The ſhadow cauſed by the noſe is generally the darkeſt in the whole face, partaking of no reflection from its ſurrounding parts. Carmine and brown ochre, carmine and blacks, and ſuch brilliant crayons will compoſe it beſt.

The ſtudent having before prepared the lips with the ſtrongeſt lake and carmine, &c. muſt with theſe colours make them completely correct; and when finiſhing, introduce the ſtrong vermilions, but with great caution, as they are extremely predominant. This, if properly touched, will give the lips an appearance equal, if not ſuperior, to thoſe executed in oils, notwithſtanding the ſeeming ſuperiority the latter has by means of glazing (A), of which the former is entirely deſtitute.

When the ſtudent paints the neck, he ſhould avoid expreſſing the muſcles too ſtrong in the ſtem, nor ſhould the bones appear too evident on the cheſt, as both have an unpleaſing effect, denoting a violent agitation of the body; a circumſtance ſeldom neceſſary to expreſs in portrait painting. The moſt neceſſary part to be expreſſed, and which ſhould ever be obſerved, (even in the moſt delicate ſubjects), is a ſtrong marking juſt above the place where the collar bones unite; and if the head is much thrown over the ſhoulders, ſome notice ſhould be taken of the large muſcle that riſes from behind the ear, and is inſerted into the pit between the collar bones. All inferior muſcles ſhould be, in general, quite avoided. The ſtudent will find this caution neceſſary, as moſt ſubjects, eſpecially thin perſons, have the muſcles of the neck much more evident than would be judicious to imitate. As few necks are too long, it may be neceſſary to give ſome addition to the ſtem, a fault on the other ſide being quite unpardonable, nothing being more ungraceful than a ſhort neck. In colouring the neck, let the ſtudent preſerve the ſtem of a pearly hue, and the light not ſo ſtrong as on the cheſt. If any part of the breaſt appears, its tranſparency muſt alſo be expreſſed by pearly teints; but the upper part of the cheſt ſhould be coloured with beautiful vermilions delicately blended with the other.

Of the Drapery. Dark blue, purple, black, pink, and all kinds of red draperies alſo, ſhould be firſt tinged with carmine, which will render the colours much more brilliant than any other method; over this ſhould be laid on the paper the middle teint (a medium between the light and dark teints), of which the drapery is to be painted, except the dark maſſes of ſhadow, which ſhould be laid on at firſt as deep as poſſible; theſe, ſweetened with the finger, being deſtitute of the ſmaller folds, will exhibit a maſterly breadth, which the leſſer folds when added ought by no means to deſtroy. With the light and dark teints, the ſmaller parts are next to be made with freedom, executing as much with the crayon, and as little with the finger, as poſſible; in each fold touching the laſt ſtroke with the crayon, which ſtroke the finger muſt never touch. In the caſe of reflections, the ſimple touch of the crayon will be too harſh, therefore fingering will be neceſſary afterwards, as reflected lights are always more gentle than thoſe which are direct. With reſpect to reflections in general, they muſt always partake of the ſame colour as the object reflecting, but in the caſe of ſingle figures, it may be uſeful to make ſome particular obſervations.

In a blue drapery, let the reflections be of a greeniſh caſt; in green draperies make them of a yellow teint; in yellow, of an orange; in orange, reflect a reddiſh caſt; all reds, ſomething of their own nature, but inclined to the yellow: black ſhould have a reddiſh reflection; the reflection of a reddiſh teint will alſo preſent purples to the beſt advantage.

Of whatever colour the drapery is, the reflection on the face muſt partake thereof, otherwiſe the picture,

(A) The method with which painters in oils expreſs tranſparency in the lips is, by painting them firſt with light vermilion teints, and, when dry, touching them over with pure lake.

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ture, like paintings on glaſs, will have but a gaudy effect.

Linen, lace, fur, &c. ſhould be touched ſpiritedly with the crayon, fingering very little, except the latter; and the laſt touches, even of this, like all other parts, ſhould be executed with the crayon, without ſweetening with the finger.

The methods above recommended have been practiſed by the moſt celebrated crayon-painters, whoſe works have been held in public eſtimation; but the knowledge of, and ability to execute, each ſeparate part with brilliancy and truth, will be found very inſufficient to conſtitute a complete painter, without his judgment enables him to unite them with each other, by correctneſs of drawing, propriety of light and ſhadow, and harmony of colouring. In order to accompliſh this, the ſtudent ſhould carefully avoid finiſhing one part in particular, till he has properly conſidered the connection it is to have with the reſt. The neglect of this is the principal reaſon why the performances of indifferent painters are ſo deſtitute of what is termed breadth, ſo conſpicuouſly beautiful in the works of great maſters. It muſt be granted, that this obſervation relates more particularly to large compoſitions, where a diverſity of figures requires ſuch a judicious diſpoſition, that each may aſſiſt in the combination of a kind of univerſal harmony; yet, even in portrait-painting, the ſtudent ſhould be particularly attentive to obſerve this idea of breadth, if he is deſirous of acquiring that importance and dignity which conſtitutes excellence in painting.

Of the Materials. The perfection of the crayons conſiſts, in a great meaſure, in their ſoftneſs; for it is impoſſible to execute a brilliant picture with them if they are otherwiſe; on which account great care ſhould be obſerved in the preparing them, to prevent their being hard. In all compoſitions, flake-white and white-lead ſhould be wholly rejected, becauſe the ſlightest touch with either of theſe would unavoidably turn black.

The uſual objection to crayon-paintings is, that they are ſubject to change; but whenever this happens, it is entirely owing to an injudicious uſe of the above-mentioned whites, which will ſtand only in oils. To obviate the bad effects ariſing from the uſe of ſuch crayons, let the ſtudent make uſe of common whiting prepared in the following manner.

Take a large veſſel of water, put the whiting into it, and mix them well together; let this ſtand about half a minute, then pour off the top into another veſſel, and throw the gritty ſediment away; let what is prepared reſt about a minute, and then pour it off as before, which will purify the whiting and render it free from all dirt and grittineſs. When this is done, let the whiting ſettle, and then pour the water from it; after which, lay it on the chalk to dry, and keep it for uſe, either for white crayons, or the purpoſe of preparing teints with other colours, for with this all other teints may be ſafely prepared. If the ſtudent chooſes to make crayons of the whiting immediately after it is waſhed, it is not neceſſary to dry it on the chalk, for it may be mixed inſtantly with any other colour, which will ſave conſiderable trouble. All colours of a heavy or gritty nature, eſpecially blue verditer, muſt be purified by waſhing after this method.

The ſtudent muſt be provided with a large, flexible pallet-knife, a large ſtone and muller to levigate the colours, two or three large pieces of chalk to abſorb the moiſture from the colours after they are levigated, a piece of flat glaſs to prevent the moiſture from being abſorbed too much, till the colours are rolled into form, and veſſels for water, ſpirits, &c. as neceſſity and convenience ſhall direct.

I. Reds. It is rather difficult to procure either good carmine or good lake. Good carmine is inclined to the vermilion teint, and good lake to the carmine teint. The carmine crayons are prepared in the following manner.

1. Carmine. As their texture is inclinable to hardneſs, inſtead of grinding and rolling them, take a ſufficient quantity of carmine, lay it upon the grinding-ſtone, mix it with a levigating knife with ſpirit of wine till it become ſmooth and even. The chalk-ſtone being ready, lay the colour upon it to abſorb the ſpirit; but be careful that it is laid on in a proper ſtate for painting. If it is levigated too thin, the crayons will be too flat; and if too thick, it will occaſion a waſte of colour, by their adhering to the pallet-knife; but practice will render the proper degree of conſiſtency familiar. The ſimple colour being prepared, the next ſtep is to compoſe the different teints by a mixture with whiting; the proportion to be obſerved conſiſting of 20 gradations to one, which may be clearly underſtood by the following directions. Take ſome of the ſimple colour, and levigate it with ſpirit of wine, adding about one part of waſhed whiting to three parts of carmine, of which, when properly incorporated, make two parcels. The next gradation ſhould be compoſed of equal quantities of carmine and whiting, of which four crayons may be made. The third compoſition ſhould have one fourth carmine and three fourths whiting; of this make ſix crayons, which will be a good proportion for the reſt. The laſt teint ſhould be made of whiting, very faintly tinged with carmine, of which make about eight crayons, which will complete the above-mentioned proportion. As theſe compound teints are levigated, they are to be laid immediately upon the chalk, that the moiſture may be abſorbed to the proper degree of dryneſs for forming into crayons, which may be known by its loſing the greater part of its adheſive quality when taken into the hand; if the conſiſtency is found to be right, it may be then laid upon the glaſs, which having no pores, will prevent the moiſture from being carried off before it is convenient to form it into crayons, otherwiſe the crayons would be full of cracks and very brittle, which will be a great inconvenience when they are uſed in painting.

2. Lake. This is a colour very apt to be hard; to prevent which the ſtudent muſt obſerve the following particulars. Take about half the quantity of lake intended for the crayons, and grind it very fine with ſpirit of wine; let it dry, and then pulverize it, which is eaſily done if the lake is good; then take the other half, and grind it with ſpirits, after which mix it with the pulverized lake, and lay it out directly in crayons on the chalk. This colour will not bear rolling. The ſimple colour being thus prepared, proceed with the compound crayons as directed before, and in the ſame degrees of gradation as the carmine teints.

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3. Vermilion. The beſt is inclined to the carmine teint. Nothing is required to prepare this colour more than to mix it on the ſtone with ſoft water or ſpirits, after which it may be rolled into crayons. The different teints are produced by a mixture of the ſimple colour with whiting, according to the proportion already given.

II. Blues. 1. Pruſſian blue is a colour very apt to bind, and is rendered ſoft with more difficulty than carmine and lake. The ſame method of preparation is to be followed with this as is directed with reſpect to lake, only it is neceſſary to grind a larger quantity of the pure colour, as it is chiefly uſed for painting draperies. The different teints may be made according to neceſſity, or the fancy of the painter. 2. Blue verditer is a colour naturally gritty, and therefore it is neceſſary to waſh it well. Its particles are ſo coarſe as to require ſome binding matter to unite them, otherwiſe the crayons will never adhere together. To accompliſh this, take a quantity ſufficient to form two or three crayons, to which add a piece of flaked plaſter of Paris about the ſize of a pea; mix theſe well together, and form the crayons upon the chalk. This blue is extremely brilliant, and will be of great uſe in heightening draperies, &c. The teints muſt be formed with whiting as directed in the former inſtances, and are highly ſerviceable for painting fleſh, to produce thoſe pearly teints ſo beautiful in crayon pictures. It is not neceſſary to mix the compounds with ſpirits, as clear water will be ſufficient.

III. Greens. Brilliant greens are produced with great difficulty. In Switzerland, they have a method of making them far ſuperior to ours. We uſually take yellow ochre, and after grinding it with ſpirits, mix it with the powder of Pruſſian blue, then temper it with a knife, and lay the crayons on the chalk, without rolling them. Inſtead of this, ſome uſe king's yellow mixed with Pruſſian blue, and others brown ochre and Pruſſian blue. The crayons made of the two laſt may be rolled. Various teints may be produced by theſe colours, according to fancy or neceſſity; ſome to partake more of the blue, and others of the yellow.

IV. Yellows. 1. King's yellow is the moſt uſeful and the moſt brilliant, levigated with ſpirit of wine, to compoſe the different teints as before directed. 2. Yellow ochre, and Naples yellow ground with ſpirits, will make uſeful crayons. 3. Orange is produced with king's yellow and vermilion ground together with ſpirits, and the teints formed as in other caſes, but no great quantity of them is required.

V. Browns. 1. Cullen's earth is a fine dark brown. After ſix or eight of the ſimple crayons are prepared, ſeveral rich compound teints may be produced from it, by a mixture with carmine, in various degrees. Black, carmine, and this colour, mixed together, make uſeful teints for painting hair; ſeveral gradations may be produced from each of theſe by a mixture with whiting. Roman or brown ochre is an excellent colour, either ſimple or compounded with carmine. Whiting tinged in ſeveral degrees with either of theſe, will prove very ſerviceable in painting. 2. Umber may be treated in juſt the ſame manner; only it is neceſſary to levigate it with ſpirit of wine.

VI. Purples. Pruſſian blue ground with ſpirits and mixed with pulverized lake, will produce a good purple. Carmine, thus mixed with Pruſſian blue, will produce a purple ſomething different from the former. Various teints may be made from either of theſe compounds by a mixture with whiting.

VII. Black. 1. Lamp-black is the only black that can be uſed with ſafety, as all others are ſubject to mildew; but as good lamp-black is very ſcarce, the ſtudent will, perhaps, find it moſt expedient to make it himſelf; the proceſs of which is as follows: Provide a tin cone, fix it over a lamp at ſuch a height that the flame may juſt reach the cone for the ſoot to gather within it. When a ſufficient quantity is collected, take it out, and burn all the greaſe from it in a crucible. It muſt then be ground with ſpirits, and laid on the chalk to abſorb the moiſture. Various gray teints may be formed from this by a mixture with whiting, as mentioned in former inſtances.— 2. Vermilion mixed with carmine: this is a compoſition of great uſe, and teints made from this with whiting will be found to be very ſerviceable. 3. Carmine and black is another good compound, of which five or ſix gradations ſhould be made, ſome partaking more of the black, and others having the carmine moſt predominant, beſides ſeveral teints by a mixture with whiting. 4. Vermilion and black is alſo a very uſeful compound, from which ſeveral different teints ſhould be made. 5. Pruſſian blue and black is another good compound, and will be found of ſingular ſervice in painting draperies.

It is impoſſible to lay down rules for the forming every teint neceſſary in compoſing a ſet of crayons, there being many accidental compoſitions, entirely dependent on fancy and opinion. The ſtudent ſhould make it a rule to ſave the leavings of his colours; for of theſe he may form various teints, which will occaſionally be uſeful.

Of Rolling the Crayons, and diſpoſing them for painting. The different compoſitions of colours muſt be cut into a proper magnitude, after they are prepared, in order to be rolled into paſtils, for the convenience of uſing them. Each crayon ſhould be formed in the left hand with the ball of the right, firſt formed cylindrically, and then tapering at each end. If the compoſition is too dry, dip the finger in water; if too wet, the compoſition muſt be laid upon the chalk again to abſorb more of the moiſture. The crayons ſhould be rolled as quick as poſſible; and when finiſhed, muſt be laid upon the chalk again, to abſorb all remaining moiſture. After the gradation of teints from one colour is formed, the ſtone ſhould be well ſcraped and cleanſed with water before it is uſed for another colour.

When the ſet of crayons is completed according to the rules preſcribed, they ſhould be arranged in claſſes for the convenience of painting with them. Some thin drawers, divided into a number of partitions, is the moſt convenient method of diſpoſing them properly. The crayons ſhould be depoſited according to the ſeveral gradations of light. The bottom of the partitions muſt be covered with bran, as a bed for the colours; becauſe it not only preſerves them clean, but prevents their breaking.

The box made uſe of when the ſtudent paints ſhould be

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be about a foot ſquare, with nine partitions. In the upper corner on the left hand (ſuppoſing the box to be in the lap when he paints), let him place the black and gray crayons, thoſe being the moſt ſeldom uſed; in the ſecond partition, the blues; in the third, the greens and browns; in the firſt partition on the left hand of the ſecond row, the carmines, lakes, vermilions, and all deep reds; the yellows and orange in the middle, and the pearly teints next; and as theſe laſt are of a very delicate nature, they muſt be kept very clean, that the gradations of colour may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed; in the lower row, let the firſt partition contain a piece of fine linen rag to wipe the crayons with while they are uſing; the ſecond, all the pure lake and vermilion teints; and the other partition may contain thoſe teints which, from their complex nature, cannot be claſſed with any of the former.

CRAZE MILL, or *CRAZING Mill*, a mill in all reſpects like a griſt-mill to grind corn, and ſo called by the tin miners, who uſe it to grind their tin, which is yet too great after trambling.

CREAM, a general name applicable to all ſubſtances that ſeparate from a liquor, and are collected upon its ſurface; but more particularly applied to the following.

CREAM of Lime, is that part of the lime which had been diſſolved in the water in its cauſtic ſtate, but having again attracted ſome fixed air from the atmoſphere, becomes incapable of ſolution, and therefore ſeparates from the water in the mild ſtate of chalk or limeſtone.

CREAM of Milk, generally called ſimple *cream*, is the moſt oily part of the milk; which being naturally only mixed, and not diſſolved in the reſt, ſoon ſeparates from them, as being ſpecifically lighter; after which it collects on the ſurface; from which it is generally ſkimmed, to complete the diſengagement of the oily parts, for the purpoſe of making butter, from the caſeous and ſerous parts. See AGRICULTURE *Index*. Cream of milk is not only an agreeable aliment when recent, but alſo uſeful in medicine as a lenient, when applied to tetters and eryſipelas attended with pain and proceeding from an acrid humour.

CREAM of Tartar, the trivial name of the ſupertartrate or the acidulous tartrate of potaſh. It is alſo denominated *cryſtals* of *tartar*. In this ſalt there is an exceſs of the tartaric acid. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

CREAT, in the manege, an uſher to a riding maſter; or a gentleman bred in the academy, with intent to make himſelf capable of teaching the art of riding the great horſe.

CREATION, in its primary import, ſeems to ſignify the bringing into being ſomething which did not before exiſt. The term is therefore moſt generally applied to the original production of the materials whereof the viſible world is compoſed. It is alſo, however, uſed in a ſecondary or ſubordinate ſenſe, to denote thoſe ſubſequent operations of the Deity upon the matter ſo produced, by which the whole ſyſtem of nature and all the primitive genera of things received their form, qualities, and laws.

There is no ſubject concerning which there have been more diſputes than this of creation. It is certain that none of the ancient philoſophers had the ſmalleſt idea of its being poſſible to produce a ſubſtance out of nothing, or that even the power of the Deity himſelf could work without any materials to work upon. Hence ſome of them, among whom was Ariſtotle, aſſerted that the world was eternal both as to its matter and form. Others, though they believed that the gods had given the world its form, yet imagined the materials whereof it is compoſed to have been eternal. Indeed the opinions of the ancients, who had not the benefit of revelation, were on this head ſo confuſed and contradictory, that nothing of any conſequence can be deduced from them. The freethinkers of our own and of former ages have denied the poſſibility of creation, as being a contradiction to reaſon; and of conſequence have taken the opportunity from thence to diſcredit revelation. On the other hand many defenders of the ſacred writings have aſſerted, that creation out of nothing, ſo far from being a contradiction to reaſon, is not only probable, but demonſtrably certain. Nay, ſome have gone ſo far as to ſay, that from the very inſpection of the viſible ſyſtem of nature, we are able to infer that it was once in a ſtate of non-exiſtence. It would be impoſſible for us, however, to enter into the multiplicity of arguments uſed on both ſides; nor can we pretend to ſettle it, as the ſubject is confeſſedly above human comprehenſion.

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I What works of creation God is known to have performed.

As to the works of creation which the Deity is known to us to have performed; all other things, beſide himſelf, are his creatures. Men and other animals that inhabit the earth and the ſeas; all the immenſe varieties of herbs and plants of which the vegetable kingdom conſiſts; the globe of the earth, and the expanſe of the ocean; theſe we know to have been produced by his power. Beſides the terreſtrial world which we inhabit, we ſee many other material bodies diſpoſed around it in the wide extent of ſpace. The moon, which is in a particular manner connected with our earth, and even dependent upon it; the ſun, and the other planets with their ſatellites, which, like the earth, circulate round the ſun, and appear to derive from him life and heat; thoſe bodies which we call fixed ſtars, and conſider as illuminating and cheriſhing with heat each its peculiar ſyſtem of planets; and the comets which at certain periods ſurpriſe us with their appearance, and the nature of whoſe connection with the general ſyſtem of nature, or with any particular ſyſtem of planets, we cannot pretend to have fully diſcovered;—theſe are ſo many more of the Deity's works, from the contemplation of which we cannot but conceive the moſt awful ideas of his creative power.

Matter, however, whatever the varieties of form under which it is made to appear, the relative diſpoſition of its parts, or the motions communicated to it, is but an inferior part of the works of creation. We believe ourſelves to be animated with a much higher principle than brute matter; in viewing the manners and economy of the lower animals, we can ſcarcely avoid acknowledging even them to conſiſt of ſomething more than various modifications of matter and motion. The other planetary bodies which ſeem to be in circumſtances nearly analogous to thoſe of the earth, are ſurely, as well as it, deſtined for the habitations of rational,

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rational, intelligent beings. The existence of intelligences of a higher order than man, though infinitely below the Deity, appears extremely probable.—Of those spiritual beings called Angels we have express intimation in Scripture; (see the article ANGELS). Such are our notions concerning the existence of beings essentially distinct from matter, and in their nature far superior to it; these, too, must be the creatures of the Deity, and of his works of creation the noblest part. But the limits of creation we must not pretend to define. How far the regions of space extend, or how they are filled, we know not. How the planetary world, the sun and the fixed stars, are occupied, we do not pretend to have ascertained. We are even ignorant how wide a diversity of forms, what an infinity of living animated beings may inhabit our own globe. So confined is our knowledge of creation; yet so grand, so awful, that part which our narrow underderstandings can comprehend!

2 The periods of time at which God executed his works of creation.

Concerning the periods of time at which the Deity executed his several works of creation, it cannot be pretended that mankind have had opportunities of receiving very particular information. From viewing the phenomena of nature, and considering the general laws by which they are regulated, we cannot draw any conclusive or even plausible inference with respect to the precise period at which the universe must have begun to exist. We know not, nor can we hope to ascertain, whether the different systems of planets circulating round our sun and the other fixed stars, were all created at one period, or each at a different period. We cannot even determine, from any thing that appears on the face of nature, whether our earth was not created at a later period than any of her fellow planets which revolve round the same sun. Astronomers are, from time to time, making new discoveries in the heavens; and it is impossible to say whether some of these successive discoveries may not be owing to successive creations.

Philosophers have, indeed, formed some curious conjectures concerning the antiquity of the earth, from the appearances of its surface, and from the nature and disposition of its interior strata. The beds of lava in the neighbourhood of volcanoes have afforded ground for some calculations, which, though they do not fix the period of the earth's origin, are yet thought to prove that period to have been much more remote than the earliest age of sacred or profane history. * In the neighbourhood of Mount Ætna, or on the sides of that extensive mountain, there are beds of lava covered with a considerable thickness of earth; and at least another, again, which though known from ancient monuments and historical records to have issued from the volcano at least 2000 years ago, is still almost entirely destitute of soil and vegetation: in one place a pit has been cut through seven different strata of lava; and these have been found separated from each other by almost as many thick beds of rich earth. Now, from the fact that a stratum of lava 2000 years old is yet scantily covered with earth, it has been inferred by the ingenious canon Recupero, who has laboured 30 years on the natural history of Mount Ætna, that the lowest of these strata which have been found divided by so many beds of earth, must have been emitted from the volcanic crater at least 14,000 years ago; and consequently that the age of the earth, whatever it may exceed this term of years, cannot possibly be less. Other facts of a similar nature likewise concur to justify this conjecture.

* *Brydone's Tour through Sicily and Malta.*

But all these facts are as nothing in comparison with the long series which would be requisite to establish such a conjecture as an incontrovertible truth. And besides, any evidence which they can be supposed to afford, may be very easily explained away. The bed of lava which in the course of 2000 years has scarce acquired a covering of earth, is confessed to stand in a situation in which it is exposed to the spray of the sea, and to all the violence of winds and rains. In such a situation, it cannot be thought that a thick bed of earth could, in any length of time, be formed on it: we might as well expect depth of soil, and vigorous vegetation, on the craggy cliffs of hills. In crevices here and there over it, in which the earth has been retained, there is a depth of soil which supports large trees. This fact, therefore, admits of no such inference as that which Recupero has pretended to deduce from it. The local circumstances, again, of the seven strata that have been pierced through, are very different. They are situated at Jaci Reale, in a situation where showers of ashes from the volcano must frequently fall; and where whatever falls must be naturally retained and accumulated:—so that seven beds of earth might be formed on these seven strata of lava much sooner than one thin layer could be formed on the stratum above mentioned. In other places, some of which are within the influence of the same awful volcano, and some adjacent to that of Vesuvius, soil is known to have accumulated on lava with the help of showers of ashes from the volcanoes, with sufficient rapidity to justify this supposition concerning the coverings of the strata at Jaci Reale. From the observation of these phenomena of volcanoes, therefore, no facts have been gained that can help us to determine with any certainty the earth's age. And so wide is the variety of circumstances to be here taken into account, that it cannot be hoped that this *desideratum* will be ever supplied from that quarter. See farther the article EARTH.

But by examining the composition and arrangement of the interior strata of the globe, and by viewing the general appearance of its surface, the ingenuity of philosophers has, with better hopes, sought to guess at the length of time during which it must have existed. Observing the exuviæ of sea and land animals deposited at profound depths under ground, and accompanied with vegetable bodies in a good state of preservation, as well as with oleaginous and bituminous substances which have in all probability been formed from vegetable bodies; and remarking at the same time with what confusion the other materials, composing the crust of this terrestrial ball, are, in various instances not arranged, but cast together; they have concluded that the earth must have existed for many an age before the earliest events recorded in sacred or profane history, and must have undergone many a revolution, before it settled in its present state. Such at least are the ideas which Buffon and M. de Luc, and also Dr Hutton †, seem desirous to impress us with concerning its changes and antiquity. It will be only doing justice to these philosophers to acknowledge, that they

† *Ed. Phil. Trans.* vol. i.

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they have collected, with amazing induſtry, almoſt every fact in the natural hiſtory of the earth that can ſerve to give plauſibility to their conjectures. But ſtill their facts, beſides the inconſiſtency of many of them, are by far too ſcanty to warrant the concluſions which they have deduced from them. See the article EARTH.

3 Accounts of the antiquity of the earth from profane hiſtory.

The voice of profane hiſtory is far from being deciſive concerning the age of the world; nor is it to be expected that it ſhould. When the earth firſt aroſe into exiſtence, we can be at no loſs to conceive that mankind were not ſpectators of the event; and we may naturally imagine that the firſt human beings who occupied it, would be too much buſied in furniſhing themſelves with the immediate neceſſaries and the conveniences of life, to think of curious reſearches into its origin, or even their own. Profane hiſtory is not, however, without accounts of the age of the earth and the origin of human ſociety; but thoſe accounts are various and contradictory.—Plato, in his dialogue entitled *Critias*, mentions his celebrated Atalantis to have been buried in the ocean about 9000 years before the age in which he wrote. He aſſerts it to have been well known to the Egyptian prieſts and to the contemporary inhabitants of Attica. The learned world, indeed, generally agree in regarding his accounts of that iſland as a fiction, which the author himſelf did not deſign to be underſtood in any other light: ſome, however, are more credulous, and others go ſo far as to acknowledge doubts: and if the exiſtence of ſuch an iſland, at a period ſo diſtant, be admitted as a fact worthy of any credit, the age of the world may be reckoned as at leaſt conſiderably more than 12,000 years. The pretenſions of the Chineſe repreſent the world as ſome hundreds of thouſands of years older: and we are alſo told * that the aſtronomical records of the ancient Chaldeans carried back the origin of ſociety to a very remote period; no leſs than 473,000 years. The Egyptian prieſts reckoned between Menes and Sethon 341 generations†. But theſe accounts are ſo diſcordant, and ſo ſlenderly ſupported by evidence, that we cannot heſitate to reject them all as falſe; the fables of hiſtorians ſcarce merit ſo much attention as the hypotheſes of philoſophers.

* *Univerſal Hiſt.* vol. i. *Preface.*

† *Herod.* l. ii. c. 142.

4 The era of the creation as ſtated in ſacred hiſtory.

When from profane we turn to ſacred hiſtory, we may reaſonably expect more accurate and more credible information concerning the antiquity of the globe. As the authenticity of the Holy Scriptures is ſo incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed, wherever they afford evidence concerning any fact, that evidence muſt be regarded as deciſive. A fact ſo important as the preſent may be thought highly worthy of a place in them. Unfortunately, however, even the ſacred writings do not fix the era of the creation with ſufficient accuracy; they leave us, in ſome meaſure, at a loſs whether to extend what they ſay concerning that era to the whole contents of created ſpace, or to confine it to our earth and its inhabitants: different copies give different dates; and even in the ſame copy, different parts relating the ſame events, either diſagree or do not ſpeak deciſively with regard to the length of the time in which they paſſed.—In the beginning of the ſixth chapter of the firſt book of Kings, the time which elapſed between the departure of the children of Iſrael from Egypt, and the period at which Solomon laid the foundation of his temple, is ſaid to have been 480 years: and in the book of Judges again, the age of all the patriarchs amounts to 592 years‡. The Hebrew copy of the Bible, which we Chriſtians for good reaſons conſider as the moſt authentic, dates the creation of the world 3944 years before the Chriſtian era. The Samaritan Bible, again, fixes the era of the creation 4305 years before the birth of Chriſt. And the Greek tranſlation, known by the name of the *Septuagint* verſion of the Bible, gives 5270 as the number of the years which intervened between thoſe two periods. As many other different calculations of the years contained in the ſame intermediate ſpace of time, might be formed upon other dates in the ſacred volume, differing in the different copies. By comparing the various dates in the ſacred writings, examining how theſe have come to diſagree and to be diverſified in different copies, endeavouring to reconcile the moſt authentic profane with ſacred chronology, and eking out deficiency of dates and evidence with conjecture; ſome ingenious men have formed ſchemes of chronology, plauſible indeed, but not ſupported by ſufficient authorities, which they would gladly perſuade us to receive in preference to any of thoſe above mentioned. Uſher makes out from the Hebrew Bible 4004 years, as the term between the creation and the birth of Chriſt: Joſephus, according to Dr Wills and Mr Whiſton, makes it 4658 years; and M. Pezron, with the help of the Septuagint, extends it to 5872 years. Uſher's ſyſtem is the moſt generally received.

‡ *Univerſal Hiſt.* vol. i. *Preface.*

But though theſe different ſyſtems of chronology are ſo inconſiſtent and ſo ſlenderly ſupported, yet the differences among them are ſo inconſiderable in compariſon with thoſe which ariſe before us when we contemplate the chronology of the Chineſe, the Chaldeans, and the Egyptians, and they agree ſo well with the general information of authentic hiſtory and with the appearances of nature and of ſociety, that they may be conſidered as nearly fixing the true period of the creation of the earth.

5 No information on this head to be obtained from any other ſource but ſacred hiſtory.

Profane hiſtory cannot be expected to contain an account of the firſt events which paſſed after the creation of the ſubſtances of which the univerſe conſiſts. The conjectures of ancient philoſophers on this ſubject cannot merit attention; for vague tradition, and the appearances of nature, the only data on which they could proceed in forming their conjectures, could admit of no fair injunctions concerning thoſe events; and beſides, inſtead of liſtening to tradition, or examining the appearances of nature, they generally conſulted imagination, and imagination alone, on ſuch occaſions. Here, therefore, we have nothing to hope but from the ſacred writings. From them we may expect hiſtorical information, not to be obtained from any other ſource. What they communicate is communicated on divine authority; and it is only on ſuch authority we can receive any accounts concerning the creation.

6 Hints concerning the creation in the book of Job.

A few hints in the book of Job afford the earlieſt information to be found in the ſcriptures concerning the creation of the world. "Where waſt thou when I laid the foundations of the earth, when the morning ſtars ſang together, and all the ſons of God ſhouted for joy *?" "Behold, he put no truſt in his ſervants,

* Chap. xxxviii. and ver. 4. & 7.

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and his angels he charged with folly *." "And unto man (or to Adam), he said, Behold, the fear of the Lord is wisdom, and to depart from evil is understanding †." These passages rather hint at than relate facts. But it has been inferred from them, that there were stars in the firmament, and angels in heaven, before the formation of our globe; that angels as well as man have fallen; and that other injunctions, besides that of abstaining from the forbidden fruit, were laid on Adam when he was first placed in Paradise ‡. If the interpretation be admitted as just, the first of these facts may be considered as forming, as it were, a point with which our knowledge of the works of the Deity commences: the period of time at which the second event took place is not specified: and the precept to Adam must no doubt have been uttered after he was formed and inspired with intelligence. Yet with regard to the first of the above quotations from the book of Job, the only one that is of importance to us at present, it must be acknowledged, that it has been differently understood. The morning stars might sing together, and the sons of God shout for joy, on account both of their own creation and of the creation of the earth at one time; and yet Job, having been himself made a conscious being at a much later period, not be able to tell where he was at that era of exulting gratitude and congratulation.

* Chap iv. ver. 18.
† Ch. xxviii. ver. 28.
‡ *Milne's Lectures*, Lect. I.

7 Mosaic account of the creation.

Moses relates, that || "in the beginning God created the heavens and the earth. And the earth (continues he) was without form and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep: and the spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters. And God said, Let there be light; and there was light. And God saw the light, that it was good: and God divided the light from the darkness. And God called the light day, and the darkness he called night: and the evening and the morning were the first day." During five succeeding days the work of creation was carried on. On the second day, a firmament was made to separate the waters, and that firmament called *heaven*: on the third day the waters were collected into seas, and the land from which the waters retired caused to produce grass and trees and other plants: on the fourth day, lights were made to appear in the firmament; to enlighten the earth, to divide the day from the night, and to distinguish time into seasons and years: on the fifth day the seas were peopled with whales and other fishes, and the air with fowls: on the sixth day, the earth was furnished with reptiles and quadrupeds of all kinds; and on the same day, the first human pair, the progenitors of all the human race, were created in God's own image.

|| Gen. i. 1.

8 Difficulties occurring in the above account.

Some difficulties occur in comparing this account of the creation with the laws which appear at present to regulate the system of nature. We find it hard to conceive how the earth, while yet a stranger to the influence of the sun, could experience the vicissitude of day and night; and are astonished at the rapidity with which trees and herbage first overspread its surface. The condition of matter when the earth was without form and void, and the operation of the spirit of God on the face of the waters are equally mysterious.

9 Attempts to solve those difficulties. Dr Burnet's theory.

Some ingenious men have eagerly laboured to remove these difficulties. Among these is Dr Burnet, whose theory of the earth has now been long considered as fanciful and ill-founded. He supposes all the celestial bodies, even the sun and all the other planets of the solar system, to have existed long before the earth. The chaos on which the spirit of God moved, consisted, according to him, of the first principles from which all terrestrial bodies have been formed. When those laws by which the material world is regulated first began to operate on the mass, he supposes that its grosser and heavier parts would sink towards the centre, and there form a solid ball. Around this solid ball two species of particles would still float together in confusion. Of these he thinks one, being more volatile, would by degrees make its escape from the other, would leave it still recumbent on the solid centre, and spread around it in an atmosphere. The middle stratum he composes of aqueous and oleaginous fluids; and he makes no doubt, that after the air had made its escape, the levity of the oleaginous fluids would enable them to rise above the aqueous, and dispose themselves next the surface of the liquid mass. On them he supposes the impure atmosphere to have then deposited a quantity of terrene particles, sufficient to form, by intermixture with the oils, a thick crust of rich earth for the production of plants and herbage, and to afford an habitation to animals. This delicate shell he was careful not to furrow with seas or load with mountains: either of these would have reduced all to confusion. Such is his earth; and after moulding it with so much ingenuity, and into so happy a form, he contents himself, without venturing to use the same freedoms with the remaining part of Moses's account of the creation.

10 Objections to Dr Burnet's theory.

But Moses affords nothing that can be with any propriety used in the foundation of such a theory: he tells not whether the chaos consisted of those terrene, and aqueous, and oleaginous, and aerial particles which Dr Burnet finds in it; he confines not the seas within a crust of earth; nor does he inform us that the scenery of nature was not diversified by hills and vales. Besides, the author of this theory has, without any evidence, supposed matter to have been originally under the influence of laws very different from those by which it is at present regulated. Oil, indeed, while fluid, floats above water: but in a concrete state, it sinks in water like other solid bodies. If reduced into that state by combination with terrene matters, sufficient to render the mixture proper for the nourishment and production of vegetables, its specific gravity will be still greater, and it will consequently sink so much the sooner. How a concrete substance, consisting of earth and oil, could float on water, appears an inexplicable enigma. But we need not here take farther pains in combating and triumphing over this theory, which has long since fallen and sunk to its grave.

11 Mr Whiston's theory.

Mr Whiston treats both the scriptures and the laws of nature with greater reverence. Yet he certainly involves himself in no trifling difficulties in attempting to solve those which Moses presents. He supposes the sun, moon, and stars, to be all more ancient than the earth. The chaos from which the earth was formed he represents as having been originally the atmosphere of a comet. The six days of the creation he would persuade us to believe equal to six of our years:

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years: for he is of opinion, that the earth did not revolve daily round its axis, but only annually round its orbit, till after the fall of man.

On the first day or year, therefore, the more ponderous parts of the chaos were, according to this theory, conglomerated into an orb of earth, the chinks and interstices over that orb filled up with water, and the exterior part or atmosphere rarefied, so as to admit some faint glimmering of the rays of the sun.

On the second day, the atmosphere was diffused to its due extent around the earth, and reduced to a degree of rarity and purity which rendered it still more suitable for the transmission of light; the earth was still more consolidated; and the waters being almost entirely excluded from the interstices which they before occupied, were partly spread over the surface of the earth, and partly raised in vapour into the atmosphere or firmament.

On the third day, the earth's surface became so irregular, in one place rising into hills, in another sinking into vales, as to cause the waters, which were before equally diffused, to collect into seas and lakes, leaving large tracts of ground unoccupied. And no sooner was a part of the earth's surface left bare by the waters, than the general influence of the sun produced on it a rich covering of herbage, and all the different species of vegetables.

On the fourth day, the earth was rendered subject to the regular influence of the sun, moon, and stars.

On the fifth day or year, things were so far advanced, that fishes and fowls were now produced from the waters.

On the sixth day was the earth furnished with animals; and the lord of all the other animals, man, was now created.

12 Objections to Mr Whiston's theory.

Such is Mr Whiston's account of the phenomena of the Mosaic creation. But he likewise assumes much more than can be reasonably granted. The atmospere of a comet could not well be the primitive chaos: it is not an obscure, but a pellucid fluid; and its exterior strata, if of the same nature with the matter of our earth, must be scorified by its near approaches to the sun. Had the earth not begun to move round its axis till after the work of creation was completed, the immoderate degrees of heat and cold which its different parts would have alternately felt, would in all probability have proved fatal to both plants and animals. Even the most artful interpretation of Moses's words cannot represent him as meaning to inform us that the sun and moon were created at different periods. But philosophy will scarce permit us to imagine that the moon was formed before the earth. And therefore we cannot upon good grounds agree with Mr Whiston, that the creation of the earth was later than that of the other bodies of the solar system.

13 M. de Luc's theory and objections.

Among others who have endeavoured to explain the original formation of the earth, and the changes which it has undergone, is M. de Luc. This cosmologist, like Mr Whiston, thinks that the days of the creation were much longer periods of time than our present days. He seems to think that the earth had existed long before the Mosaic creation; but began at that era to experience new changes, and to be regulated by new laws: that all the different events described by Moses in his history of the creation, actually took place in the order in which he relates them; but that Moses's days are indefinite spaces of time, which must have been very long, but of which we cannot hope to ascertain the precise length. These are ingenious conjectures; but they do not appear necessary, nor are they justified by facts. For a fuller and more close investigation of this part of the subject, we must refer to the article EARTH: and shall now close the present article with a short explanation of what appears to us the most natural way of understanding Moses's account of the creation.

It has been conjectured *, with great probability, that the creation, of which Moses is the historian, was neither confined to the earth alone, nor extended to the whole universe. The relation which all the planets of the solar system bear to the same illuminating body countenances the conjecture, that they, together with the luminary by which they are enlightened were all created at one period: but it would perhaps be to conceive too meanly of the benevolence, wisdom, and active power of the Deity, to suppose that before that period these had never been exerted in any work of creation. Yet even here we have not demonstrative evidence.

* *Universal Hist.* vol. i. p. 85.

On the supposition that the whole solar system was created at once, which has at least the merit of doing no violence to the narrative of Moses, the creation of the sun and the other planets may be understood to have been carried on at the same time with the creation of the earth. In that case, even in the course of the first day, though not longer than our present days, those bodies might be reduced to such order, and their relative motions so far established, as to begin the distinction between light and darkness, day and night.

On the second day, we may naturally understand from Moses's narrative, that the atmosphere was purified, and the specific gravities of aqueous vapour and atmospheric air so adjusted, as to render the latter capable of supporting the former.

On the third day the waters were first collected into lakes and seas: but in what manner, we cannot well determine. Some call in the operation of earthquakes; others tell us, that when the earth was first formed, the exterior strata were, at different parts over its surface, of different specific gravities; and that the more ponderous parts now sunk nearer the common centre, while the lighter parts still remaining equally remote from it as before, formed islands, continents, hills, and mountains. But these are mere fancies; and we have no facts to offer in their stead. On the latter part of this day vegetables were caused to spring up over the earth. Their growth must have been much more rapid than we ever behold it now; but by what particular act of supernatural power that might be effected, we should in vain inquire.

On the fourth day the sun, moon, and stars, were made to appear. But according to the conjecture which we have mentioned, as plausible, though without ascribing to it the evidence of certain truth, those heavenly bodies are to be considered as having been created before this day. But they might now begin to exert their full influence on the earth in the same manner as they have since continued to do.

The creation of the inanimate world was now finished,

nished, and the earth prepared for the reception of animals. On the fifth day, therefore, were the living inhabitants of the air and the waters created.

On the sixth day the inferior animals inhabiting the earth were first created; and after that, the whole work was crowned by the creation of a male and female of the human species. To the account of the creation of the animals, nothing certain can be added in explanation of Moses's narrative. No more but one pair of the human species were at first created: the same economy might possibly be observed in the creation of the inferior animals.

CREBILLON, Prosper Joliot de, a French writer of tragedy, and usually ranked after Corneille and Racine, was born at Dijon in 1674. He was originally destined to the profession of the law, and placed at Paris with that view; but the impetuosity of his passions rendering him unfit for business, he was urged by some friends, who discerned very well his natural turn, to attempt dramatic compositions. He complied, but not till after many refusals; and gave at length a tragedy, which met with great success. He then marched on in the career he had begun, but was checked by a fit of love for an apothecary's daughter; which fit of love ended in marriage. His father, doubly enraged at his son for thus surrendering himself to the two demons of Love and Poetry, disinherited him; but falling sick some years after, in 1707, he re-established him in all his rights, and died. Crebillon was, however, little better for his acquisitions, the greatest part being probably wasted before they came; and thus, though high in fame, and at the prime of life, he still continued poor. He lost his wife in 1711, and fortune long frowned upon him, till at last he obtained a place in the French academy, and the employment of censor of the police. He was afterwards in more prosperous circumstances, which continued to the end of a long life. He died in 1762, at the age of 88, much regretted on account of his numerous virtues. He was of a temperament extremely robust, without which he could not have held out so long; for he ate prodigiously, and continued to the last so to do. He slept little, and lay as hard as if upon the floor; not from any pious principle of mortifying, but because he liked it. He was always surrounded with about 30 dogs and cats; and used to smoke a good deal of tobacco, to keep his room sweet against their exhalations. Whenever he was ill, he used to manage himself according to his own fancy and feelings; for he made a jest of physic and physicians. He was a dealer in *bon mots*. Being asked one day in full company, which of his works he thought the best? "I don't know (said he) which is my best production; but this (pointing to his son) is certainly my worst."

CRECY, Crescy, or Cressy. See Cressy.

CREDENTIALS, letters of recommendation and power, especially such as are given to ambassadors or public ministers, by the prince or state that sends them to foreign courts.

CREDIBILITY, a species of evidence, less indeed than absolute certainty or demonstration, but greater than mere possibility; it is nearly allied to probability, and seems to be a mean between possibility and demonstration.

CREDIT, in *Commerce*, a mutual trust or loan of merchandise or money, on the reputation of the probity and solvability of a dealer.

Credit is either public or private. Every trader ought to have some estate, stock, or portion of his own, sufficient to carry on the traffic he is engaged in: they should also keep their dealings within the extent of their capital, so that no disappointment in their returns may incapacitate them from supporting their credit. Yet traders of worth and judgment may sometimes lie under the necessity of borrowing money for carrying on their business to the best advantage; but then the borrower ought to be so just to his own reputation, and to his creditors, as to be well assured that he has sufficient effects within his power to pay off his obligations in due time. But if a trader should borrow money to the extent of his credit, and launch out into trade so as to employ it with the same freedom as if it was his own proper stock, such a way of management is very precarious, and may be attended with dangerous consequences. Merchants ought never to purchase their goods for exportation upon long credit, with intent to discharge the debt by the return of the same goods; for this has an injurious influence on trade several ways; and if any merchant has occasion to make use of his credit, it should always be for the borrowing of money, but never for the buying of goods; nor is the large credit given to wholesale traders a prudential or justifiable practice in trade.

The public credit of a nation is said to run high when the commodities of that nation find a ready vent, are sold at a good price, and when dealers may be safely trusted with them: also when lands and houses find ready purchasers; when money is to be borrowed at a low interest; when people think it safe and advantageous to venture large stocks in trade; and when notes, mortgages, &c. will pass for money.

Letters of Credit, are those given to persons in whom a merchant, &c. can trust, to take money of his correspondent abroad, in case he happens to need it.

Credit is also used for the currency which papers or bills have in the public or among dealers. In this sense credit is said to rise, when in negociating the shares of the company, they are received and sold at prices above *par*, or the standard of their first creation. Discredit is opposed to credit, and is used where money, bills, &c. fall below *par*.

Credit was also anciently a right which lords had over their vassals; consisting in this, that during a certain time they might oblige them to lend them money. In this sense, the duke of Brittany had credit during fifteen days on his own subjects, and those of the bishop of Nantes; and the bishop had the same credit or right among his subjects and those of that prince.

CREDITON, a market town in Devonshire, considerable for a good woollen manufactory; it is situated about 9 miles north-west of Exeter, in W. Long. 3. 50. and N. Lat. 50. 50.

CREDITOR, a person to whom any sum of money is due, either by obligation, promise, or otherwise. See Debt.

CREDULITY denotes a weakness of mind, by reason of which a person yields his assent to propositions

Credulity, Creech.

tions or facts, before he has considered their evidence.

CREECH, Thomas, eminent for his translations of ancient authors both in prose and verse, was son of Thomas Creech, and born near Sherborne in Dorsetshire in 1659. He was educated in grammar learning under Mr Curganven of Sherborne, to whom he afterwards dedicated a translation of one of Theocritus's Idylliums: and entered a commoner of Wadham college in Oxford in 1675. Wood tells us that his father was a gentleman; but Giles Jacob says, in his Lives and Characters of English poets, that his parents circumstances not being sufficient to afford him a liberal education, his disposition and capacity for learning raised him up a patron in Colonel Strangeways, whose generosity supplied that defect. Be that as it will, Creech distinguished himself much, and was accounted a good philosopher and poet, and a diligent student. June 13. 1683, he took the degree of master of arts, and not long after was elected probationer fellow of Allsouls college; to which, Jacob observes, the great reputation acquired by his translation of Lucretius recommended him. Wood tells us, that upon this occasion he gave singular proofs of his classical learning and philosophy before his examiners. He also took the degree of B. D. on the 18th of March 1696. He now began to be well known by the works he published; but Father Niceron observes, that they were of no great advantage to his fortune, since his circumstances were always indifferent. In 1699, having taken holy orders, he was presented by his college to the living of Welwynn in Hertfordshire; but this he had not long enjoyed before he put an end to his own life. The motives of this fatal catastrophe have been variously represented. The author of the *Nouvelles de la Republique des Lettres* informs us, that in the year 1700 Mr Creech fell in love with a woman who treated him with great neglect, though she was complaisant enough to several others. This affront he could not bear, and resolved not to survive it. Whereupon he shut himself up in his study, where he hanged himself about the end of June 1700, and was found in that situation three days after. The Poetical Register says nothing of the particular manner of his death, but only that he unfortunately made away with himself in the year 1701; and ascribes this fatal catastrophe of Mr Creech's life to the morosenes of his temper, which made him less esteemed than his great merit deserved, and engaged him in frequent animosities and disputes upon that account. But from an original letter of Arthur Charlett, preserved in the Bodleian library, it has lately been discovered, that this unhappy event was owing to a very different cause. There was a fellow collegian of whom Creech frequently borrowed money: but repeating his applications too often, he met one day with such a cold reception, that he retired in a fit of gloomy disgust, and in three days was found hanging in his study. Creech's principal performances are, 1. A translation of Lucretius. 2. A translation of Horace; in which, however, he has omitted some few odes. 3. The Idylliums of Theocritus, with Rapin's Discourse of Pastorals. 4. A translation of Manilius's Astronomicon. Besides translations of several parts of Virgil, Ovid, and Plutarch; printed in different collections.

Creed || Cremation.

CREED, a brief summary of the articles of a Christian's belief.

The most ancient form of creeds is that which goes under the name of the apostolic creed: besides this, there are several other ancient forms and scattered remains of creeds to be met with in the primitive records of the church. The first is the form of apostolical doctrine, collected by Origen; the second is a fragment of a creed preserved by Tertullian; the third remains of a creed is in the works of Cyprian; the fourth, a creed composed by Gregory Thaumaturgus, for the use of his own church; the fifth, the creed of Lucian the martyr; the sixth, the creed of the apostolical constitutions. Besides these scattered remains of the ancient creeds, there are extant some perfect forms, as those of Jerusalem, Cæsarea, Antioch, &c.

The most universal creeds are, the Apostolical, the Athanasian, and the Nicene creeds. See these articles.

These three creeds are used in the public offices of the church of England; and subscription to them is required of all the established clergy. Subscription to these was also required of the dissenting teachers, by the toleration act; but from which they are now relieved by 19 Geo. III.

CREEK, a part of a haven, where any thing is landed from the sea. So many landing places as there are in a harbour or port, so many creeks there are. It is also said to be a shore or bank whereon the water beats, running in a small channel from any part of the sea; from the Latin *crepido*. This word is used in the stat. 4 Hen. IV. c. 20. and 5 Eliz. c. 5.

CREENGLES. See Cringle.

CREEPER. See Certhia, Ornithology *Index*.

Creeper, in naval affairs, an instrument of iron resembling a grappling, having a *shank*, and four hooks or claws. It is used to throw into the bottom of any river or harbour, with a rope fastened to it, to hook and draw up any thing from the bottom which may have been lost. See Plate CL.

CRELLIUS, John, a famous Socinian, born in 1590, in a village near Noremberg. In 1612, he went into Poland, where the Unitarians had a school, in which he became professor of divinity, and minister at Crackow, where he died in 1632, aged 42. He was the author, 1. Of a famous Treatise against the Mystery of the Trinity; 2. Commentaries on a part of the New Testament; and other works. All of them are scarce.

CREMA, a city and bishop's see of Italy, capital of a district of the Milanese, called from it *Cremasco*; it stands almost in the middle between Milan and Mantua, in E. Long. 10. 15. and N. Lat. 45. 20.

CREMASTER, in *Anatomy*, the name of a muscle of the testicle, of which there is one on each side. See Anatomy, *Table of the Muscles*.

CREMATION is sometimes used for burning, particularly when applied to the ancient custom of burning the dead. The custom is well known to have prevailed among most eastern nations, and continued with their descendants after they had peopled the different parts of Europe. Hence we find it prevailing in Greece, Italy, Gaul, Britain, Germany, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, till Christianity abolished it.

CREMONA,

CREMONA, in *Ancient Geography*, a Roman colony, with municipal rights, settled beyond the Po, below the confluence of the Addua, on the report of Hannibal's march into Italy (Polybius): a town at this day still maintaining its name and flourishing state. It was an opulent and mercantile city; but suffered greatly in the civil wars of Augustus (Virgil). In the war with Vitellius, it was destroyed by the partizans of Vespasian; but was soon after rebuilt by the munificence of the citizens and exhortations of Vespasian, (Tacitus.) Now capital of the Cremonese, in the duchy of Milan. E. Long. 10. 30. N. Lat. 45.

CRENATED, a term used in botany. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRENELLE, or IMBATTLED, in *Heraldry*, is used when any honourable ordinary is drawn, like the battlements on a wall to defend men from the enemies shot. This attribute belongs to the arms of such as have defended castles for their prince or country, or of such as are skilled in architecture.

CRENOPHYLAX, in antiquity, a magistrate of Athens, who had the inspection of fountains.

CREODIBA, in the customs of the middle age, a robbery and murder committed in a wood, where the body of the person killed was burnt in order to prevent any discovery of the crime. The word, says Wendelinus, is compounded of *cruy* and *diven*, that is, "wood-robbers."

CREOLES, a name originally given to the families descended from the Spaniards who first settled at Mexico in America. These are much more numerous than the Spaniards properly so called, and the Mulattoes, which two other species of inhabitants they distinguish; and are excluded from all considerable employments. It is now used in a more extensive sense, and applied to all natives of the West Indies.

CREON, king of Corinth, was son of Sisyphus. He promised his daughter Glauce to Jason, who had repudiated Medea. To revenge the success of her rival, Medea sent her for a present a gown covered with poison. Glauce put it on, and was seized with sudden pains. Her body took fire, and she expired in the greatest torments. The house also was consumed by the fire, and Creon and his family shared Glauce's fate.

CREON, son of Menœtius, was father to Jocasta, the wife and mother of Oedipus. At the death of Laius, who had married Jocasta, Creon ascended the vacant throne of Thebes. As the ravages of the Sphynx were intolerable, Creon offered his crown and daughter in marriage to him who could explain the enigmas which the monster proposed. Oedipus was happy in his explanations, and he ascended the throne of Thebes, and married Jocasta without knowing that she was his mother, and by her he had two sons, Polynices and Eteocles. These two sons mutually agreed after their father's death to reign in the kingdom each a year alternately. Eteocles first ascended the throne by right of seniority; but when he was once in power he refused to resign at the appointed time, and his brother led against him an army of Argives to support his right. The war was decided by a single combat between the two brothers. They both killed one another, and Creon ascended the throne till Leodamus the son of Eteocles should be of sufficient age to assume the reins of government. In his regal capacity he commanded that the Argives, and more particularly Polynices, who was the cause of all the bloodshed, should remain unburied. If this was in any manner disobeyed, the offenders were to be buried alive. Antigone the sister of Polynices transgressed, and was accordingly punished. Hæmon the son of Creon, who was passionately fond of Antigone, killed himself on her grave, when his father refused to grant her pardon. Creon was afterwards killed by Theseus, who had made war with him because he refused burial to the Argives.

CREPANCE, in the manege, a chop or cratch in a horse's leg, given by the spunges of the shoes of one of the hinder feet crossing and striking against the other hinder foot. This cratch degenerates into an ulcer.

CREPIDÆ, among the Romans, a kind of slippers or shoes, which were always worn with the *pallium*, as the *calcei* were with the *toga*.

CREPIS, HAWK-WEED, a genus of plants belonging to the syngenesia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CREPITATION, that noise which some salts make over the fire in calcination, called also *detonation*.

CREPITATION is also used in surgery, for the noise made by the ends or pieces of bones, when the surgeon moves a limb to assure himself by his ear of the existence of a fracture.

CREPUNDIA, in antiquity, a term used to express such things as were exposed along with children, as rings, jewels, &c. serving as tokens whereby they afterwards might be known.

CREPUSCULUM, in *Astronomy*, twilight; the time from the first dawn or appearance of the morning to the rising of the sun; and again, between the setting of the sun and the last remains of day.

Papias derives the word from *creperus*; which, he says, anciently signified *uncertain*, *doubtful*, q. d. *a dubious light*. The crepusculum is usually computed to begin and end when the sun is about 18 degrees below the horizon; for then the stars of the sixth magnitude disappear in the morning and appear in the evening. It is of longer duration in the solstices than in the equinoxes, and longer in an oblique than in a right sphere.

The crepuscula are occasioned by the sun's rays refracted in our atmosphere, and reflected from the particles thereof to the eye. See TWILIGHT.

CRESCENT, the new moon, which as it begins to recede from the sun, shows a little rim of light, terminating in points or horns, which are still increasing till it become full and round in the opposition. The word is formed from *cresco*, "I grow."

The term is also used for the same figure of the moon in its wane or decrease, but improperly; because the points or horns are then turned towards the west, whereas they look to the east in the just crescent.

CRESCENT, in *Heraldry*, is a bearing in form of a half moon. The Ottomans bear sinople, a crescent montant, argent.

The

The crescent is frequently used as a difference in coat armour, to distinguish it for that of a second brother or junior family.

The figure of the crescent is the Turkish symbol; or rather is that of the city of Byzantium, which bore this device from all antiquity; as appears from medals struck in honour of Augustus, Trajan, &c.

The crescent is sometimes montant, i. e. its points look towards the top of the chief, which is its most ordinary representation; whence some contend, that the crescent, absolutely so called, implies that situation; though other authors blazon it montant, when the horns are towards the dexter side of the escutcheon, in which position others call it *increissant*.

Crescents are said to be *adossed*, when their backs or thickest parts are turned towards each other; their points looking to the sides of the shield. *Crescent inverted*, is that whose points look towards the bottom; *turned crescents* are placed like those adossed; the difference is, that all their points look to the dexter side of the shield: *conturned crescents*, on the contrary, look to the sinister side: *affronted* or *appointed crescents*, are contrary to the adossed, the points looking towards each other.

CRESCENT is also the name of a military order, instituted by Renatus of Anjou, king of Sicily, &c. in 1448; so called from the badge or symbol thereof, a crescent of gold enamelled. What gave occasion to this establishment was, that Renatus took for his device a crescent, with the word *loz*, "praise," which, in the style of rebus, makes *loz in crescent*, q. d. *by advancing in virtue, one merits praise*.

CRESCENTIA, the CALABASH TREE; a genus of plants belonging to the didynamia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 25th order, *Putamineæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

The shells of calabashes are made use of for various purposes. At Barbadoes, besides drinking-cups and punch bowls, there are made of them spoons, dishes, and other utensils for the slaves. Some of these shells are so large, as to be capable of holding 15 pints of water. The pulp is seldom eaten, except by cattle in the time of drought. The wood, which is hard and smooth, is made into stools, chairs, and other furniture.

CRESCIMBENI, JOHN MARIA, an Italian poet, was born at Macerata in Ancona, 1663. His talents for poetry and eloquence developed themselves early. His verses at first had too much pomp and point; but residing in Rome, and reading the best Italian poets, brought him back to nature. He not only reformed himself, but undertook to reform bad taste in general. From this motive he projected the establishment of a new academy, under the name of *Arcadia;* the members of which at first did not exceed 14, but afterwards increased much. They called themselves the shepherds of Arcadia, and each took the name of some shepherd and some place in that ancient kingdom. The founder of this society was appointed the director of it in 1690, and held this honourable post 38 years; namely, to the year of his death, which happened in 1728. Among a great number of works, in verse and prose, the principal is, A History of the Italian Poetry, very much esteemed, and reprinted, in 1731, at Venice, in six volumes 4to. This history is accompanied with a commentary, containing anecdotes of Italian poets. He published also A History of the Academy of Arcadia, together with the lives of the most illustrious Arcadians: and many other works.

CRESCY, or CRESSY. See CRESSY.

CRESS, WATER CRESS, or CRESSES. See SISYMBRIUM, BOTANY *Index*.

Indian CRESS. See TROPÆOLUM, BOTANY *Index*.

CRESSY, a port town of Picardy in France, about 44 miles south of Calais, and 27 north-west of Abbeville, remarkable on account of the victory obtained there over the French by Edward III. of England, in the year 1346. E. Long. 2. 0. N. Lat. 50. 20.

Edward having encountered and overcome many difficulties in his expedition, was at last so closely followed and harassed by the French army, commanded by the king of France in person, that he determined to make a stand at this place, and to give his pursuers a check. For this purpose he chose his ground with great judgment, on the gentle declivity of a hill, with a thick wood in his rear. He ordered deep entrenchments to be made on each flank, and waited with firmness the approach of his enemies. The king of France, dreading nothing so much as the escape of the English, began the march of his great army from Abbeville early in the morning, August 26. and continued it several hours with great eagerness, till he received intelligence that the English had halted at Cressy, and were prepared to give him battle. He was advised at the same time not to engage that day, when his troops were much fatigued with their march, and in great disorder; and he was disposed to have taken this advice. But the discipline of these times was so imperfect, that the orders given for halting were not obeyed; and one corps of this mighty host impelling another, they continued advancing till they came into the presence of their enemies in much confusion.

Edward had employed the forenoon of this important day in drawing up his army in the most excellent order, in three lines. The first line, which consisted of 800 men at arms, 4000 English archers, and 600 Welch foot, was commanded by his young, amiable, and heroic son, the prince of Wales, assisted by the earls of Warwick and Oxford, and several other noblemen. The second line, composed of 800 men at arms, 4000 halbardiers, and 2400 archers, was led by the earls of Arundel and Northampton; the last line or body of reserve, in which were 700 men at arms, 5300 billmen, and 6000 archers, was ranged along the summit of the hill, and conducted by the king in person, attended by the lords Moubray, Mortimer, and others. When the army was completely formed, Edward rode along the lines, and by his words and looks inspired his troops with the most ardent courage and strongest hopes of victory. He then commanded the cavalry to dismount, and the whole army to sit down upon the grass, in their ranks, and refresh themselves with meat, drink, and rest. As soon as the French army came in view, they sprung from the ground, full of strength and spirit, and stood ready to receive them.

The king of France, assisted by the kings of Bohemia and Majorca, the dukes of Lorraine and Savoy, and several other sovereign princes, with the flower of the French nobility, laboured to restore some degree of

of order to his prodigious army, and drew it up alſo in three lines, but very indiſtinctly formed. The firſt line was commanded in chief by the king of Bohemia; the ſecond by the earl of Alençon, the king of France's brother; and the third by Philip in perſon; and each of theſe lines contained a greater number of troops than the whole Engliſh army.

The battle of Creſſy was begun about three o'clock in the afternoon, Auguſt 26. by a great body of Genoeſe croſs-bowmen, in the French ſervice, who let fly their quarrels at too great a diſtance to do any execution, and were preſently routed by a ſhower of arrows from the Engliſh archers. The earl of Alençon, after trampling to death many of the flying Genoeſe, advanced to the charge, and made a furious attack on that corps commanded by the prince of Wales. The earls of Arundel and Northampton advanced with the ſecond line to ſuſtain the prince, and Alençon was ſupported by as many troops as could crowd to his aſſiſtance. Here the battle raged for ſome time with uncommon fury; and the earl of Warwick, anxious for the fate of the day and the ſafety of the prince, ſent a meſſenger to the king, entreating him to advance with the third line. Edward, who had taken his ſtand on a wind-mill on the top of the hill, from whence he had a full view of both armies, aſked the meſſenger, if his ſon was unhorſed, or wounded, or killed? and being anſwered, that the prince was unhurt, and performed prodigies of valour. "Go then," ſaid he, "and tell my ſon and his brave companions, that I will not deprive them of any part of the glory of their victory." This flattering meſſage being made known, inſpired the prince and his troops with redoubled ardour; and the king of Bohemia, the earl of Alençon, and many other great men, being ſlain, the whole firſt and ſecond lines of the French army were put to flight. Philip, undiſmayed at the ſlaughter of his troops, and the fall of ſo many princes, advanced to the charge with the line under his immediate command. But this body ſoon ſhared the ſame fate with the other two; and Philip, after having been unhorſed, and wounded in the neck and thigh, was carried off the field by John de Hainault, and fled with no more than five knights and about 60 ſoldiers in his company, of all his mighty army, which at the beginning of the battle conſiſted of more than 120,000 men. Such was the famous victory of Creſſy, the greateſt ever gained by any king of England. After the battle, the king flew into the arms of the prince of Wales, and graſping him to his boſom, cried in an ecſtaſy of joy, "My dear ſon, you have this day ſhowed yourſelf worthy of the knighthood which you lately received, and of the crown for which you have ſo bravely fought; perſevere in your honourable courſe." The prince, as modeſt as he was brave, ſunk down on his knees, his face covered with bluſhes, and begged his father's bleſſing. Edward continued with his army at Creſſy three days, employed in numbering and burying the dead. The French had left on this bloody ſcene the king of Bohemia, 11 other princes, 80 bannerets, 1200 knights, 1500 gentlemen, 4000 men at arms, and 30,000 other ſoldiers.

CREST, in armoury, denoted the uppermoſt part of an armoury; or that part riſing over the caſk or helmet. Next to the mantle, ſays Guillim, the creſt or cognizance claims the higheſt place; being ſeated on the moſt eminent part of the helmet; yet ſo as to admit an interpoſition of ſome eſcrol, wreath, chapeau, crown, &c.

The ancient warriors wore creſts to ſtrike terror in their enemies, as the ſight of the ſpoils of animals they had killed; or to give them the more formidable mien, by making them appear taller, &c.

In the ancient tournaments, the cavaliers had plumes of feathers, eſpecially thoſe of oſtriches and herons, for their creſts: theſe tufts they call *plumarts*; and were placed in tubes, on the tops of high caps or bonnets. Some had their creſts of leather; others of parchment, paſteboard, &c. painted or varniſhed, to keep out the weather; others of ſteel, wood, &c. on which were ſometimes repreſented a member or ordinary of the coat; as an eagle, fleur-de-lys, &c. but never any of thoſe called *honourable ordinaries*, as pale, feſſe, &c. The creſts were changeable at pleaſure; being reputed no other than as an arbitrary device or ornament.

Herodotus attributes the riſe of creſts to the Carians, who firſt bore feathers on their caſks, and painted figures on their bucklers; whence the Perſians called them *cocks*.

The creſt is eſteemed a greater mark of nobility than the armoury, as being borne at tournaments; to which none were admitted till they had given proof of their nobility. Sometimes it ſerves to diſtinguiſh the ſeveral branches of a family. It has alſo ſerved, on occaſion, as the diſtinguiſhing badge of factions. Sometimes the creſt is taken from the device; but more uſually it is formed of ſome piece of the arms: thus, the emperor's creſt is an eagle; that of Caſtile, a caſtle, &c. Families that exchange arms, as the houſes of Brunſwick and Cologne have done, do not change their creſts; the firſt ſtill retain the horſe, and the latter the mermaid.

CREST, in *Heraldry*, the figure placed above the helmet in an atchievement. See HERALDRY.

CREST-fallen, a fault of a horſe, when the upper part of his neck, called the *creſt*, hangs to one ſide: this they cure by placing it upright, clipping away the ſpare ſkin, and applying plaſters to keep it in a proper poſition.

CRETA, or CHALK, in *Natural Hiſtory*. See CHALK. MINERALOGY *Index*.

CRETE, one of the largeſt iſlands in the Mediterranean, lying between 22 and 27 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude. According to Strabo, this iſland is 287 miles in length; and according to Pliny, 270; and according to Scylax, 312. As to its breadth, it is not, as Pliny obſerves, above 55 miles where wideſt; whence it was ſtyled, as Stephanus obſerves, the *Long Iſland*. It has the Archipelago to the north, the African ſea to the ſouth, the Carpathian ſea to the eaſt, and the Ionian to the weſt. Anciently it was known by the names of *Aeria*, *Chthonia*, *Idea*, *Curete*, *Macaris*, &c. but its moſt common name was that of *Crete*.

The Cretan mythologiſts, quoted by Diodorus Siculus, relate that the firſt inhabitants of the iſland were the Dactyli Idæi, who dwelt around Mount Ida; they were regarded as magicians, becauſe they poſſeſſed a variety of knowledge, and were particularly ſkilled

Crete.

led in religious myſteries. Orpheus, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo highly in poetry and muſic, was their diſciple. They diſcovered the uſe of fire, iron, and braſs, and invented the art of working theſe metals in Berecynthius, a mountain near Aptera. Thoſe invaluable diſcoveries procured them divine honours. One of them, named Hercules, rendered himſelf famous by his courage and great exploits. He inſtituted the Olympic games; though poſterity, by a miſtake ariſing from his bearing the ſame name, have aſcribed that inſtitution to the ſon of Alcmena; who, indeed, trode in the ſteps of his predeceſſor, and raiſed himſelf alſo to immortality.

The Dactyli Idæi were the anceſtors of the Curetes. Theſe laſt at firſt inhabited the foreſts and caves of the mountains. Afterwards they entered into domeſtic life, and contributed, by their inſtitutions, to the civilization of mankind. They taught men to collect flocks of ſheep, to tame the ferocity of wild animals for domeſtic purpoſes, and to invite bees into hives, that they might rifle them of the fruit of their labours. They firſt prompted men to the chaſe, and taught the uſe of the bow. They were the inventors of ſwords and of military dances. The noiſe which they made, by dancing in armour, hindered Saturn from hearing the cries of Jupiter, whoſe education Rhea had entruſted to them. With the aſſiſtance of the nymphs, they brought up that a god in a cave in Mount Ida, feeding him with the milk of the goat Amalthea, and with honey.

To this period mythology aſſigns the origin of the Titans; their abode near Gnoſſus, where ſtood the palace of Rhea; their travels over the whole earth; their war againſt Ammon, and his defence by Bacchus; the nuptials of Jupiter and Juno, celebrated nigh the river Therenus in Crete; the gods, goddeſſes, and heroes, who deſcended from them.

The moſt illuſtrious of thoſe heroes were Minos and Rhadamanthus. They are ſaid to have been the ſons of Jupiter and Europa, who was conveyed into the iſland on a bull. Minos becoming king, built ſeveral cities; the moſt conſiderable of which are—Gnoſſus, on that ſide of the iſland which faces Aſia, Phœſtus on the ſouthern ſhore, and Cydon on the weſtern, facing Peloponneſus. He gave to his ſubjects a code of admirable laws, which he pretended to have received from his father Jupiter in the grotto of Mount Ida.

Rhadamanthus diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the impartiality of his judgments, and by the inflexible ſeverity with which he inflicted puniſhment on the impious and wicked. His empire extended over the chief iſles of the Archipelago; and the inhabitants of the adjacent coaſts of Aſia ſubmitted to him on account of his high reputation for probity and juſtice. Mythologiſts have conſtituted him judge in the regions below, to determine the future ſtate of the righteous and the wicked. They have conferred on him the ſame honours which were beſtowed on Minos, the juſteſt of kings.

Thus far have been followed the Cretan traditions as they are related by Diodorus; but hiſtorians differ about the truth of them. There are a variety of opinions concerning the firſt inhabitants of Crete. Strabo, who has diſcuſſed them with great erudition, ſays, after ſeveral pages on the ſubject: "I am not fond of fables; yet I have detailed theſe at ſome length, becauſe they are connected with theology. Every diſcourſe concerning the gods ſhould examine the religious opinions of antiquity, and diſtinguiſh them from fable. The ancients were pleaſed to conceal their knowledge of nature under a veil. It is now impoſſible to unfold the meaning of their enigmas. But by expoſing to light the numerous allegories which they have left us, and by examining attentively their mutual relations and differences, genius may perhaps be able to unfold the truths which are couched under them."

But leaving mythology for the more certain records and monuments of hiſtory, we find that Crete received its name from Crés, the firſt of its monarchs. He was author of ſeveral uſeful inventions, which contributed to the happineſs of his ſubjects. Prompted by gratitude, they endeavoured to perpetuate the memory of his favours, and to immortalize his name, by naming the iſland after him.

In order to diſtinguiſh the true Cretans from ſtrangers, they were named *Eteocretes*. A number of colonies, from different parts of Greece, ſettled in the iſland. The agreeableneſs of the climate, and the fertility of the ſoil, invited them to fix their habitation there. The Lacedæmonians, Argives, and Athenians, were the principal people who ſent colonies into Crete. This is what makes Homer ſay, "Crete is an extenſive iſland in the midſt of the ſtormy main. The ſoil is rich and fertile. It contains an immenſe number of inhabitants. It is adorned with a hundred cities. Its inhabitants ſpeak in various languages. We find there Achæans, valiant Eteocretes, Cydonians, Dorians, and godlike Pelaſgians." The Eteocretes inhabited the ſouthern diviſion of the iſland; they built there the city of Prœſus, and erected a temple to Dictæan Jove.

Crés was not the only monarch who reigned in the iſland of Crete. He had a ſeries of ſucceſſors. But hiſtory affords little information concerning them: only the names of a few of them are preſerved, and a ſmall number of events which happened under the reign of ſome others, but blended and diſfigured with an intermixture of fable. Among thoſe monarchs we find two Jupiters, and two of the name of Minos. However, moſt writers confound them, and aſcribe to one thoſe tranſactions and exploits which ſhould be ſhared between the two.

This remark chiefly regards Minos, who was eſteemed the wiſeſt legiſlator of antiquity. The office aſſigned him in the regions below is a clear and certain proof of his having gained an exalted reputation by his juſtice. Greece, ſays Plato, has with great propriety adopted the laws of Crete; for they are founded on the ſolid baſis of reaſon and equity, and have a natural tendency to render the people who live in ſubjection to them, opulent and happy. One of thoſe laws forbade "the Cretans ever to carry their feſtivity ſo far as to intoxicate themſelves with wine." The following was very ſuitable to repreſs the preſumptuous ardour of youth: "Let young people not canvaſs the laws with an indiſcreet curioſity; let them not examine whether the lawgiver has done right or wrong in promulgating them; but let them join unanimouſly in declaring them good, ſince they proceed from the gods. If any of the old men perceive ſomething in them meriting amendment, let

let him mention it to the magiſtrate, or diſcuſs it with his equals, but never in the preſence of the young people." That excellent code was engraven on tables of braſs: and Talos, chief miniſter to Minos, viſited all the towns and cities in the iſland, three times a-year, to obſerve in what manner the laws were executed and obeyed. The king of Crete, well knowing that the marvellous is neceſſary to command the belief and enforce the obedience of the people, pretended that he had received thoſe laws from his father Jupiter, in the grotto of Mount Ida. In the ſame manner, Lycurgus, before promulgating his laws, repaired to Delphos, and gave out they had received the ſanction of Apollo. A like reaſon induced Numa to pretend to an intimacy with the nymph Egeria, and Mahomet to aſcribe his doctrines and inſtitutions to the revelation of the angel Gabriel.

In contradiction to this account, others of the ancients deſcribe Minos as a prince impotently abandoned to the fury of his paſſions, and a barbarous conqueror. Falling paſſionately in love with the nymph Dictynna, who refuſed to gratify his wiſhes, he purſued her to the brink of the ſhore, and forced her to plunge into the ſea, where ſhe was ſaved by ſome fiſhermen, who received her in their nets. He was the firſt of the Greeks who appeared in the Mediterranean at the head of a naval armament. He conquered the Cyclades, expelled the Carians, eſtabliſhed Cretan colonies in thoſe iſlands, and committed the government of them to his ſon.

Being informed, while he was at Paros, that his ſon Androgeus was ſlain at Athens, he declared war againſt Egeus, and impoſed on him a diſgraceful tribute; from the payment of which Theſeus delivered his country. He took arms againſt Niſus, king of Megara, made him priſoner by the treachery of his daughter Scylla, and put him to death, together with Megarus, the ſon of Hippomanes, who had brought ſome forces to his aſſiſtance. Dædalus, who had by ſome means incurred his diſpleaſure, deſpairing of pardon from ſo ſevere and inflexible a prince, employed the reſources of his inventive genius, in order to eſcape from his power. He fled to Sicily, gained the protection of King Cocalus, and obtained an aſylum in his court. Valerius Flaccus has deſcribed his flight in a very lively and pictureſque manner. "Thus Dædalus, with the wings of a bird, aſcended from Mount Ida. Beſide him flew the comrade of his flight, with ſhorter wings. They appeared like a cloud riſing in the air. Minos, ſeeing his vengeance thus eluded, glowed with impotent rage. In vain he followed with his eyes the ſecure flight of his enemies through the wide expanſe of heaven. His guards returned to Gortynia with their quivers filled with arrows." The Cretan monarch did not, however, give up his prey. He equipped a fleet, purſued the fugitive to Sicily, and fell before the walls of Camicum.

It is plain, that thoſe actions cannot agree to the character of that juſt monarch, whoſe merits raiſed him to the office of determining, in the regions below, the unalterable fate of the righteous and the wicked. We may, therefore, reaſonably conclude, that Minos the legiſlator is a different perſon from the conqueror; that it was the former who gained a laſting reputation by his wiſdom and juſtice; and the latter who ſubdued moſt of the iſlands of the Archipelago, but being enſlaved by his paſſions, tarniſhed his glory by his cruelty and mercileſs thirſt for vengeance.

The laſt king of Crete was Idomeneus. This prince, accompanied by Merion, conducted 24 ſhips to the aſſiſtance of Agamemnon. Homer informs us of the illuſtrious exploits by which he ſignalized himſelf before the walls of Troy. At his departure, he committed the government of his kingdom to Leucus his adopted ſon, promiſing him the hand of his daughter Cliſithera if he governed wiſely in his abſence. That ambitious young man ſoon forgot the favours which had been ſo laviſhly beſtowed on him. Gaining a number of partiſans, he in a ſhort time aſpired to the immediate poſſeſſion of the crown. His impatience would not wait till he ſhould obtain it lawfully by marriage. Flattering himſelf, from the long abſence of the king, that he was perhaps fallen before Troy, he determined to mount the throne. Mida, wife to Idomeneus, and the princeſs Clithera, were an obſtacle to his wiſhes. But ambition knows no reſtraint, and tramples under foot the moſt ſacred obligations. The baſe wretch having ſeduced the people from their allegiance, and captivated the affections of the nobles, ſacrificed thoſe unfortunate victims in the temple. When Idomeneus, crowned with laurels, landed on the coaſt of Crete, Leucus, who had now firmly eſtabliſhed his power, attacked him with an armed force; and obliged him to reimbark. A different account is alſo given of the baniſhment of Idomeneus. Servius ſays that he had vowed, in a ſtorm, to ſacrifice to the gods the firſt perſon that his eyes ſhould behold on the Cretan ſhore; that his ſon having met him firſt after his arrival, he fulfilled his vow, by ſacrificing him; and that the iſland, being ſoon after depopulated by peſtilence, the inhabitants looked upon that affliction as the effect of divine vengeance, and expelled the parricide; who, retiring to Italy, founded Salentum, on the Meſſapian coaſt. But that opinion appears entirely groundleſs. Hiſtory mentions no ſon of Idomeneus. If he had a ſon of his own blood, why did he adopt Leucus? Why did he truſt to him the government of the iſland, when he promiſed him his daughter in marriage? The more probable opinion is, that the plague was introduced into the iſland by his ſhips, when he returned from the ſiege of Troy, as Herodotus aſſerts; and that Leucus artfully made uſe of that pretext to expel his lawful ſovereign from the iſland. But it appears that the uſurper did not long enjoy the fruit of his crimes. Soon after the departure of Idomeneus, monarchy was aboliſhed, and the government of Crete became republican.

The republic of Crete has been celebrated by the panegyric of Plato, ſerved Lycurgus as a model for that which he eſtabliſhed in Lacedemon, and was beheld by all Greece with reſpect and admiration. Strabo has thought it not unworthy of his pencil, and has conſecrated the leading features of its conſtitution to laſting fame in his immortal work. It was indeed a ſyſtem of legiſlature, whoſe direct tendency was to call forth the buds of virtue in the heart of infancy; to open and expand them in youth; to inſpire man, as he reached maturity, with the love of his country, of glory,

Crete. glory, and of liberty; and to comfort and ſupport the infirmities of age with the reſpect and eſteem due to the experience and wiſdom of that period of life. It laboured to form affectionate friends, patriotic citizens, and worthy magiſtrates. It made no uſe, however, of a multitude of acts and ſtatutes to produce thoſe ineſtimable advantages. They flowed all from one ſource; the public education of youth, judiciouſly directed. The virtuous examples ſet before youth in the courſe of that education, the illuſtrious deeds which were recited to them with high applauſe, the honours conferred on valour and on noble actions, the opprobrium invariably caſt on vice; theſe were the only means which the Cretan lawgiver made uſe of to form a warlike, humane, and virtuous nation.

The Cretan government, ſoon after the expulſion of Idomeneus, became ariſtocratical. The power was divided between the nobles and the people. Yet as the chief employments were occupied by the nobles, they directed the adminiſtration of affairs. Ten magiſtrates were annually elected, by a majority of voices, in the national aſſembly. Theſe were named *Coſmoi*; and their public office and character were the ſame with thoſe of the Ephori at Sparta. They were the generals of the republic in time of war, and directed all affairs of any importance. They had the right of chooſing certain old men for counſellors. Thoſe old men, to the number of twenty-eight, compoſed the Cretan ſenate. They were choſen from among ſuch as had diſcharged the office of Coſmoi, or had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by extraordinary merit and blameleſs probity. Thoſe ſenators continued in office during life, poſſeſſed a weighty influence, and were conſulted in every affair of any importance. This body was a barrier oppoſed by the wiſdom of the legiſlator againſt the ambition of the ten chief rulers. He had impoſed another reſtraint on their power, by limiting the period of their adminiſtration to one year. His foreſight went ſtill farther. The ſuffrages of the people might be obtained by bribery or perſonal influence, and of conſequence their choice might ſometimes fall on a man unworthy of ſo honourable an office. When that happened, he who had been undeſervedly advanced to the dignity of Coſmos was degraded, either in a national aſſembly, or ſimply by the voices of his colleagues. This, doubtleſs, is what Plato alludes to, when he ſays, "Neither the commonwealth, which approaches too near to a monarchical conſtitution, nor that which affects a licentious liberty, is founded on the ſolid baſis of a juſt medium between anarchy and deſpotiſm. O Cretans! O Lacedæmonians! by eſtabliſhing yours on firmer foundations, you have avoided thoſe fatal extremes."

Such were the diſtribution of power and the adminiſtration of public affairs in the Cretan government. Its ſimplicity was admirable. A people who were bleſſed with the ſacred enjoyment of liberty, but poſſeſſed not ſufficient knowledge and diſcernment to direct themſelves, elected magiſtrates, to whom they delegated their authority. Thoſe magiſtrates, thus arrayed with ſovereign power, choſe ſenators to aſſiſt and direct their deliberations. Theſe counſellors could neither enact nor decide of themſelves; but they held their office for life; and that circumſtance contributed to ſtrengthen their influence and to increaſe their experience. The magiſtrates were animated by the moſt powerful motives to diſtinguiſh themſelves when in office, by unwearied activity in the public ſervice. On one ſide, they were reſtrained by the fear of degradation; on the other, actuated by the hope of becoming one day members of the national council.

Yet let us inquire what means the Cretan lawgiver uſed to form virtuous citizens. All the Cretans were ſubjected to the power of the magiſtrates; and divided into two claſſes, the adults and the youth. Men arrived at maturity were admitted into the firſt. The ſecond conſiſted of all the young men who were not below the age of ſeventeen. The ſociety of adults ate together in public halls. There rulers, magiſtrates, poor and rich, ſeated together, partook, without diſtinction, of the ſame ſimple fare. A large bowl, filled with wine and water, which went round the company from one to another, was the only drink that they were allowed. None but the old men had a right to call for more wine. Doubtleſs, the people, ſo celebrated for wiſdom, were not ſtrangers to the power of beauty; for a woman was appointed to preſide at each table. She openly diſtributed the moſt exquiſite meats to thoſe who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their valour or wiſdom. That judicious preference was ſo far from exciting envy or jealouſy, that it only prompted every perſon to deſerve it by brave and prudent conduct. Near where the citizens ſat, two tables were laid, which they named *Hoſpitable*; all ſtrangers and travellers were entertained at theſe; and there was alſo a particular houſe ſet apart by the public, in which they might ſpend the night.

To ſupply the public expences, every citizen was obliged to bring a tenth part of his annual income into the treaſury. The chief magiſtrates were to take care that every perſon contributed his proportion. In Crete, ſays Ariſtotle, one part of the fruits of the earth, of the produce of the flocks, of the revenues of the ſtate, and of the taxes and cuſtoms, is ſacred to the gods; the other is diſtributed among the members of the community; ſo that men, women, and children, all ſubſiſt at the public expence.

After dinner, the magiſtrates and ſenators uſually ſpent ſome time in deliberating on the affairs of the ſtate; they next recounted the noble deeds which had been done in war, celebrated the courage of their moſt diſtinguiſhed warriors, and animated the youth to heroic valour. Thoſe aſſemblies were the firſt ſchool of the youth. At the age of ſeven, the boy was permitted to handle the bow;—from that time he was admitted into the ſociety of the adults, where he continued till the age of ſeventeen. There, ſitting on the ground, and clothed in a plain and coarſe dreſs, he ſerved the old men, and liſtened, with reſpectful ſilence, to their advices. His young heart was inflamed with the recital of noble deeds in arms, and glowed with ardour to imitate them. He acquired habits of ſobriety and temperance. And being conſtantly witneſs of illuſtrious examples of moderation, wiſdom, and patriotiſm, the ſeeds of virtue were thus ſown and foſtered in his heart before he attained the uſe of reaſon.

He was early accuſtomed to arms and to fatigue, that he might learn to endure exceſſive heat or cold,

to clamber and leap among hills and precipices, and to bear manfully the blows and wounds which he might receive amid the gymnastic exercises or in battle. His education was not confined to the gymnastic exercises; he was also taught to sing the laws, which were written in verse, with a certain species of melody in order that the charms of music might dispose him to learn them with more pleasure, and might impress them more deeply on his heart, and that, if he should ever transgress them, he might not have the excuse of ignorance to offer. He next learned hymns in honour of the gods, and poems composed in praise of heroes. When he reached his seventeenth year, he retired from the society of the adults, and became a member of that of the young men.

Here his education was still carried on. He exercised himself in hunting, wrestling, and fighting with his companions. The lyre played tunes of martial music; and he learned to follow exactly the sounds and measure of the musician. Those sports and exercises were sometimes attended with danger; because arms of steel were sometimes used in them. One dance, in which the youth aspired most ardently to excel, was the Pyrrhic, originally invented in Crete. The performers in that dance were arrayed in complete armour:—they wore a light short coat, which did not fall below the knee, and was bound with a girdle going twice round the waist: on their feet and legs were buskins; above these they bore their arms, and performed various military evolutions to the sound of musical instruments. "The Lacedæmonians and Cretans (says Libanius) cultivated dancing with amazing ardour; they considered that their laws had directed them to practise it for the most important purposes; and it was scarce less dishonourable for a Lacedæmonian or Cretan to neglect the military dances, than to desert his post in battle."

Those Cretans who were opulent and high-born, were permitted to form societies of young men of their own age. They often strove, with emulation, who should form the most numerous ones. The father of the young man who formed one of those societies usually presided in it. He had a right to educate those warlike youth, to exercise them in running and in hunting, to confer rewards and inflict punishments.

Friendship was in high estimation among the Cretans; but, says Strabo, the manner in which they conducted the intercourse of friendship was pretty extraordinary. Instead of mild persuasion, they made use of violence to gain the objects of their affections. He who conceived an affection for a young man of his own age, and wished to attach him to himself by indissoluble bonds, formed a scheme for carrying him off by violence. Three days before putting it into execution, he communicated it to his comrades. They could not then interfere to prevent it; because if they had, they would have appeared to think the young man unworthy of such an excessive attachment. At the appointed day they assembled to protect their companion. If the ravisher appeared to them not unworthy of the object of his affection, they made at first a faint resistance in obedience to the law—but, at last, joyfully favoured his enterprise; if, on the other hand, they thought him unworthy of the object of his choice, they made such resistance as to prevent him from executing his design. The feigned resistance continued till the ravisher had conducted his friend into the hall of that society to which he belonged. They did not regard him who possessed superior beauty and gracefulness of person as the most amiable; but him who had most distinguished himself by his modesty and valour.

The ravisher loaded his young friend with favours, and conducted him wherever he desired; they were accompanied by those who had favoured the rape: he carried him from feast to feast, procured him the pleasures of the chase and good cheer; and after using all possible means to gain his heart for the course of two months, brought him back to the city, and was obliged to give him up to his parents. But first he presented him with a suit of armour, an ox, and a drinking cup; which were the usual and legal presents on such occasions. Sometimes his generosity went still farther; and he made more expensive presents; to defray the expence of which his comrades contributed. The young man sacrificed the ox to Jupiter, and gave an entertainment to those who had assisted when he was carried off. He then declared his sentiments concerning a connection with his ravisher, and told whether or not it was agreeable to him. If he had reason to complain of the treatment which he had received, the law allowed him to forsake a friend so unworthy of the name, and to demand his punishment.

It would have been disgraceful, adds Strabo, to a young man who was handsome and well born, to be rejected by his friends on account of the depravity of his manners. Those who had been carried off received public honours. Theirs were the first places in the halls and at the race. They were permitted to wear, during the rest of life, those ornaments which they owed to the tenderness of friendship; and that mark of distinction testified to all who saw them, that they had been the objects of some fond attachment.

When the youth had finished their exercises, and attained the legal age, they became members of the class of adults; being then considered as men, they were permitted to vote in the national assemblies, and were entitled to stand candidates for any public office. They were then obliged to marry: but did not take home their wives till such time as they were capable of managing their domestic concerns.

"The legislator (says Strabo) had considered liberty as the greatest blessing that cities can enjoy. Liberty alone can secure the property of the citizens of any state. Slavery either robs them of it, or renders it precarious. The first care of nations should therefore be to preserve their liberty. Concord strengthens and supports her empire; she flourishes wherever the seeds of dissension are extinguished. Almost all these hostilities which prevail among nations or individuals spring either from an inordinate desire of wealth or the love of luxury. Introduce, instead of those baneful principles, frugality, moderation, and equality of conditions; you will thus banish envy, hatred, injustice, and haughty disdain." This was what the Cretan lawgiver happily effected. And the community, which was regulated by his wise institutions, rose to glory, opulence, and power; and was honoured with the panegyrics of the most celebrated philosophers

Crete. losophers of Greece: but the highest honour it ever obtained, was that of serving Lycurgus as a model for the admirable form of government which he established at Sparta.

The republic of Crete continued to flourish till the age of Julius Cæsar. No other state has enjoyed so long a period of strength and grandeur. The legislature, regarding liberty as the only sure basis of a nation's happiness, had instituted a system of laws, the natural tendency of which was, to inspire men with an ardent passion for liberty, and with such virtue and valour as are necessary to support and defend it. All the citizens were soldiers: all of them were skilled in the art of war. The valiant youth of other nations resorted to Crete, to learn the exercises, manœuvres, and evolutions, of the military art. "Philopœmen (says Plutarch) being impatient of indolence, and eager to acquire skill in arms, embarked for Crete. After spending a considerable time in the noblest exercises among that brave people, who were skilled in the art of war, and accustomed to an austere and temperate life, he returned to the Achæans. The knowledge which he had acquired made him so eminent among them, that he was immediately appointed general of their cavalry."

On the other hand, the legislator, being persuaded that conquests are generally unjust and criminal, that they often exhaust the strength of the victorious nation, and almost always corrupt its manners, endeavoured to preserve the Cretans from the ambition of conquest. The fertility of the island abundantly supplied their wants. They needed not that commerce should introduce among them the riches of foreign countries, along with which luxury and her train of attendant vices would also be introduced; and he knew how to inspire them with an indifference for such acquisitions without expressly forbidding them. The gymnastic exercises, which occupied the leisure of the gallant youth; the pleasures of the chase; the ardour of friendship; the public shows, at which all the different orders of the community, both men and women, used to assemble; the love of equality, order, and their country, with which he inflamed every breast; the wise institutions, which united a whole nation so closely that they composed but one family;—all these ties attached the Cretans to their native island: and finding at home that happiness which was the object of their wishes, they never thought of wandering abroad in search of an imaginary glory, or of extending their empire over other nations. Therefore, from the period at which that state assumed a republican form till the time when they were attacked by the arms of Rome, the nation was not once known to send a hostile force into the territories of any of their neighbours. This instance of moderation is unparalleled in history; no other nation can divide the glory of it with the Cretans. Individuals indeed might leave their country to engage in foreign armies. Those princes and states who knew their valour and skill in archery eagerly sought to take them into their pay; all the neighbouring monarchs were desirous of having in their armies a body of Cretan archers. Over the whole world none were more celebrated than they for bending the bow. "The arrows of Gortynia (says Claudian), aimed from a trusty bow, are sure to wound, and never miss the destined mark." Crete.

Though the multitude of independent cities which flourished in Crete did not unite their arms to subjugate the neighbouring islands, and drench them with the blood of their inhabitants; yet they were not so wise as to live in peace among themselves. Discord often stalked among them with her flaming torch. The most powerful wished to enslave the rest. Sometimes Gnossus and Gortynia marched with social banners against their neighbours, levelled their fortresses, and subjected them to their power, at other times they attacked each other with hostile violence, and saw their bravest youth perish amid the horrors of civil war. Lyctos and Cydon opposed an invincible barrier to their ambition, and preserved their own liberty. The last of these cities had acquired such strength and influence, that she held the balance between the rival powers of the island. Those wars destroyed a number of the cities, and drenched the native country of Jupiter with blood.

To what source must we attribute those intestine dissensions? One part of the island was occupied by the Eteocretes, the original inhabitants; the rest was peopled with colonies from Athens, Sparta, Argos, and Samos. Perhaps the ancient grudges which had subsisted among those strangers, being still unextinguished in their breasts, were easily rekindled by accident or circumstances, and inflamed with new fury. We may also suppose, that the most powerful among them, exulting in their superiority, would endeavour to take advantage of the weakness of the rest, and disregard all laws but those of force: besides, the glowing ardour of the youth, trained to military exercises, was ever ready to fly to arms. Such probably were the causes which fomented discord and hostility among a people living under the same religion, customs, and laws.—Whatever these might be, the Cretans being persuaded that the firm union of their soldiers was essential to victory, arrayed the bravest youths of the army in splendid robes, and caused them to sacrifice to friendship before engaging in battle. In some countries it would be very proper to oblige the generals on such occasions, to sacrifice to concord. If such a sacrifice were performed with sincerity, it might preserve their glory unstained, and prevent such deluges of blood from being wasted without producing any advantages to the state.

Their passion for war did not extinguish in the breasts of the Cretans that exquisite sensibility which is the mother and nurse of the fine arts. "The Cretans (says Sozomen) gave an illustrious proof of their munificence to genius, by making Homer a present of a thousand pieces of silver; and to perpetuate the memory of this act of generosity, they recorded it by an inscription on a public column." In Crete, adds Ptolemy, men are still more desirous of cultivating their understandings than of exercising their bodily powers. Often when dissensions arose, the voice of wisdom and the charms of poesy recalled them to reason and harmony. Thales of Gortynia, the preceptor of Lycurgus, was one of their most celebrated philosophers. Being both a poet and legislator, he made a happy use of his abilities and knowledge to extinguish among his

Crete.

his countrymen the kindling ſparks of diſcord. "His poems were moral diſcourſes in verſe, which recalled the people to concord and ſubmiſſion to the laws. Uſing a regular meaſure, he recommended the auſterity of his ſubject by the inſinuating and powerful charm of ſentiment. So powerful were the effects of his verſes, which addreſſed at once the ears, the heart, and the underſtanding of his hearers, that their rage was gradually ſoftened. Next, opening their hearts to the love of peace, the advantages of which he deſcribed in glowing colours, they forgot their inteſtine diſſenſions, and ranged themſelves around the ſtandard of concord." That ſage is ſaid to have invented tunes for the military dances and for the Cretan Pyrrhic. Men who felt ſo ſtrongly the influence of poetry and muſic could ſcarcely be enemies to pleaſure. Accordingly, they had a cuſtom of diſtinguiſhing their fortunate days with white flint ſtones, their unfortunate days with black. At the end of the year they counted the number of their white ſtones, and reckoned that they had lived only ſo many days as were diſtinguiſhed for having been fortunate. They did not think mere exiſtence, without the enjoyment of pleaſure, worthy of the name of *life*. For this reaſon, they cauſed to be inſcribed on their tombs: "He lived ſo many days; he continued in exiſtence ſo long."

A paſſion for glory is eaſily awaked in a feeling and generous breaſt. The Cretans eagerly repaired to the famous ſolemnities of Greece, and were often crowned at the Olympic, Nemæan, and Pythian games; others of them were favourites of the muſes, and verſified the predictions of prophets, or celebrated the glorious deeds of their heroes. Several of them diſtinguiſhed themſelves by hiſtorical compoſition. At the moſt ancient games, a prize is ſaid to have been beſtowed on the poet who ſung the nobleſt hymn in honour of Apollo: Chryſothemis of Crete ſung and gained the prize.

The ravages of time have deprived us of almoſt all their works; and if Pindar had not preſerved the memory of ſome of their crowns, we ſhould not know even the names of the conquerors who wore them. The temple of Diana at Epheſus, built by the Cretan Cteſiphon and his ſon Metagenes, was not proof againſt the frantic hand of the incendiary. Thoſe ingenious architects had built it on the principles of the Ionic order: to the coſtlineſs of the materials, the elegance of the architecture, the ſymmetry of the parts, and the majeſty and perfection of the whole, they had added ſolidity and ſtrength, without which the reſt muſt have been of ſmall value. Their names have deſcended to poſterity, but the pillars of that monument which has perpetuated their memory have been diſperſed or deſtroyed. Scarce a veſtige remains of that building which was eſteemed one of the ſeven wonders of the world.

Nations are effaced from the earth like the monuments of their power, and after the revolution of ſeveral ages we can ſcarcely trace in their poſterity any remains of their ancient character. Some of them exiſt longer, others ſhorter; but we may almoſt always calculate the period of their duration by the excellence of their laws, and the fidelity with which they ſupport and obey them. The republic of Crete, being eſtabliſhed on a ſolid baſis, knew no foreign maſter for a period of ten centuries. She bravely repelled the attacks of thoſe princes who attempted to enſlave her. At length the time arrived when the warlike and victorious Romans aſpired to the empire of the world, and would ſuffer none but their ſubjects or ſlaves to inhabit within the reach of their arms. Florus does not ſcruple to acknowledge, that the Romans had no other motives for invading Crete but the ambitious deſire of ſubduing the renowned native country of Jupiter. "If any perſon wiſh to know the reaſon which induced us to attack Crete (ſays he), the true reaſon was our deſire to ſubdue ſo celebrated an iſland. The Cretans had appeared to favour Mithridates, and the Romans thought proper to declare war againſt them on that pretext. Mark Antony, father of the triumvir, attacked them with ſtrong hopes of ſucceſs; but was ſeverely puniſhed for his preſumption and imprudence. The Cretans took a great part of his fleet, hung up his ſoldiers and ſailors on the maſts amid the ſails and cordage, and returned in triumph into their harbours."

The Romans never forgot nor forgave a defeat. As ſoon as the Macedonian war was brought to a happy concluſion, they again took arms againſt the Cretans to revenge their ignominy and loſs. Quintus Metellus was ſent to Crete with a powerful armament. He met with an obſtinate and vigorous reſiſtance. Panarus and Laſthenes, two experienced leaders, collecting a body of 20,000 young warriors, all eager for battle, and of determined courage, employed their arms and arrows ſucceſsfully againſt the Romans, and protracted the fate of Crete for three years. Thoſe conquerors could not make themſelves maſters of the iſland before deſtroying its braveſt warriors. They loſt a great number of troops, and bought a bloody victory at the price of many a danger and much fatigue. However, their uſual good fortune at length prevailed. The firſt care of the conqueror was to aboliſh the laws of Minos, and to eſtabliſh in their room thoſe of Numa. Strabo, that enlightened philoſopher, complains of this act of ſeverity; and informs us, that in his days the original laws of Crete were no longer in force, becauſe the Romans compelled the conquered provinces to adopt their civil code. To ſecure themſelves ſtill more fully in the poſſeſſion of the iſland, they ſent a powerful colony to Gnoſſus.

From that era to the preſent time, that is, for a period of 1900 years, the Cretans have no longer formed a ſeparate nation, or made any figure among the ſtates and kingdoms of the world: their noble and ingenious manners, their arts and ſciences, their valour and their virtues, are no more. They have loſt theſe with the loſs of liberty. So true it is that man is not born for himſelf; and that, when deprived of that aid which Nature has deſigned to ſtrengthen and ſupport his weakneſs, the flame of genius and the ardent glow of valour are extinguiſhed in his breaſt; he becomes incapable of vigorous reſolution, and ſinks below the natural virtue and dignity of the ſpecies.

The iſland of Crete, joined with the ſmall kingdom of Cyrene, on the Libyan coaſt, formed a Roman province. It was at firſt governed by a proconſul; a queſtor and an aſſiſtant were afterwards ſent there; at laſt, as Suetonius informs us, it was put under the government of a conſul. This iſland was one of the firſt places in the world that were favoured with the light of

of the gospel. St Paul introduced the Christian faith into Crete; and his disciple Titus, whom he left there to cherish and cultivate that precious plant, became the first bishop of the island. In the reign of the emperor Leo, it had twelve bishops, who were all subject to the patriarch of Constantinople. Constantine separated Crete from Cyrene in the new division which he made of the provinces of the empire. Leaving three sons, Constantius, Constantine, and Constans, he assigned Thrace and the eastern provinces to the first; to the second, the empire of the west; the island of Crete, Africa, and Illyria, to the third.

When Michael Balbus sat on the throne of Constantinople, the rebellion of Thomas, which lasted three years, caused him to neglect the other parts of the empire. The Agarenians (a people of Arabia), who had conquered the finest provinces of Spain, seized that opportunity. They fitted out a considerable fleet, plundered the Cyclades, attacked the island of Crete, and made themselves masters of it without opposition. In order to secure their conquest, they built a fortress which they named *Khandak*, "intrenchment." From that citadel the barbarians made inroads into the interior parts of the island, carrying havock and devastation wherever they appeared. By repeated attacks, they subdued all the cities in Crete except Cydon. Michael made some ineffectual efforts to expel them from Crete. The emperor Basilius, the Macedonian, was not more successful. They defeated him in a bloody battle; but being vanquished by one of his generals, they were subjected to the payment of an annual tribute. At the end of ten years, the Arabians refused the tribute. It was reserved for Nicephorus Phocas, who was afterwards emperor, to deliver this fine island from the yoke of the infidels. He landed on the island with a numerous army, boldly attacked them, and routed them in various engagements. The Saracens, no longer daring to meet so formidable a general in the field, fled for protection to their fortresses. Phocas being plentifully supplied with all the warlike machines necessary for a siege, levelled their walls, and alarmed their hearts with terror. He took their cities and fortresses, and drove them into Khandak, their metropolis and last resource. In the course of nine months he subdued the whole island, took their king Curup and his lieutenant Aremas prisoners, and reunited to the empire a province which had been 127 years in the hands of the infidels. It remained under the dominion of the Romans till the time when Baldwin, count of Flanders, being raised to the throne, liberally rewarded the services of Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, by making him king of Thessalonica, and adding the island of Crete to his kingdom. That lord, being more covetous of gold than glory, sold it to the Venetians in the year 1194; under whom it assumed the name of Candia. See the sequel of its history under that article.

CRETIO, in antiquity, a certain number of days allowed the heir to consider whether he would act as heir to the deceased or not; after which time, if he did not act, he was excluded from the state.

CREUX, a term in sculpture, much used by the French; though not yet, that we know of, naturalized among us: but the want of a word of equal import in English, as it has frequently put us under a necessity of using this in the course of the present work; so it pleads strongly for its admission into our language.

Creux originally signifies a *hollow*, *cavity*, or *pit*, out of which something has been scooped or dug: hence it is used to denote that kind of sculpture and graving where the lines and figures are cut and formed within the face or plane of the plate or matter engraven on. In which sense it stands opposed to relievo; where the lines and figures are embossed, and appear prominent above the face of the matter.

CREW, the company of sailors belonging to a ship, boat, or other vessel.

The sailors that are to work and manage a ship are regulated by the number of lasts it may carry; each last making two tons. The crew of a Dutch ship, from 40 to 50 lasts, is seven sailors and a swabber; from 50 to 60 lasts, the crew consists of eight men and a swabber; and thus increases at the rate of one man for every ten lasts; so that a ship of 100 lasts has 12 men, &c. English and French crews are usually stronger than Dutch; but always in about the same proportion. In a ship of war there are several particular crews, or gangs, as the boatswain's crew, the carpenter's crew, the gunner's crew, &c.

CREVIER, John-Baptist Lewis, a Parisian, was trained under the celebrated Rollin, and afterwards became professor of rhetoric. Upon the death of his master, in 1741, he took upon him to finish his Roman History. He published other works, and was greatly serviceable to the cause of virtue and religion as well as letters. His death happened in 1765, at a very advanced age. Besides the continuation just mentioned, he published, 1. An edition of *Livius, cum Notis*, in 6 vols 4to, 1748; and afterwards another edition, better adapted to the use of his pupils, in 6 vols small 8vo. 2. *La Histoire des Empereurs des Romains jusqu'à Constantin*, 1749, 12 tom. 12mo. 3. *Histoire de l'Université de Paris*, 7 tom. 12mo. 4. *Rhetorique Francoise*, a just and useful work. 5. *Observations sur l'Esprit des Loix*. Here he ventured out of his depth; he should have kept within the precincts of the belles lettres.

CREUSA, in fabulous history, daughter of Creon king of Corinth. As she was going to marry Jason, who had divorced Medea, she put on a poisoned garment, which immediately set her body on fire, and she expired in the most excruciating torments. She had received this gown as a gift from Medea, who wished to take that revenge upon the infidelity of Jason. Some call her *Glauce*. (*Ovid. de Art. Am.* i. 335.). A daughter of Priam, king of Troy, by Hecuba. She married Æneas, by whom she had, among other children, Ascanius. When Troy was taken, she fled in the night with her husband; but they were separated in the midst of the confusion and tumult, and Æneas could not recover her, nor hear where she was. Some say that Cybele saved her, and carried her to her temple, of which she became priestess. *Paus.* x. 25.—*Virg. Æn.* iii. 592.

CREX, a species of Rallus. See Ornithology *Index*.

CRIB, the rack or manger of a ſtable, or the ſtall or cabin of an ox. It is alſo uſed for any ſmall habitation, as a cottage, &c.

CRIB, in the Engliſh ſalt-works, a name given to a ſort of caſe uſed in ſome places inſtead of the *drab*, to put the ſalt into as it is taken out of the boiling pan.

CRIBBAGE, a game at cards, to be learnt only by practice.

CRIBRATION, in *Pharmacy*, the paſſing any ſubſtance through a ſieve or ſearce, in order to ſeparate the finer particles from the groſſer.

CRIBROSUM os, in *Anatomy*, called alſo *os ethmoides*. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CRICELASIA, the driving a ring or hoop. Driving a hoop was one of the ancient gymnaſtics: this hoop was as high as the breaſt of the perſon who uſed it. It was commended for rendering the limbs pliable, and for ſtrengthening the nerves.

CRICETUS. See MUS, MAMMALIA *Index*.

CRICHTON, JAMES, a Scots gentleman, who lived in the 16th century, and who, on account of his extraordinary endowments both of body and mind, obtained the appellation of the "admirable Crichton;" by which title he has been diſtinguiſhed to the preſent day. The time of this celebrated perſon's birth is ſaid, by the generality of writers, to have been in 1551; but according to ſome he was born in Auguſt 1560. There is a difference likewiſe between the biographers of this extraordinary man, with regard to his family, and the rank and ſituation of his father. By ſome it is aſſerted, that James Crichton's father was Robert Crichton of Clunie, in the county of Perth; and that this Robert Crichton commanded Queen Mary's army at the battle of Langſide in the year 1568. But it is ſaid by others, that this gentleman was of Elliock in the ſame county, and that he was lord advocate of Scotland in Queen Mary's reign from 1561 to 1573; part of which time he held that office in conjunction with Spens of Condie. The mother of James Crichton was Elizabeth Stuart, the only daughter of Sir James Stuart of Beath, who was a deſcendant of Robert duke of Albany the third ſon of King Robert the ſecond, by Elizabeth Muir or More, as ſhe is commonly called; ſo that when the admirable Crichton boaſted (as he did abroad), that he was ſprung from Scottiſh kings, he ſaid nothing but what was agreeable to truth.

James Crichton is ſaid to have received his grammatical education at Perth, and to have ſtudied philoſophy in the univerſity of St Andrew's. His tutor in that univerſity was Mr John Rutherford, a profeſſor at that time famous for his learning, and who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by writing four books on Ariſtotle's logic and a commentary on his poetics. According to Aldus Manutius, who calls Crichton firſt couſin to the king, he was alſo inſtructed, along with his majeſty, by Buchanan, Hepburn, and Robertſon, as well as by Rutherford; and he had ſcarcely arrived at the 20th year of his age, when he had run through the whole circle of the ſciences, and could ſpeak and write to perfection in ten different languages. Nor was this all; for he had likewiſe improved himſelf to the higheſt degree in riding, dancing, and ſinging, and in playing upon all ſorts of inſtruments.

Crichton, being thus accompliſhed, went abroad upon his travels, and is ſaid to have gone to Paris; of his tranſactions at which place the following account is given. He cauſed placards to be fixed on all the gates of the ſchools, halls, and colleges belonging to the univerſity, and on all the pillars and poſts before the houſes of the moſt renowned men for literature in the city, inviting all thoſe who were well verſed in any art or ſcience, to diſpute with him in the college of Navarre, that day ſix weeks, by nine of the clock in the morning, where he would attend them, and be ready to anſwer to whatever ſhould be propoſed to him in any art or ſcience, and in any of theſe 12 languages, Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Greek, Latin, Spaniſh, French, Italian, Engliſh, Dutch, Flemiſh, and Sclavonian; and this either in verſe or proſe at the diſcretion of the diſputant. During this whole time, inſtead of cloſely applying to his ſtudies, he regarded nothing but hunting, hawking, tilting, vaulting, riding of a well managed horſe, toſſing the pike, handling the muſket, and other military feats; or elſe he employed himſelf in domeſtic games, ſuch as balls, concerts of muſic vocal and inſtrumental, cards, dice, tennis, and ſuch like diverſions of youth. This conduct ſo provoked the ſtudents of the univerſity, that, beneath the placard which was fixed on the Navarre gate, they cauſed the following words to be written: "If you would meet with this monſter of perfection, to make ſearch for him either in the tavern or bawdy-houſe is the readieſt way to find him." Nevertheleſs, when the day appointed arrived, Crichton appeared in the college of Navarre, and acquitted himſelf beyond expreſſion in the diſputation, which laſted from nine o'clock in the morning till ſix at night. At length, the preſident, after extolling him highly for the many rare and excellent endowments which God and nature had beſtowed upon him, roſe from his chair, and accompanied by four of the moſt eminent profeſſors of the univerſity, gave him a diamond ring and a purſe full of gold, as a teſtimony of their love and favour. The whole ended with the repeated acclamations and huzzas of the ſpectators; and henceforward our young diſputant was called the "admirable Crichton." It is added, that he was ſo little fatigued with the diſpute, that he went on the very next day to the Louvre, where he had a match of tilting (an exerciſe then in much requeſt), and in the preſence of ſome of the princes of the court of France, and a great many ladies, carried away the ring 15 times ſucceſſively.

About two years after this we find him at Rome, where he affixed a placard upon all the eminent places of the city, in the following terms: *Nos Jacobus Crichtonus Scotus, cuicumque rei propoſitæ ex improviſo reſpondebimus.* In a city which abounded in wit, this bold challenge, to anſwer to any queſtion that could be propoſed to him without his being previouſly advertiſed of it, could not eſcape the ridicule of a paſquinade. It is ſaid, however, that being nowiſe diſcouraged, he appeared at the time and place appointed; and that, in the preſence of the pope, many cardinals, biſhops, doctors of divinity, and profeſſors in all the ſciences, he diſplayed ſuch wonderful proofs of his univerſal knowledge, that he excited no leſs ſurpriſe than he had done at Paris. Boccalini, who was then at Rome, gives ſomething of a different relation

Crichton. relation of the matter. According to this author, the pasquinade against Crichton, which was to the following effect, "*And he that will see* it, *let him go to the sign of the Falcon and* it *shall be shown*," made such an impression upon him, that he left a place where he had been so grossly affronted as to be put upon a level with jugglers and mountebanks.

From Rome he went to Venice; where he contracted an intimate friendship with Aldus Manutius, Laurentius Massa, Speron Speronius, Johannes Donatus, and various other learned persons, to whom he presented several poems in commendation of the city and university. At length he was introduced to the doge and senate, in whose presence he made a speech, which was accompanied with such beauty of eloquence, and such grace of person and manner, that he received the thanks of that illustrious body, and nothing was talked of through the whole city but this *rara in terris avis*, this prodigy of nature. He held, likewise, disputations on the subjects of theology, philosophy, and mathematics, before the most eminent professors, and large multitudes of people. His reputation was so great, that the desire of seeing and hearing him brought together a vast concourse of persons from different quarters to Venice. It may be collected from Manutius, that the time in which Crichton exhibited these demonstrations of his abilities was in the year 1580.

During his residence at Venice, he fell into a bad state of health, which continued for the space of four months. However, before he was perfectly recovered, he went, by the advice of his friends, to Padua, the university of which city was at that time in great reputation. The next day after his arrival, there was a meeting of all the learned men of the place, at the house of Jacobus Aloysius Cornelius; when Crichton opened the assembly with an extemporary poem in praise of the city, the university, and the company who had honoured him with their presence. After this, he disputed for six hours with the most celebrated professors on various subjects of learning; and he exposed, in particular, the errors of Aristotle and his commentators, with so much solidity and acuteness, and at the same time with so much modesty, that he excited universal admiration. In conclusion, he delivered extempore an oration in praise of ignorance, which was conducted with such ingenuity and elegance, that his hearers were astonished. This exhibition of Crichton's talents was on the 14th of March 1581. Soon after he appointed a day for another disputation to be held at the palace of the bishop of Padua; not for the purpose of affording higher proofs of his abilities, for that could not possibly be done, but in compliance with the earnest solicitations of some persons who were not present at the former assembly. However, several circumstances occurred which prevented this meeting from taking place. Such is the account of Manutius: but Imperialis relates, that he was informed by his father, who was present upon the occasion, that Crichton was opposed by Archangelus Mercenarius, a famous philosopher; and that he acquitted himself so well as to obtain the approbation of a very honourable company, and even of his antagonist himself.

Amidst the discourses which were occasioned by our young Scotsman's exploits, and the high applauses that were bestowed upon his genius and attainments, there were not wanting some who endeavoured to detract from his merit. For ever, therefore, to confound these invidious impugners of his talents, he caused a paper to be fixed on the gates of St John and St Paul's church, wherein he offered to prove before the university, that the errors of Aristotle, and of all his followers, were almost innumerable; and that the latter had failed both in explaining their master's meaning, and in treating on theological subjects. He promised likewise to refute the dreams of certain mathematical professors; to dispute in all the sciences, and to answer to whatever should be proposed to him or objected against him. All this he engaged to do, either in the common logical way, or by numbers and mathematical figures, or in 100 sorts of verses, at the pleasure of his opponents. According to Manutius, Crichton sustained this contest, without fatigue, for three days; during which time he supported his credit, and maintained his propositions, with such spirit and energy, that from an unusual concourse of people, he obtained acclamations and praises, than which none more magnificent were ever heard by men.

From Padua, Crichton set out for Mantua; where there happened to be at the time a gladiator, who had foiled in his travels the most famous fencers in Europe, and had lately killed three who had entered the lists with him in this city. The duke of Mantua was much grieved at having granted this man his protection, as he found it to be attended with such fatal consequences. Crichton being informed of his highness's concern, offered his service, not only to drive the murderer from Mantua, but from Italy; and to fight him for 1500 pistoles. Though the duke was unwilling to expose such an accomplished gentleman to so great a hazard; yet relying upon the report he had heard of his warlike atchievements, he agreed to the proposal; and the time and place being appointed, the whole court attended to behold the performance. At the beginning of the combat Crichton stood only upon his defence; while the Italian made his attack with such eagerness and fury, that, having overacted himself, he began to grow weary. Crichton now seized the opportunity of attacking his antagonist in return; which he did with so much dexterity and vigour, that he ran him through the body in three different places, of which wounds he immediately died. The acclamations of the spectators were loud and extraordinary upon this occasion; and it was acknowledged by all of them, that they had never seen Art grace Nature, or Nature second the precepts of Art, in so lively a manner as they had beheld these two things accomplished on that day. To crown the glory of the action, Crichton bestowed the prize of his victory upon the widows of the three persons who had lost their lives in fighting with the gladiator.

It is asserted, that in consequence of this and his other wonderful performances, the duke of Mantua made choice of him for preceptor to his son Vicentio di Gonzaga, who is represented as being of a riotous temper and a dissolute life. The appointment was highly pleasing to the court. Crichton, to testify his gratitude to his friends and benefactors, and to contribute to their diversion, framed, we are told, a comedy, wherein he exposed and

Crichton.

and ridiculed all the weakneſſes and failures of the ſeveral employments in which men are engaged. This compoſition was regarded as one of the moſt ingenious ſatires that ever was made upon mankind. But the moſt aſtoniſhing part of the ſtory is that Crichton ſuſtained 15 characters in the repreſentation of his own play. Among the reſt, he acted the divine, the philoſopher, the lawyer, the mathematician, the phyſician, and the ſoldier, with ſuch inimitable grace, that every time he appeared on the theatre he ſeemed to be a different perſon.

From being the principal actor in a comedy, Crichton ſoon became the ſubject of a dreadful tragedy. One night, during the time of carnival, as he was walking along the ſtreets of Mantua, and playing upon his guitar, he was attacked by half a dozen people in maſks. The aſſailants found that they had no ordinary perſon to deal with, for they were not able to maintain their ground againſt him. In the iſſue, the leader of the company being diſarmed, pulled off his maſk, and begged his life, telling him that he was the prince his pupil. Crichton immediately fell upon his knees and expreſſed his concern for his miſtake; alleging, that what he had done was only in his own defence, and that if Gonzaga had any deſign upon his life, he might always be maſter of it. Then taking his own ſword by the point, he preſented it to the prince, who immediately received it, and was ſo irritated by the affront which he thought he had ſuſtained in being foiled with all his attendants, that he inſtantly ran Crichton through the heart.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the motives which could induce Vincentio di Gonzaga to be guilty of ſo ungenerous and brutal an action. Some have aſcribed it to jealouſy, aſſerting that he ſuſpected Crichton to be more in favour than himſelf with a lady whom he paſſionately loved; and Sir Thomas Urquhart has told a ſtory upon this head which is extravagant and ridiculous in the higheſt degree. Others, with great probability, repreſent the whole tranſaction as the reſult of a drunken frolic: and it is uncertain, according to Imperialis, whether the meeting of the prince and Crichton was by accident or deſign. However, it is agreed on all hands that Crichton loſt his life in the rencounter. The time of his deceaſe is ſaid, by the generality of his biographers, to have been in the beginning of July 1583; but others fix it to the ſame month in the preceding year. There is a difference, likewiſe, with regard to the period of life at which Crichton died. The common accounts declare that he was killed in the 32d year of his age: but Imperialis aſſerts that he was only in his 22d year when that calamitous event took place; and this fact is confirmed by other writers.

Crichton's tragical end excited a very great and general lamentation. If Sir Thomas Urquhart is to be credited, the whole court of Mantua went three quarters of a year into mourning for him; the epitaphs and elegies that were compoſed upon his death and ſtuck upon his hearſe, would exceed, if collected, the bulk of Homer's works; and, for a long time afterwards, his picture was to be ſeen in moſt of the bedchambers and galleries of the Italian nobility, repreſenting him on horſeback, with a lance in the one hand and a book in the other. The ſame author tells us, that Crichton gained the eſteem of kings and princes, by his magnanimity and knowledge; of noblemen and gentlemen, by his courtlineſs and breeding; of knights, by his honourable deportment and pregnancy of wit; of the rich, by his affability and good fellowſhip; of the poor, by his munificence and liberality; of the old, by his conſtancy and wiſdom; of the young, by his mirth and gallantry; of the learned, by his univerſal knowledge; of the ſoldiers, by his undaunted valour and courage; of the merchants and artificers, by his upright dealing and honeſty; and of the fair ſex, by his beauty and handſomeneſs, in which reſpect he was a maſterpiece of nature.

Joannes Imperialis, in his life of Crichton, ſays, that he was the wonder of the laſt age; the prodigious production of nature; the glory and ornament of Parnaſſus, in a ſtupendous and unuſual manner; and that, in the judgment of the learned world, he was the phœnix of literature, and rather a ſhining particle of the Divine Mind and Majeſty than a model of what could be attained by human induſtry. The ſame author, after highly celebrating the beauty of his perſon, aſſerts that his extraordinary eloquence and his admirable knowledge of things teſtified that he poſſeſſed a ſtrength of genius wholly divine. "What (adds this writer) can more exceed our comprehenſion, than that Crichton, in the 21ſt year of his age, ſhould be maſter of ten different languages, and perfectly well verſed in philoſophy, mathematics, theology, polite literature, and all other ſciences? Beſides was it ever heard in the whole compaſs of the globe, that to theſe extraordinary endowments of the mind, ſhould be added a ſingular ſkill in fencing, dancing, ſinging, riding, and in every exerciſe of the gymnaſtic art?" Nay, Imperialis, in his account of Crichton's death, declares, that the report of ſo ſad a cataſtrophe was ſpread to the remoteſt parts of the earth; that it diſturbed univerſal nature; and that in her grief for the loſs of the wonder ſhe had produced, ſhe threatened never more to confer ſuch honour upon mankind. Compared with theſe extravagancies, the aſſertion of Bayle that Crichton was one of the greateſt prodigies of wit that ever lived, and the teſtimony of Felix Aſtolfus concerning his wonderful memory, may be conſidered as modeſt encomiums.

Such are the accounts which, by a ſucceſſion of writers, and particularly ſince the time of Mackenzie, have been given of the admirable Crichton. Theſe accounts are indeed ſo wonderful, that many perſons have been diſpoſed to conſider them as in a great meaſure, if not entirely, fabulous. We ſhall therefore ſubjoin from the *Biographia Britannica* the following obſervation of Dr Kippis, with a view to aſcertain what portion of faith is due to the different parts of the preceding narrative, or at leaſt to aſſiſt the reader in forming a proper judgment concerning them.

The doctor begins with obſerving, "That no credit can be granted to any facts that depend upon the ſole authority of Sir Thomas Urquhart. Mr Pennant indeed ſpeaks of him with approbation; and Dr Samuel Johnſon laid a ſtreſs on his veracity, in the account of Crichton which he dedicated to Dr Hawkeſworth, and is inſerted in the 81ſt number of the Adventurer: of which account it may be obſerved, that it is only an

Crichton. an elegant ſummary of the life written by Mackenzie. But with all deference to theſe reſpectable names, I muſt declare my full perſuaſion that Sir Thomas Urquhart is an author whoſe teſtimony to facts is totally unworthy of regard; and it is ſurpriſing that a peruſal of his works does not ſtrike every mind with this conviction. His productions are ſo inexpreſſibly abſurd and extravagant, that the only rational judgment which can be pronounced concerning him is, that he was little, if at all, better than a madman. To the character of his having been a madman muſt be added that of his being a liar. Severe as this term may be thought, I apprehend that a diligent examination of the treatiſe which contains the memorials concerning Crichton, would ſhow that it is ſtrictly true. But of his total diſregard to truth there is inconteſtable evidence in another work of his, entitled, The true Pedigree and Lineal Deſcent of the moſt ancient and honourable Family of the Urquharts in the Houſe of Cromarty, from the Creation of the World until the year of God 1652. In this work it is almoſt incredible what a number of falſities he has invented both with reſpect to names and facts. Perhaps a more flagrant inſtance of impoſture and fiction was never exhibited; and the abſurdity of the whole pedigree is beyond the power of words to expreſs. It can only be felt by thoſe who have peruſed the tract itſelf. Such a man therefore can juſtly be entitled to no degree of credit, eſpecially when he has a purpoſe to ſerve, as was the caſe with Sir Thomas Urquhart. His deſign was to exalt his own family and his own nation at any rate. With reſpect to his own nation, there was no occaſion for having recourſe to fiction, in order to diſplay the luſtre of Scotland, in the eminent men whom it has produced in arms and literature. The pencil of truth alone would have been amply ſufficient for that purpoſe (A).

"So far therefore as Sir Thomas Urquhart's authority is concerned, the wonderful exhibitions of Crichton at Paris, his triumph at Rome, his combat with the gladiator, his writing an Italian comedy, his ſuſtaining fifteen characters in the repreſentation of that comedy, the extraordinary ſtory of the amour which is deſcribed as the cauſe of his death, the nine months mourning for him at Mantua, and the poems hung round his hearſe to the quantity of Homer's works, muſt be regarded as in the higheſt degree doubtful, or rather abſolutely falſe. I cannot forbear mentioning two circumſtances, which ſhow how much Sir Thomas Urquhart was deſtitute of prudence, as well as of ſcrupuloſity, in his violations of truth. He ſays that the duke of Mantua was pleaſed to confer upon the young lady that was Crichton's miſtreſs and future wife, a penſion of five hundred ducats a year; and that the prince alſo beſtowed as much upon her during all the days of his life, 'which was (adds Sir Thomas) but ſhort; for he did not long enjoy himſelf after the croſs fate of ſo miſerable an accident.' Now it is well known that Vincenzo di Gonzaga ſucceeded his father in the dukedom of Mantua in 1587, and that he did not die till the year 1612; which was almoſt, if not entirely, thirty years after Crichton's deceaſe. The other inſtance of the imprudence of Sir Thomas Urquhart in the contrivance of his fictions, occurs at the concluſion of his narrative, where he aſſerts that the verity of the ſtory which he hath related concerning the incomparable Crichton, 'may be certified by two thouſand men yet living who have known him.' *Two thouſand men yet living!* that is, in 1652, ſixty-nine or ſeventy years after Crichton's death, for ſuch was the time of Sir Thomas's publication. Our author would have been ſadly puzzled to collect together theſe two thouſand living witneſſes who could certify the verity of his ſtory.

"With regard, however, to the account which is given of the prodigious exertions of Crichton, both corporeal and mental, at Paris, Mackenzie imagines that he has found a full confirmation of them in a paſſage produced by him from the *Diſquiſitiones* of Stephen Paſquier, and which he conſiders as the teſtimony of an eye-witneſs. But the whole of what has been built upon it by Mackenzie, and ſucceeding biographers, is founded on a miſtake. In the quotation from the *Diſquiſitiones*, the name of Crichton is not mentioned, and the author doth not appear to have been perſonally preſent at the exhibitions of the extraordinary youth there deſcribed. The expreſſions which are ſuppoſed to carry that meaning may well be referred not to the writer himſelf, but to his countrymen the French, before whom the young man is ſaid to have diſplayed his ſurpriſing talents. But the diſcuſſion of this point is totally needleſs, becauſe the paſſage in queſtion is not an original authority. The book entitled *Stephani Paſchieri Diſquiſitiones* is only an abridgement in Latin of Paſquier's *Des Recherches de la France*. Now, in this laſt work there is indeed an account of a wonderful youth, ſuch as is related in Mackenzie's quotation, and from which that paſſage was formed. But this wonderful youth, whoever he might be, was not the admirable Crichton: for Paſquier, who does not tell his name, expreſsly ſays that he appeared in the year 1445 (B). The evidence, therefore, produced by Mackenzie falls entirely to the ground. Indeed, if the ſtory of Crichton's exploits at Paris

(A) This was probably meant as a ſatire, and not as a ſerious production.

(B) This matter has been ſet in a clear light by the writer of the following letter.

"SIR,

"We are informed by Sir John Hawkins, that Dr Johnſon dictated from memory that account of the perſon vulgarly named *the Admirable Crichton*, which is to be found in one of the papers of the Adventurer.

"That account is plainly an abridgment of the life of Crichton by Dr George Mackenzie. Dr Mackenzie ſuppoſes that Paſquier, the French lawyer and antiquary, was an eye-witneſs of the feats performed in arts as well as in arms by Crichton. This is one of the groſſeſt errors in biography which has occurred to me in the courſe of my reading; and it is an error which I perceive is gaining ground daily, and bids fair in a ſhort time to be received as an indiſputable truth.

"The

Crichton.

Paris had been true, no man was more likely to be acquainted with them than Stephen Pasquier, who lived at the time, and who would be fond enough of recording transactions so extraordinary. It may farther be observed, that Thuanus, who was likewise a contemporary, and who in his own life is very particular in what relates to learned men, makes no mention of Crichton. The only authority for his having ever resided in France at all (Sir Thomas Urquhart excepted) is that of Dr John Johnston, who says *Gallia pectus excolit.* But this amounts to no proof of the truth of the transactions related by Urquhart. The whole which can be deduced from it is, that Crichton, in the course of his travels, might make some stay in France for the purpose of improvement. Even this, however, doth not agree with the narration of Imperialis, who informs us, that when troubles arose in Scotland on account of religion, and Queen Mary fell into so many calamities, Crichton was sent by his father directly from that country to Venice as a place of security.

"It is acknowledged by Sir John Hawkins, that Sir Thomas Urquhart has produced no authorities in support of his surprising narrations. But this defect, Sir John thinks, is supplied in the Life of Crichton which is given in Mr Pennant's Tour. I am under the necessity of saying, that this is by no means the case. The article in Pennant was not drawn up by that ingenious and learned gentleman, but is the transcript of a pamphlet that was printed some years ago at Aberdeen; and which pamphlet is nothing more than a republication, with a few verbal alterations, of the Life of Crichton written by Mackenzie. It doth not, therefore, furnish a single additional testimony in confirmation of Sir Thomas Urquhart's stories, excepting in the mistaken instance from Pasquier. In other respects it only borrows facts from Sir Thomas Urquhart, without establishing them upon fresh proofs. It is observable, that the earlier biographers of Crichton had no knowledge of most of the transactions enlarged upon by this extravagant writer; for if they had known them, they would have been eagerly disposed to relate them, and to do it with every circumstance of exaggeration. How much this was the character of Thomas Dempster, with regard to his own countrymen, is sufficiently understood, and hath frequently been remarked; and yet his account of Crichton is uncommonly modest, compared with those of succeeding authors. The extravagance of Imperialis in respect to Crichton has already appeared. There seems indeed to have been an universal tendency in the writers of this young Scotsman's life to produce wonder and astonishment. Mackenzie remarks, that Imperialis could not but know the truth of all, or at least of most of, the things he has related concerning Crichton, since he lived upon the places in which they were transacted, and had them from an eye and ear witness, even his own father. It is, however, to be remembered, that Imperialis's *Museum Historicum* was not published till 1640, nearly sixty years after the events recorded by him happened; to which may be added, that the information he derived from his father was probably very imperfect. Imperialis the elder was not born till 1568, and consequently was only thirteen years old when Crichton displayed his talents at Padua. What real dependence, therefore, could there be on the accuracy of the account given by a youth of that age? He could only relate, and perhaps from inadequate intelligence, the things which were talked of when he was a boy. Besides, his authority is appealed to for no more than a single fact, and that a doubtful one, since it does not accord with Manutius's narrative; and who ever heard of the famous philosopher Archangelus Mercenarius?

"The

"The error seems to have arisen from the following circumstance: Dr Mackenzie had never read the original work of Pasquier, entitled *Recherches de la France;* what he quotes concerning *the wonderful young man* is taken from a Latin abridgement of that work: he refers to *Steph. Pasch.* Disquis. lib. v. cap. 23. and he gives his quotation in Latin; indeed it does not appear that Dr Mackenzie had ever heard of the original work. Now Pasquier, instead of saying that he was an eye-witness of the wonders exhibited by Crichton, says, in the most unequivocal terms, that what he relates was taken 'from a manuscript which was occasionally used by him,' (*d'un livre ecrit à la main, dont je m' aide selon les occurrences*). And he adds, 'I will represent the story in its own simple garb, without any artificial colouring, so that my readers may be the more inclined to give credit to it,' (*vous representant cette histoire en sa simplicité, sans y apporter aucun fard pour ce que vous y adjousteres plus de foy*). He then describes the narrative from the MS. which places the appearance of this phenomenon in the year 1445, a full century before the birth of our Crichton. See *Recherches de la France*, lib. vi. c. 38. 39.

"Dr Mackenzie, although he had not read the original of Pasquier, appears to have read an author who quotes the same story: 'The learned M. du Launoy (says he), in his History of the College of Navarre, finding the history of this dispute recorded in a MS. History of the College of Navarre, and the like account of a Spaniard in Trithemius, confounds the two together, and *robs* our author of the glory of this action, and places it in the year 1445; whereas it should be in the year 1571.' This charge of *robbery* is singular enough.

"Let me only add, that Pasquier transcribes some verses written by George Chastelain, a French poet in the reign of Charles VII. king of France, which allude to the same story; and that Pasquier himself was born at Paris in 1528, passed his life in that city, and was an eminent lawyer and pleader in 1571; so that it is impossible the feats of Crichton, had they been really performed at Paris, could have been unknown to him, and most improbable that, knowing them, he would have omitted to mention them; for, in the same lib. vi. c. 39. he is at pains to produce examples of great proficiency, displayed by men in a much humbler rank of life than that of philosophers and public disputants. I am, &c.*"

* *Edin. Mag.* 1787.

Crichton.

"The truth of the matter is, that ſome ſlight circumſtances excepted, neither Dempſter nor Imperialis have produced any evidences of Crichton's extraordinary abilities beſides thoſe which are recorded by the younger Aldus Manutius. He therefore is to be regarded as the only living authority upon the ſubject. Manutius was contemporary with Crichton; he was cloſely connected with him in friendſhip; and he relates ſeveral things on his own perſonal knowledge. He is a poſitive and undoubted witneſs with reſpect to our young Scotſman's intellectual and literary exertions at Venice and at Padua; and from him it is that our account of them is given above. Nevertheleſs, even Aldus Manutius is to be read with ſome degree of caution. Dedications are apt to aſſume the ſtyle of exaggeration, and this is the caſe with Manutius's dedication of the *Paradoxa Ciceronis* to Crichton. In addition to the general language of ſuch addreſſes, he might be carried too far by his affection for his friend, which appears to have been very great: nor was the younger Aldus eminent for ſteadineſs and conſiſtency of character. It is even ſaid that by his imprudencies he fell into contempt and miſery. But independently of any conſiderations of this kind, it may be obſerved, that Manutius's narrative, previous to Crichton's arrival at Venice, could not be derived from perſonal knowledge. For that part of it (which is ſufficiently erroneous) he was probably indebted to Crichton himſelf. Neither does he appear to have been an eye-witneſs of the whole of the diſputations which were held at Padua; for ſpeaking of his young friend's praiſe of ignorance, he relates, that thoſe who were preſent told him afterwards how much they were ſtruck with that oration. However, at the other diſputation, which laſted three days, Manutius ſeems certainly to have attended; for he concludes his accounts of it with ſaying, that he was not only the adviſer but the ſpectator of Crichton's wonderful conteſts. It is evident, however, from the dedication, that his extraordinary abilities were not univerſally acknowledged and admired. Some there were who detracted from them, and were diſpleaſed with Manutius for ſo warmly ſupporting his reputation.

"As to the real cauſe and manner of our young Scotſman's death, both of them ſtill remain in ſome degree of obſcurity. That he was killed in a rencounter at the carnival at Mantua, is teſtified by too many authors to be reaſonably doubted. But whether there was that particular malignity on the part of Vincenzo di Gonzaga, which is commonly aſcribed to him, may be conſidered as uncertain.

"One important method yet remains by which we may be enabled to form a judgment of Crichton's genius, and that is from a peruſal of the four poems of his which are ſtill preſerved. It is, however, to be feared, that theſe will not exhibit him in a very high point of view. Some fancy, perhaps, may be thought to be diſplayed in the longeſt of his poems, which was written on occaſion of his approach to the city of Venice. He there repreſents a Naiad as riſing up before him; and, by the order of the Muſes and of Minerva, directing him how to proceed. But this is a ſentiment which ſo eaſily preſents itſelf to a claſſical reader, that it can ſcarcely be conſidered as deſerving the name of a poetical invention. The three other poems of Crichton have ſtill leſs to recommend them. Indeed his verſes will not ſtand the teſt of a rigid examination even with regard to quantity.

"What then is the opinion which on the whole we are to form of the admirable Crichton? It is evident that he was a youth of ſuch lively parts as excited great preſent admiration, and high expectation with regard to his future attainments. He appears to have had a fine perſon, to have been adroit in his bodily exerciſes, to have poſſeſſed a peculiar facility in learning languages, to have enjoyed a remarkably quick and retentive memory, and to have excelled in a power of declamation, a fluency of ſpeech, and a readineſs of reply. His knowledge, likewiſe, was probably very uncommon for his years; and this, in conjunction with his other qualities, enabled him to ſhine in public diſputation. But whether his knowledge and learning were accurate or profound, may juſtly be queſtioned; and it may equally be doubted whether he would have ariſen to any extraordinary degree of eminence in the literary world. It will always be reflected upon with regret, that his early and untimely death prevented this matter from being brought to the teſt of experiment."

From the portraits which remain of Crichton, it appears that in his face and form he was beautiful and elegant, and that his body and limbs, though not muſcular or athletic, were well proportioned and fitted for feats of agility. The following catalogue of Crichton's work's is given by Dempſter: 1. *Odæ ad Laurentium Maſſam plures.* 2. *Laudes Patavinæ, Carmen extempore effuſum, cum in Jacobi Moyſii Cornelii domo experimentum ingenii coram tota Academiæ frequentia, non ſine multorum ſtupore, faceret.* 3. *Ignorationis Laudatio, extemporale Thema ibidem redditum, poſt ſex horarum diſputationes, ut præſentes ſomnia potius fovere quam rem ſe veram videre affirmarint, ait Manutius.* 4. *De Appulſo ſuo Venetias.* 5. *Odæ ad Aldum Manutium.* 6. *Epiſtolæ ad Diverſos.* 7. *Præfationes ſolemnes in omnes Scientias ſacras et profanas.* 8. *Judicium de Philoſophis.* 9. *Errores Ariſtotelis.* 10. *Arma an Literæ Præſtant, Controverſia oratoria.* 11. *Refutatio Mathematicorum.* 12. A Comedy in the Italian language.

CRICK, among farriers, is when a horſe cannot turn his neck any manner of way, but holds it fore right, inſomuch that he cannot take his meat from the ground without great pain.

CRICKET. See GRYLLUS, ENTOMOLOGY *Index.*

CRICKET is alſo the name of an exerciſe or game, with bats and a ball.

Mole-CRICKET. See GRYLLOTALPA, ENTOMOLOGY *Index.*

CRICKLADE, a borough town of Wiltſhire, ſituated on the river Iſis, about 26 miles ſouth-weſt of Oxford. It ſends two members to parliament. W. Long. 1. 55. N. Lat. 51. 35.

CRICOARYTENOIDÆUS, in *Anatomy*, a name given to two muſcles of the larynx. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles.*

CRICOIDES, in *Anatomy*, a cartilage of the larynx, called alſo the *annular cartilage.* It occupies the loweſt part by way of baſe to the reſt of the cartilages, and to the lower part of it the aſpera arteria adheres. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles.*

CRICOTHYROIDÆUS,

Cricothyroidæus || Crime and Punishment.

CRICOTHYROIDÆUS, in *Anatomy*, one of the five proper muſcles of the larynx. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles*.

CRIM-TARTARS, a people of Aſia, ſo called becauſe they originally came from Crimea. They rove from place to place in ſearch of paſtures, their houſes being drawn on carts. There are a great number of them about Aſtrachan, to which place they flock in the winter-time; but they are not permitted to enter the city: for this reaſon, they erect huts up and down in the open fields: which are made either of bulruſhes or reeds, being about 12 feet in diameter, of a round form, and with a hole at the top to let out the ſmoke. Their fuel is turf or cow-dung; and when the weather is very cold, they cover the hut with a coarſe cloth, and ſometimes paſs ſeveral days without ſtirring out. They are generally of ſmall ſtature, with large faces, little eyes, and of an olive complexion. The men are generally ſo wrinkled in their faces, that they look like old women. Their common food is fiſh dried in the ſun, which ſerves them inſtead of bread; and they eat the fleſh of horſes as well as camels. Their drink is water and milk, eſpecially mares milk, which they carry about in naſty leathern bags. Their garments are of coarſe gray cloth, with a looſe mantle made of a black ſheep's ſkin, and a cap of the ſame. The women are clothed in white linen, with which they likewiſe dreſs their heads, hanging a great many Moſcovian pence about them; and there is likewiſe a hole left to ſtick feathers in. As for their religion, they are a ſort of Mahometans; but do not coop up their women like the Turks.

CRIM-Tartary, or *Crimea*. See CRIMEA.

CRIME *and* PUNISHMENT. The diſcuſſion and admeaſurement of crimes and puniſhments forms in every country the code of criminal law; or, as it is more uſually denominated in England, the doctrine of the *pleas of the crown*; ſo called, becauſe the king, in whom centres the majeſty of the whole community, is ſuppoſed by the law to be the perſon injured by every infraction of the public rights belonging to that community; and is therefore in all caſes the proper proſecutor for every public offence.

The knowledge of this branch of juriſprudence, which teaches the nature, extent, and degrees of every crime, and adjuſts to it its adequate and neceſſary penalty, is of the utmoſt importance to every individual in the ſtate. For no rank or elevation in life, no uprightneſs of heart, no prudence or circumſpection of conduct, ſhould tempt a man to conclude, that he may not at ſome time or other be deeply intereſted in theſe reſearches. The infirmities of the beſt among us, the vices and ungovernable paſſions of others, the inſtability of all human affairs, and the numberleſs unforeſeen events which the compaſs of a day may bring forth, will teach us (upon a moment's reflection), that to know with preciſion what the laws of our country have forbidden, and the deplorable conſequences to which a wilful diſobedience may expoſe us, is a matter of univerſal concern.

In proportion to the importance of the criminal law, ought alſo to be the care and attention of the legiſlature in properly forming and enforcing it. It ſhould be founded upon principles that are permanent, uniform and univerſal; and always conformable to the dictates of truth and juſtice, the feelings of humanity, and the indelible rights of mankind: though it ſometimes (provided there be no tranſgreſſion of theſe eternal boundaries) may be modified, narrowed, or enlarged, according to the local or occaſional neceſſities of the ſtate which it is meant to govern. And yet, either from a want of attention to thoſe principles in the firſt concoction of the laws, and adopting in their ſtead the impetuous dictates of avarice, ambition, and revenge; from retaining the diſcordant political regulations, which ſucceſſive conquerors or factions have eſtabliſhed, in the various revolutions of government; from giving a laſting efficacy to ſanctions that were intended to be temporary, and made (as Lord Bacon expreſſes it) merely upon the ſpur of the occaſion; or, laſtly, from too haſtily employing ſuch means as are greatly diſproportionate to their ends, in order to check the progreſs of ſome very prevalent offence;—from ſome, or from all, of theſe cauſes, it hath happened, that the criminal law is in every country of Europe more rude and imperfect than the civil. We ſhall not here enter into any minute inquiries concerning the local conſtitutions of other nations; the inhumanity and miſtaken policy of which have been ſufficiently pointed out by ingenious writers of their own *. But even with us in Britain, where our crown-law is with juſtice ſuppoſed to be more nearly advanced to perfection; where crimes are more accurately defined, and penalties leſs uncertain and arbitrary; where all our accuſations are public, and our trials in the face of the world; where torture is unknown, and every delinquent is judged by ſuch of his equals, againſt whom he can form no exception, or even a perſonal diſlike:—even here we ſhall occaſionally find room to remark ſome particulars that ſeem to want reviſion and amendment. Theſe have chiefly ariſen from too ſcrupulous an adherence to ſome rules of the ancient common law, when the reaſons have ceaſed upon which thoſe rules were founded; from not repealing ſuch of the old penal laws as are either obſolete or abſurd; and from too little care and attention in framing and paſſing new ones. The enacting of penalties to which a whole nation ſhall be ſubject, ought not to be left, as a matter of indifference to the paſſions or intereſts of a few, who upon temporary motives may prefer or ſupport ſuch a bill; but be calmly and maturely conſidered by perſons who know what proviſions the laws have already made to remedy the miſchief complained of, who can from experience foreſee the probable conſequences of thoſe which are now propoſed, and who will judge without paſſion or prejudice how adequate they are to the evil. It is never uſual in the houſe of peers even to read a private bill which may affect the property of an individual, without firſt referring it to ſome of the learned judges, and hearing their report thereon. And ſurely equal precaution is neceſſary, when laws are to be eſtabliſhed which may affect the property, the liberty, and perhaps even the lives of thouſands. Had ſuch a reference taken place, it is impoſſible that in the 16th century it could ever have been made a capital crime, to break down (however maliciouſly) the mound of a fiſhpond, whereby any fiſh ſhall eſcape; or to cut down a cherry-tree in an orchard. Were even a committee appointed

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* As Baron Monteſquieu, Marquis of Beccaria, &c.

Blackſt. Comment.

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pointed but once in 100 years to revise the criminal law, it could not have continued to this hour a felony without benefit of clergy, to be seen for one month in the company of persons who call themselves, or are called, *Egyptians*.

It is true, that these outrageous penalties, being seldom or never inflicted, are hardly known to be the law by the public; but that rather aggravates the mischief, by laying a snare for the unwary. Yet they cannot but occur to the observation of any one, who hath undertaken the task of examining the great outlines of our law, and tracing them up to their principles; and it is the duty of such a one to hint them with decency to those whose abilities and stations enable them to apply the remedy. We now proceed to consider (in the first place) the general nature of *crimes*.

I. A crime, or misdemeanour, is an act committed, or omitted, in violation of a public law, either forbidding or commanding it. This general definition comprehends both crimes and misdemeanours; which, properly speaking, are mere synonymous terms; though, in common usage, the word "crimes" is made to denote such offences as are of a deeper and more atrocious dye; while smaller faults, and omissions of less consequence, are comprised under the gentler name of "misdemeanours" only.

The distinction of public wrongs from private, of crimes and misdemeanours from civil injuries, seems principally to consist in this; that private wrongs, or civil injuries, are an infringement or privation of the civil rights which belong to individuals, considered merely as individuals; public wrongs, or crimes and misdemeanours, are a breach and violation of the public rights and duties, due to the whole community, considered as a community, in its social aggregate capacity. As if I detain a field from another man, to which the law has given him a right, this is a civil injury, and not a crime; for here only the right of an individual is concerned, and it is immaterial to the public which of us is in possession of the land; but treason, murder, and robbery, are properly ranked among crimes; since, besides the injury done to individuals, they strike at the very being of society; which cannot possibly subsist, where actions of this sort are suffered to escape with impunity.

In all cases the crime includes an injury; every public offence is also a private wrong, and somewhat more; it affects the individual, and it likewise affects the community. Thus treason in imagining the king's death, involves in it conspiracy against the individual, which is also a civil injury; but as this species of treason in its consequences principally tends to the dissolution of government, and the destruction thereby of the order and peace of society, this denominates it a crime of the highest magnitude. Murder is an injury to the life of an individual; but the law of society considers principally the loss which the state sustains by being deprived of a member, and the pernicious example thereby set for others to do the like. Robbery may be considered in the same view: it is an injury to private property; but, were that all, a civil satisfaction in damages might atone for it; the public mischief is the thing, for the prevention of which our laws have made it a capital offence. In these gross and atrocious injuries the private wrong is swallowed up in the public; we seldom hear any mention made of satisfaction to the individual; the satisfaction to the community being so very great. And indeed, as the public crime is not otherwise avenged than by forfeiture of life and property, it is impossible afterwards to make any reparation for the private wrong; which can only be had from the body or goods of the aggressor. But there are crimes of an inferior nature, in which the public punishment is not so severe, but it affords room for a private compensation also; and herein the distinction of crimes from civil injuries is very apparent. For instance, in the case of battery, or beating another, the aggressor may be indicted for this at the suit of the king, for disturbing the public peace, and be punished criminally by fine and imprisonment; and the party beaten may also have his private remedy by action of trespass for the injury, which he in particular sustains, and recover a civil satisfaction in damages. So also, in case of a public nuisance, as digging a ditch across a highway, this is punishable by indictment, as a common offence to the whole kingdom, and all his majesty's subjects: but if any individual sustains any special damage thereby, as laming his horse, breaking his carriage, or the like, the offender may be compelled to make ample satisfaction, as well for the private injury as for the public wrong.

II. The nature of crimes and misdemeanours in general being thus ascertained and distinguished, we proceed in the next place to consider the general nature of punishments: Which are evils or inconveniences consequent upon crimes and misdemeanours; being devised, denounced, and inflicted by human laws, in consequence of disobedience or misbehaviour in those to regulate whose conduct such laws were respectively made. And herein we will briefly consider the *power*, the *end*, and the *measure*, of human punishment.

1. As to the power of human punishment, or the right of the temporal legislator to inflict discretionary penalties for crimes and misdemeanours. It is clear, that the right of punishing crimes against the law of nature, as murder and the like, is, in a state of mere nature, vested in every individual. For it must be vested in somebody; otherwise the laws of nature would be vain and fruitless, if none were empowered to put them in execution; and if that power is vested in any one, it must also be vested in all mankind; since all are by nature equal. Whereof the first murderer Cain was so sensible, that we find him expressing his apprehensions, that whoever should find him would slay him. In a state of society this right is transferred from individuals to the sovereign power; whereby men are prevented from being judges in their own causes, which is one of the evils that civil government was intended to remedy. Whatever power therefore individuals had of punishing offences against the law of nature, that is now vested in the magistrate alone; who bears the sword of justice by the consent of the whole community. And to this precedent natural power of individuals must be referred that right, which some have argued to belong to every state (though, in fact, never exercised by any), of punishing not only their own subjects, but also foreign ambassadors,

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ambaſſadors, even with death itſelf; in caſe they have offended, not indeed againſt the municipal laws of the country, but againſt the divine laws of nature, and become liable thereby to forfeit their lives for their guilt.

As to offences merely againſt the laws of ſociety, which are only *mala prohibita*, and not *mala in ſe;* the temporal magiſtrate is alſo impowered to inflict coercive penalties for ſuch trangreſſion: and this by the conſent of individuals; who, in forming ſocieties, did either tacitly or expreſsly inveſt the ſovereign power with a right of making laws, and of enforcing obedience to them when made, by exerciſing, upon their non-obſervance, ſeverities adequate to the evil. The lawfulneſs, therefore, of puniſhing ſuch criminals is founded upon this principle, that the law by which they ſuffer was made by their own conſent; it is a part of the original contract into which they entered, when firſt they engaged in ſociety; it was calculated for, and has long contributed to, their own ſecurity.

This right therefore, being thus conferred by univerſal conſent, gives to the ſtate exactly the ſame power, and no more, over all its members, as each individual member had naturally over himſelf or others; which has occaſioned ſome to doubt, how far a human legiſlature ought to inflict capital puniſhments for poſitive offences; offences againſt the municipal law only, and not againſt the law of nature; ſince no individual has naturally a power of inflicting death upon himſelf or others for actions in themſelves indifferent. With regard to offences *mala in ſe*, capital puniſhments are in ſome inſtances inflicted by the immediate command of God himſelf to all mankind; as, in the caſe of murder, by the precept delivered to Noah, their common anceſtor and repreſentative, "Whoſo ſheddeth man's blood, by man ſhall his blood be ſhed." In other inſtances they are inflicted after the example of the Creator, in his poſitive code of laws for the regulation of the Jewiſh republic; as in the caſe of the crime againſt nature. But they are ſometimes inflicted without ſuch expreſs warrant or example, at the will and diſcretion of the human legiſlature; as for forgery, for theft, and ſometimes for offences of a lighter kind. The practice is thus juſtified by that great and good man Sir Matthew Hale: "When offences grow enormous, frequent, and dangerous to a kingdom, or ſtate, deſtructive or highly pernicious to civil ſocieties, and to the great inſecurity and danger of the kingdom or its inhabitants, ſevere puniſhment and even death itſelf is neceſſary to be annexed to laws in many caſes by the prudence of lawgivers." It is therefore the enormity, or dangerous tendency, of the crime, that alone can warrant any earthly legiſlature in putting him to death that commits it. It is not its frequency only, or the difficulty of otherwiſe preventing it, that will excuſe our attempting to prevent it by a wanton effuſion of human blood. For though the end of puniſhment is to deter men from offending, it never can follow from thence, that it is lawful to deter them at any rate and by any means; ſince there may be unlawful methods of enforcing obedience even to the juſteſt laws. Every humane legiſlator will be therefore extremely cautious of eſtabliſhing laws that inflict the penalty of death, eſpecially for ſlight offences, or ſuch as are merely poſitive. He will expect a better reaſon for his ſo doing than that looſe one which generally is given; that it is found by former experience that no lighter penalty will be effectual. For is it found upon farther experience, that capital puniſhments are more effectual? Was the vaſt territory of all the Ruſſias worſe regulated under the late empreſs Elizabeth, than under her more ſanguinary predeceſſors? Is it now, under Catharine II. leſs civilized, leſs ſocial, leſs ſecure? And yet we are aſſured, that neither of theſe illuſtrious princeſſes have, throughout their whole adminiſtration, inflicted the penalty of death: and the latter has, upon full perſuaſion of its being uſeleſs, nay even pernicious, given orders for aboliſhing it entirely throughout her extenſive dominions. But indeed, were capital puniſhments proved by experience to be a ſure and effectual remedy, that would not prove the neceſſity (upon which the juſtice and propriety depend) of inflicting them upon all occaſions when other expedients fail. It is feared this reaſoning would extend a great deal too far. For inſtance, the damage done to our public roads by loaded waggons is univerſally allowed, and many laws have been made to prevent it, none of which have hitherto proved effectual. But it does not therefore follow, that it would be juſt for the legiſlature to inflict death upon every obſtinate carrier, who defeats or eludes the proviſions of former ſtatutes. Where the evil to be prevented is not adequate to the violence of the preventive, a ſovereign that thinks ſeriouſly can never juſtify ſuch a law to the dictates of conſcience and humanity. To ſhed the blood of our fellow creature is a matter that requires the greateſt deliberation, and the fulleſt conviction of our own authority; for life is the immediate gift of God to man; which neither he can reſign, nor can it be taken from him, unleſs by the command or permiſſion of Him who gave it, either expreſsly revealed, or collected from the laws of nature or ſociety by clear and indiſputable demonſtration.

We would not be underſtood to deny the right of the legiſlature in any country to enforce its own laws by the death of the tranſgreſſor, though perſons of ſome abilities have doubted it; but only to ſuggeſt a few hints for the conſideration of ſuch as are, or may hereafter become, legiſlators. When a queſtion ariſes, whether death may be lawfully inflicted for this or that tranſgreſſion, the wiſdom of the laws muſt decide it: and to this public judgment or deciſion all private judgments muſt ſubmit; elſe there is an end of the firſt principle of all ſociety and government. The guilt of blood, if any, muſt lie at their doors, who miſinterpret the extent of their warrant; and not at the doors of the ſubject, who is bound to receive the interpretations that are given by the ſovereign power.

2. As to the end, or final cauſe, of human puniſhments. This is not by way of atonement or expiation for the crime committed; for that muſt be left to the juſt determination of the Supreme Being; but as a precaution againſt future offences of the ſame kind. This is effected three ways: either by the amendment of the offender himſelf; for which purpoſe all corporeal puniſhments, fines, and temporary exile or impriſonment, are inflicted; or, by deterring others by the dread of his example from offending in the like way, "*ut pœna* (as Tully expreſſes it), *ad paucos, metus*

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"*tus ad omnes, perveniat;*" which gives rise to all ignominious punishments, and to such executions of justice as are open and public; or, lastly, by depriving the party injuring of the power to do future mischief; which is effected by either putting him to death, or condemning him to perpetual confinement, slavery, or exile. The same one end, of preventing future crimes, is endeavoured to be answered by each of these three species of punishment. The public gains equal security, whether the offender himself be amended by wholesome correction, or whether he be disabled from doing any farther harm: and if the penalty fails of both these effects, as it may do, still the terror of his example remains as a warning to other citizens. The method, however, of inflicting punishment ought always to be proportioned to the particular purpose it is meant to serve, and by no means to exceed it; therefore the pains of death, and perpetual disability by exile, slavery, or imprisonment, ought never to be inflicted, but when the offender appears incorrigible: which may be collected either from a repetition of minuter offences; or from the perpetration of some one crime of deep malignity, which of itself demonstrates a disposition without hope or probability of amendment: and in such cases it would be cruelty to the public to defer the punishment of such a criminal till he had an opportunity of repeating perhaps the worst of villanies.

3. As to the *measure* of human punishments. From what has been observed in the former articles, we may collect, that the quantity of punishment can never be absolutely determined by any standing invariable rule; but it must be left to the arbitration of the legislature to inflict such penalties as are warranted by the laws of nature and society, and such as appear to be the best calculated to answer the end of precaution against future offences.

Hence it will be evident, that what some have so highly extolled for its equity, the *lex talionis*, or "law of retaliation," can never be in all cases an adequate or permanent rule of punishment. In some cases indeed it seems to be dictated by natural reason: as in the case of conspiracies to do an injury, or false accusations of the innocent; to which we may add that law of the Jews and Egyptians, mentioned by Josephus and Diodorus Siculus, that whoever without sufficient cause was found with any mortal poison in his custody, should himself be obliged to take it. But, in general, the difference of persons, place, time, provocation, or other circumstances, may enhance or mitigate the offence; and in such cases retaliation can never be a proper measure of justice. If a nobleman strikes a peasant, all mankind will see, that if a court of justice awards a return of the blow, it is more than a just compensation. On the other hand, retaliation may sometimes be too easy a sentence; as, if a man maliciously should put out the remaining eye of him who had lost one before, it is too slight a punishment for the maimer to lose only one of his: and therefore the law of the Locrians, which demanded an eye for an eye, was in this instance judiciously altered; by decreeing, in imitation of Solon's laws, that he who struck out the eye of a one-eyed man, should lose both his own in return. Besides, there are very many crimes, that will in no shape admit of these penalties, without manifest absurdity and wickedness. Theft cannot be punished by theft, defamation by defamation, forgery by forgery, adultery by adultery, and the like. And we may add, that those instances, wherein retaliation appears to be used, even by the divine authority, do not really proceed upon the rule of exact retribution, by doing to the criminal the same hurt he has done to his neighbour, and no more; but this correspondence between the crime and punishment is barely a consequence from some other principle. Death is ordered to be punished with death; not because one is equivalent to the other, for that would be expiation, and not punishment. Nor is death always an equivalent for death: the execution of a needy decrepid assassin is a poor satisfaction for the death of a nobleman in the bloom of his youth, and full enjoyment of his friends, his honours, and his fortune. But the reason upon which this sentence is grounded seems to be, that this is the highest penalty that man can inflict, and tends most to the security of the world: by removing one murderer from the earth, and setting a dreadful example to deter others: so that even this grand instance proceeds upon other principles than those of retaliation. And truly, if any measure of punishment is to be taken from the damage sustained by the sufferer, the punishment ought rather to exceed than equal the injury; since it seems contrary to reason and equity, that the guilty (if convicted) should suffer no more than the innocent has done before him; especially as the suffering of the innocent is past and irrevocable, that of the guilty is future, contingent, and liable to be escaped or evaded. With regard indeed to crimes that are incomplete, which consist merely in the intention, and are not yet carried into act, as conspiracies and the like; the innocent has a chance to frustrate or avoid the villany, as the conspirator has also a chance to escape his punishment; and this may be one reason why the *lex talionis* is more proper to be inflicted, if at all, for crimes that consist in intention, than for such as are carried into act. It seems indeed consonant to natural reason, and has therefore been adopted as a maxim by several theoretical writers, that the punishment due to the crime of which one falsely accuses another, should be inflicted on the perjured informer. Accordingly, when it was once attempted to introduce into England the law of retaliation, it was intended as a punishment for such only as preferred malicious accusations against others; it being enacted by statute 37 Edw. III. c. 18. that such as preferred any suggestions to the king's great council should put in sureties of taliation; that is, to incur the same pain that the other should have had, in case the suggestion were found untrue. But, after one year's experience, this punishment of taliation was rejected, and imprisonment adopted in its stead.

But though from what has been said it appears, that there cannot be any regular determinate method of rating the quantity of punishments for crimes, by any one uniform rule; but they must be referred to the will and discretion of the legislative power: yet there are some general principles, drawn from the nature and circumstances of the crime, that may be of some assistance in allotting it an adequate punishment.

As, first, with regard to the object of it: for the greater and more exalted the object of an injury is, the

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the more care ſhould be taken to prevent that injury, and of courſe under this aggravation the puniſhment ſhould be more ſevere. Therefore treaſon in conſpiring the king's death is (in Britain) puniſhed with greater rigour than even actually killing any private ſubject. And yet, generally, a deſign to tranſgreſs is not ſo flagrant an enormity as the actual completion of that deſign. For evil, the nearer we approach it, is the more diſagreeable and ſhocking; ſo that it requires more obſtinacy in wickedneſs to perpetrate an unlawful action, than barely to entertain the thought of it; and it is an encouragement to repentance and remorſe, even till the laſt ſtage of any crime, that it never is too late to retract; and that if a man ſtops even here, it is better for him than if he proceeds; for which reaſon an attempt to rob, to raviſh, or to kill, is far leſs penal than the actual robbery, rape, or murder. But in the caſe of a treaſonable conſpiracy, the object whereof is the king's majeſty's, the bare intention will deſerve the higheſt degree of ſeverity; not becauſe the intention is equivalent to the act itſelf; but becauſe the greateſt rigour is no more than adequate to a treaſonable purpoſe of the heart, and there is no greater left to inflict upon the actual execution itſelf.

Again, The violence of paſſion, or temptation, may ſometimes alleviate a crime: as theft, in caſe of hunger, is far more worthy of compaſſion, than when committed through avarice, or to ſupply one in luxurious exceſſes. To kill a man upon ſudden and violent reſentment is leſs penal than upon cool deliberate malice. The age, education, and character, of the offender; the repetition (or otherwiſe) of the offence; the time, the place, the company wherein it was committed; all theſe, and a thouſand other incidents, may aggravate or extenuate the crime (A).

Farther, As puniſhments are chiefly intended for the prevention of future crimes, it is but reaſonable that among crimes of different natures thoſe ſhould be moſt ſeverely puniſhed, which are the moſt deſtructive of the public ſafety and happineſs; and, among crimes of an equal malignity, thoſe which a man has the moſt frequent and eaſy opportunities of committing, which cannot be ſo eaſily guarded againſt as others, and which therefore the offender has the ſtrongeſt inducement to commit: according to what Cicero obſerves, *Ea ſunt animadvertenda peccata maxime, quæ difficillime præcaventur.* Hence it is, that for a ſervant to rob his maſter is in more caſes capital than for a ſtranger. If a ſervant kills his maſter, it is a ſpecies of treaſon; in another it is only murder. To ſteal a handkerchief, or other trifle of above the value of twelvepence, privately from one's perſon, is made capital; but to carry off a load of corn from an open field, though of fifty times greater value, is puniſhed with tranſportation only. And in the iſland of Man this rule was formerly carried ſo far, that to take away a horſe or an ox was there no felony, but a treſpaſs; becauſe of the difficulty in that little territory to conceal them or carry them off: but to ſteal a pig or a fowl, which is eaſily done, was a capital miſdemeanour, and the offender was puniſhed with death.

Laſtly, As a concluſion to the whole, we may obſerve, that puniſhments of unreaſonable ſeverity, eſpecially when indiſcriminately inflicted, have leſs effect in preventing crimes, and amending the manners of a people, than ſuch as are more merciful in general, yet properly intermixed with due diſtinctions of ſeverity. It is the ſentiment of an ingenious writer, who ſeems to have well ſtudied the ſprings of human action, that crimes are more effectually prevented by the certainty than by the ſeverity of puniſhment; for the exceſſive ſeverity of the laws (ſays Monteſquieu) hinders their execution. When the puniſhment ſurpaſſes all meaſure, the public will frequently prefer impunity to it. This alſo the ſtatute 1 Mar. ſt. 1. c. 1. recites in its preamble, "that the ſtate of every king conſiſts more aſſuredly in the love of the ſubjects towards their prince, than in the dread of laws made with rigorous pains: and that laws made for the preſervation of the commonwealth without great penalties, are more often obeyed and kept than laws made with extreme puniſhments." Happy had it been for the nation if the ſubſequent practice of that deluded princeſs in matters of religion, had been correſpondent to theſe ſentiments of herſelf and parliament in matters of ſtate and government! We may further obſerve, that ſanguinary laws are a bad ſymptom of the diſtemper of any ſtate, or at leaſt of its weak conſtitution. The laws of the Roman kings, and the twelve tables of the *decemviri*, were full of cruel puniſhments: the Porcian law, which exempted all citizens from ſentence of death, ſilently abrogated them all. In this period the republic flouriſhed: under the emperors ſevere puniſhments were revived, and then the empire fell.

It is, moreover, abſurd and impolitic to apply the ſame puniſhment to crimes of different malignity. A multitude of ſanguinary laws, (beſides the doubt that may be entertained concerning the right of making them) do likewiſe prove a manifeſt defect either in the wiſdom of the legiſlative, or the ſtrength of the executive, power. It is a kind of quackery in government, and argues a want of ſolid ſkill, to apply the ſame univerſal remedy, the *ultimum ſupplicium*, to every caſe of difficulty. It is, it muſt be owned, much eaſier to extirpate than to amend mankind; yet that magiſtrate muſt be eſteemed both a weak and a cruel ſurgeon, who cuts off every limb which through ignorance or indolence he will not attempt to cure. It has been therefore ingeniouſly propoſed, that in every ſtate a ſcale of crimes ſhould be formed, with a correſponding ſcale of puniſhments, deſcending from the greateſt to the leaſt. But if that be too romantic an idea, yet at leaſt a wiſe legiſlator will mark the principal diviſions, and not aſſign penalties of the firſt degree to offences of an inferior rank. Where men ſee no diſtinction

(A) Thus Demoſthenes (in his oration againſt Midas) finely works up the aggravations of the inſults he had received. "I was abuſed (ſays he) by my enemy, in cold blood, out of malice, not by heat of wine, in "the morning, publicly, before ſtrangers as well as citizens; and that in the temple, whither the duty of my "office called me."

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tion made in the nature and gradations of punishment, the generality will be led to conclude there is no distinction in the guilt. Thus in France the punishment of robbery, either with or without murder, is the same: hence it is, that though perhaps they are therefore subject to fewer robberies, yet they never rob but they also murder. In China murderers are cut to pieces, and robbers not: hence in that country they never murder on the highway, though they often rob. And in Britain, besides the additional terrors of a speedy execution, and a subsequent exposure or dissection, robbers have a hope of transportation, which seldom is extended to murderers. This has the same effect here as in China, in preventing frequent assassination and slaughter.

Yet though in this instance we may glory in the wisdom of our law, we shall find it more difficult to justify the frequency of capital punishment to be found therein; inflicted (perhaps inattentively) by a multitude of successive independent statutes, upon crimes very different in their natures. It is a melancholy truth, that among the variety of actions which men are daily liable to commit, no less than 160 have been declared by act of parliament to be felonies without benefit of clergy; or, in other words, to be worthy of instant death. So dreadful a list, instead of diminishing, increases the number of offenders. The injured, through compassion, will often forbear to prosecute; juries, through compassion, will sometimes forget their oaths, and either acquit the guilty or mitigate the nature of the offence; and judges, through compassion, will respite one half of the convicts, and recommend them to the royal mercy. Among so many chances of escaping, the needy and hardened offender overlooks the multitude that suffer: he boldly engages in some desperate attempt to relieve his wants or supply his vices; and if, unexpectedly, the hand of justice overtakes him, he deems himself peculiarly unfortunate in falling at last a sacrifice to those laws which long impunity has taught him to contemn.

As to the trials and mode of punishment, see ARRAIGNMENT; TRIAL, and the references therefrom; CONVICTION; JUDGMENT; ATTAINDER; *CORRUPTION of Blood;* FORFEITURE; EXECUTION; the several *Crimes* under their respective names. See LAW *Index.*

Persons capable or incapable of committing CRIMES; or (which is all one) of suffering the censures of the law upon the commission of forbidden acts.

All the several pleas and excuses which protect the committer of a forbidden act from the punishment which is otherwise annexed thereto, may be reduced to this single consideration, the want or defect of *will.* An involuntary act, as it has no claim to merit, so neither can it induce any guilt: the concurrence of the will, when it has its choice either to do or to avoid the fact in question, being the only thing that renders human actions either praiseworthy or culpable. Indeed, to make a complete crime, cognizable by human laws, there must be both a will and an act. For though, *in foro conscientiæ*, a fixed design or will to do an unlawful act is almost as heinous as the commission of it; yet as no temporal tribunal can search the heart, or fathom the intentions of the mind, otherwise than as they are demonstrated by outward actions, it therefore cannot punish for what it cannot know. For which reason, in all temporal jurisdictions, an *overt* act, or some open evidence of an intended crime, is necessary in order to demonstrate the depravity of the will, before the man is liable to punishment. And as a vicious will without a vicious act is no civil crime; so, on the other hand, an unwarrantable act without a vicious will is no crime at all. So that to constitute a crime against human laws, there must be, first, a vicious will; and, secondly, an unlawful act consequent upon such vicious will.

Now there are three cases in which the will does not join with the act: 1. When there is a defect of understanding. For where there is no discernment, there is no choice; and, where there is no choice, there can be no act of the will, which is nothing else but a determination of one's choice to do or abstain from a particular action; he, therefore, that has no understanding, can have no will to guide his conduct. 2. Where there is understanding and will sufficient residing in the party, but not called forth and exerted at the time of the action done; which is the case of all offences committed by chance or ignorance. Here the will sits neuter, and neither concurs with the act nor disagrees to it. 3. Where the action is constrained by some outward force and violence. Here the will counteracts the deed; and is so far from concurring with, that it loaths and disagrees to what the man is obliged to perform. Infancy, idiocy, lunacy, and intoxication, fall under the first class; misfortune and ignorance may be referred to the second; and compulsion or necessity may properly rank in the third. See INFANCY, IDIOCY, DRUNKENNESS, MISFORTUNE, IGNORANCE, NECESSITY.

CRIMEA, or CRIM TARTARY, anciently the *Chersonesus Taurica*, a peninsula situated directly to the south of St Petersburg, between the 51st and 55th degrees of latitude, and in 46 longitude. Its southern and western coasts lie on the Euxine, its northern and eastern on the Rotten sea and the Palus Mæotis. It is joined, however, to the continent on the north by a small neck of land not more than six miles broad. This peninsula has been known more than 3000 years since the first naval expedition of the Argonauts; a story, though mixed with fable, yet well founded in its principal facts. The mountainous parts were inhabited by the Tauri, probably a colony of Scythians; and its coasts on the west, the east, and the south, by Greeks. The Scythians were driven out by Mithridates: the Greeks by the Sarmatians; and these again by the Alani and Goths, a northern horde of Scythians. The Hungarians, the Cossacks and Tartars, succeeded in their turn; while the Genoese, in the 12th century, held a temporary and precarious possession of the seaports, which they were obliged to yield to the Turks in 1475. At the peace of 1774, the Tartars of the Crimea were declared independent; and in 1783, this peninsula was united to the Russian empire.

From the above-mentioned isthmus, on which is built the fortress of Or-kapi or Perekop, to the first rising of the hill at Karasubasar, the country is one continued flat: elevating itself, by an easy gradation, to the summit of the hill, which forms the south side of the peninsula and the shore of the Euxine sea. The surface of the soil is almost all of one kind, a reddish-gray loam; on digging, you find it more or less

Crimea. mixed with a black earth, and the hills abound with marle. The whole flat from Perekop to the river Salgir, which may be an extent of 80 miles, is full of ſalt marſhes and lakes; from whence the neighbouring Ruſſian governments, as well as the Crim itſelf, Anatolia, and Beſſarabia, are ſupplied with ſalt. The moſt remarkable of theſe lakes are five in number; Koſlof and Keffa, ſo called after the towns near which they lie, are very large; the Tuſla, about 15 verſts from Perekop, on the road from Keffa; the Red lake, not far from the laſt mentioned; and the Black lake. Beſides theſe, there are many other ſwamps and lakes, from whence the inhabitants get ſalt for their own conſumption.

The greateſt part of the peninſula is ſo level that a man may travel over the half of it without meeting with a river or even the ſmalleſt brook. The inhabitants of the villages, therefore, make a pit in the yard of every houſe for receiving the rain or the water that runs from the hills. The whole tract is bare of every kind of tree. Not a buſh or a bramble is to be ſeen, and the herbage is extremely ſcanty. This, however, does not proceed ſo much from the unfruitfulneſs of the place, as from the vaſt herds of cattle which rove the whole year long from place to place; by which means all the graſs in ſpring, ſummer, or autumn, no ſooner appears through the long drought which ſucceeded the rainy ſeaſon, but it is immediately devoured or trodden down. The univerſal prevalence of this cuſtom of keeping cattle to wander up and down, joined to the ſlothfulneſs of the Tartars, with their inaptitude and averſion to agriculture, is the reaſon of the total neglect of that ſcience here. Otherwiſe, were the land divided into portions and properly managed, there would be a ſufficiency for the cattle, and the reſt would be fruitful in corn and grain. By this means alone the Crim would become a fertile country, and no natural defect would be found in oppoſition to the welfare of its inhabitants. The truth of this is well known by their neighbours; where, of a hundred Tartars, one perhaps follows huſbandry, who finds it to anſwer to ſo much profit, that he has not only enough for his own uſe, but wherewith to ſell to the ninety-nine.

This peninſula, which is indeed but a little diſtrict, yet, from the many advantages conferred upon it by nature, may be eſteemed peculiarly rich, is divided into the hill country and the flat. The latter, which extends from Perekop to Koſlof and the river Bulganap, to Karaſubaſar, Keffa, and Yenicali, is ſtrewn there and there with little Tartar villages, maintained by cattle and the produce of the ſalt lakes. The highlands, or hill country, form the ſouthern part of the Crim, along the ſtraight coaſt of the Black ſea, and ſtretching weſtward in a right line from Keffa to the vicinity of Belbek. Theſe hills are compoſed of layers of chalk; which, in the headlands and promontories, is ſoft, but more inland quite hard. The ſtrata of the high hills are like thoſe of the promontories, and take a direction from north to ſouth. Theſe qualities of the ſtrata prevail not throughout the whole hills, but only in the large and lofty ones; ſuch as the two that riſe near Karaſubaſar, and one very high by Achmetſched, which bears the name of Aktau. The other ſmaller hills lie ſcattered and diſperſed, but take the names of the greater ones, to which they ſeem to belong; as the great ridge of Caucaſus does, which extends beyond the Donau, through Bulgaria, and are named *Palkans*.

All accounts agree in this, that nature has favoured thoſe highland countries with great advantages, and bleſſed them with abundance of all things. A number of ſprings that flow from the mountains form the two conſiderable rivers Salgir and Karaſu, which run into the Rotten ſea. The former, which takes its riſe from a cavern in a high hill near Achmetſched, falls ſtraight into the plain below, and waters a great part of the Crim; the other commencing behind Karaſubaſar, falls likewiſe into the plain, and mingles with the Salgir. There are many other little rivers and ſtreams, which run eaſtward, and either join the two fore-mentioned or fall immediately into the Rotten ſea. All the ſtreams, for the whole length of the hills, which begin at Keffa, and proceed in a chain of the ſame height, flow to the north or the north-eaſt, excepting the one behind Achmetſched, where the great mountain Aktau is, which falls on the other ſide; this river, riſing on the northern ſide of this mountain, flows, as was before obſerved, towards the north-eaſt, to the Salgir and the Rotten ſea; as likewiſe thoſe which ſpring on the weſtern ſide take their courſe weſtward to the Bulganak, and thence ſtraight to the Black ſea; which alſo receives all the other little rivers that ariſe from theſe hills, as the Amma, the Katſcha, the Belbek, the Kaſulkioi, &c.

The mountains are well covered with wood fit for the purpoſe of ſhip-building, and contain plenty of wild beaſts. The valleys conſiſt of fine arable land; on the ſides of the hills grow corn and vines in great abundance, and the earth is rich in mines. But theſe mountaineers are as careleſs and negligent as the inhabitants of the deſerts; ſlighting all theſe advantages; and, like their brethren of the lowlands, are ſufficiently happy if they are in poſſeſſion of a fat ſheep and as much bread as ſerves them to eat.

About 20 years ago this peninſula was uncommonly full of inhabitants and wealth. They reckoned at that time at leaſt 1200 villages; but, from the late troubles in the Crim, it has loſt more than a third part of its inhabitants, and now, wherever we turn, we meet with the ruins of large villages and dwellings. The people were compoſed of various nations, who lived together under the Tartars in the moſt unbounded freedom; but in the late Turkiſh war they either put themſelves under the Ruſſian government, and were tranſferred to that empire, or fled to Abcaſia and the Tſchirkaſſian hills.

The houſes in the towns, as well as the villages, are for the moſt part of ſquare timbers, having the interſtices filled with brick work, if the poſſeſſor can afford it, and thoſe of the poorer ſort with turf. The chinks and crannies are made tight with clay, and then plaſtered within and without. The covering is commonly either of bricks or of turfs. Only the medſcheds, minarets, and baths, are of ſtone, and a few extremely handſome of marble. They have chimneys in the chambers, at which they likewiſe dreſs their victuals; but ſtoves in the Ruſſia manner none. In extreme froſts a great iron pan of charcoal is brought into the room, for making it comfortable. Their cuſtom is, to

to ſit upon low ſofas, with Turkiſh coverings and cuſhions, or upon a clay ſeat, ſomewhat raiſed above the earth and ſpread with a carpet. In theſe rooms are cupboards and cheſts, often covered with cuſhions, to ſerve as ſeats; in which they keep their gold, ſilver, and valuables. Such are the inner apartments or harams, in which the women generally live; the others are not ſo fine. Theſe contain only a ſofa, or a bank of clay covered with a carpet, as in the chimney rooms.

The rich Tartars, and their nobility or murzas (excepting only ſuch as are about the perſon of the khan), commonly dwell all the year round in the country, coming only to town when they have buſineſs there. There are but few towns in the Crim, at leaſt in compariſon of its former population. The Krimſkoi Tartars have no tribunal of juſtice, controverſies and quarrels being ſeldom heard of among them; and if a diſpute ſhould ariſe, it is immediately ſettled by an appeal to the Koran. Little differences in the villages inevitably happening about property, or other matters not taken notice of in that code, are amicably adjuſted by the elderman or abeſes; but in the towns all weighty concerns, excepting the ſingle caſe of murder or homicide, are brought before the kaimakan, or commandant, who ſettles them abſolutely without appeal.

The reſidence of the khans of the Crimea was formerly Bachtſchiſarai, in which city they held their ſeat for upwards of 200 years. They went thither from Eſki-Crim, or Old Crim, the capital city of the Genoeſe, upon Bengli Ghirei Khan's plundering the ſeaports, and driving all the Genoeſe from their ſtations. Before Eſki-Crim, and indeed upon the firſt coming of the Tartars into this peninſula, the ſovereign reſidence was at Koſlof; but here they remained not long. Under the late khan Shagin Ghirei it was held at Keffa, the ancient Theodoſia; which is ten miles diſtant from Eſki-Crim, ſaid to be the Cimmerium of the ancients.

The principal cities or towns of the Crimea are: 1. *Bachtſchiſarai*, an extenſive and wealthy city, lying in a vale between two high mountains, and ſurrounded by a number of gardens. From this circumſtance it had its name; *bachtſchi*, ſignifying in the Tartarian language "a garden," and *ſarai*, "a palace." It formerly contained 3000 houſes, and many ſumptuous medſcheds. The palace of the khans, with its gardens and ponds, was much improved under the government of Khan Kerim Ghirei, under whoſe government the laſt Turkiſh war took its riſe. In this palace is the burial-place of all the khans of Crimea, wherein all the khans that have reigned here lie interred. The fine Krimſkoi vines, with their large cluſters of grapes, grow in great plenty all about this town, and a profuſion of other delicious fruits, from whence the neighbouring parts of Ruſſia are ſupplied. 2. *Keffa*, the preſent reſidence of the khans, ſtands on the ſhore of a large harbour in the Black ſea. Its ſite is on the declivity of a long ridge of mountains: and is mantled by a ſtone wall, fortified by ſeveral towers, and encompaſſed by a deep ditch. On both ſides of the city formerly ſtood caſtles, and in the middle of them a lofty turret for the purpoſe of giving ſignals by fire. Before the wall were wide extended ſuburbs; containing among other conſiderable buildings, medſcheds, churches for the Greek and Armenian worſhip: of all which now only the veſtiges remain. The caſtles and towers lie alſo in ruins; and not one-third part of the houſes of the city itſelf are now remaining, and thoſe chiefly built of materials taken from the aforeſaid ruins. They formerly reckoned Keffa to contain 4000 houſes, including the ſuburbs, with a number of medſcheds and Chriſtian churches; but this number has been much diminiſhed by the laſt Turkiſh war. The preſent inhabitants conſiſt moſtly of Tartars; who carry on a trade by no means inconſiderable, in commodities brought from Turkey. The late khan, an intelligent and enlightened perſonage, made this city the place of his reſidence, and brought hither the mint from Bachtſchiſarai, built himſelf a palace, and erected a divan, which aſſembled three times a-week, and the fourth time was held in the palace of the khan, in which he always perſonally aſſiſted. Here is alſo a cuſtomhouſe, the management of which is farmed out. 3. *Karaſubaſar*, likewiſe a very rich city in former times, ſtands at the beginning of the mountains, about half-way between Keffa and Bachtſchiſarai. It is a large trading town; contains a conſiderable number of dwelling houſes and medſcheds, but the greateſt part of them in decay, and many fine gardens. This place is the moſt famous in all the Crim for its trade in horſes, and has a market once a-week for that article of traffic; to which are likewiſe brought great numbers of buffaloes, oxen, cows, camels, and ſheep for ſale. Near this city flows one of the principal rivers of the Crim, called the *Karaſu*, that is, the Black water. Of this river they have an opinion in Ruſſia, that one part of it flows upwards for ſeveral verſts together. But this is in ſome ſort true, not only of the Karaſu, but of all the rivers of the Crim that have a ſtrong current. The Tartars, who dwell either in the valleys or on the ſides of the mountains (frequently without conſidering whether the place is ſupplied with water or not), dig canals either from the ſource of the next river, or from that part of it which lies neareſt to their particular habitation, about an arſhine in breadth, for their gardens and domeſtic uſe. From theſe they cut ſmaller ones through the villages, to ſupply them with water, and not unfrequently to drive a mill. Theſe canals appear, to the imagination of the common people, to run in a contrary direction to the current of the river; and in fact theſe canals do lie, in many places for a verſt in length, ſome fathoms higher than the level of the ſtream from whence they are ſupplied. 4. *Achmetſled*, a pretty large city not far from Bachtſchiſarai; now made the capital of all the Crimea by the regulations of Prince Potemkin in the ſummer of 1785. 5. *Koſlof*, formerly a very conſiderable trading town, lies on the weſtern ſide of the peninſula, in a bay of the Black ſea; which, as well as the ſound at Keffa, might rather be called a road than a haven. This was the firſt town the Tartars poſſeſſed themſelves of on their firſt entrance into the Crim, and eſtabliſhed a cuſtomhouſe therein, after the example of the Genoeſe, which is now farmed out.

The other remarkable places are, *Sudak*, which is built on the hills upon the ſhore of the Black ſea, at the ſouth ſide of the peninſula, and is famous for its excellent wine, reſembling Champagne both in colour and ſtrength; *Aluſchti*, on the ſame ſide, among the hills

hills on the ſea ſhore; *Baluklava*, where there is a fine harbour, and perhaps the only one on the Black ſea, containing ample room for a very good fleet; *Inkerman* may be noticed for its commodious though not very large haven, called *Achtiar*; and *Mangup*, the old Cherſoneſus: which were all formerly very flouriſhing towns; but are now either in ruins, or dwindled into ſmall villages.

All theſe places, ſo long as the Genoeſe remained maſters of the Crim, were well fortified; but the Tartars, in taking them, demoliſhed all the works. While they were under the Turks, they left the fortreſſes of Keffa, Kertſch, and Koſlof, and built the fort Arabat on the neck of land between the ſea of Azof (or Palus Mæotis) and the Rotten ſea, where Perekop alſo is.

In *Arabat* are but few houſes; but here the warlike ſtores of the khans were kept.—*Perekop*, called by the Turks *Or-capi*, is a fortreſs of moderate ſtrength; ſtanding about the middle of the neck of land that joins the peninſula with the continent. This iſthmus, which is at leaſt ſix miles broad, is cut through with a wide and deep ditch lined with ſtone, and reaches from the Black to the Rotten ſea. This was formerly kept without water, but now is filled from both ſeas. On the Crimean ſide a high wall of earth runs the whole length of it, ſtraight from one ſea to the other. The people paſs over the ditch by means of a drawbridge, and through the wall by a gateway. The walls of the fortreſs are ſome fathoms from the road ſide; of which the ruins are only now diſcernible, namely, large brick houſes, with a number of bomb-ſhells and cannon-balls about them, which were formerly kept in the fortreſs. At leaſt two miles from this is a pretty populous but miſerable place, which was probably the town to which this fort belonged. Near the gate is a cuſtomhouſe, where all imports and exports pay duty.

This peninſula was formerly extremely populous; the number of its inhabitants, in Tartars, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and others, amounted to above 200,000 men. Since that, however, the greateſt part of the Chriſtians have betaken themſelves to the other parts of the Ruſſian empire, particularly the government of Azof; and many other inhabitants, particularly Tartars, have gone to Taman and Abchaſia; ſo that the preſent population of the Crim cannot now be reckoned at more than 70,000 men at moſt.

The Crim was heretofore divided into 24 kaduliks or diſtricts; namely, Yenikali, Kertſch, Arabat, Eſki-krim, Keffa, Karaſubaſar, Sudak, Achmetſched, Yalof, Bachtſchiſarai, Baluklava, Mangup, Inkerman, Koſlof, Or, Manſur, Tarkan, Sivaſch, Tiſchongar, Sarubulat, Barun, Argun, Sidſchugut, and Schirin. Several of theſe diſtricts are named after the town or village wherein the murza, their governor, dwells; and many of them are at preſent in a ſtate of total decay.

CRIMEN FALSI. See *FALSI Crimen*.

CRIMSON, one of the ſeven red colours of the dyers. See DYEING.

CRINGLE, a ſmall hole made in the bolt-rope of a ſail, by intertwiſting one of the diviſions of a rope, called a *ſtrand*, alternately round itſelf and through the *ſtrands* of the bolt-rope, till it becomes threefold, and aſſumes the ſhape of a wreath or ring. The uſe of the cringle is generally to contain the end of ſome rope, which is faſtened thereto for the purpoſe of drawing up the ſail to its yard, or of extending the ſkirts by the means of *bridles*, to ſtand upon a ſide wind. The word ſeems to be derived from *krinckelen* (Belg.) "to run into twiſts."

CRINUM, ASPHODEL-LILY; a genus of plants belonging to the hexandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 6th order, *Spathaceæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRISIS, in *Medicine*, is uſed in different ſenſes, both by the ancient and modern phyſicians. With ſome it means frequently no more than the excretion of any noxious ſubſtance from the body. Others take the word for a ſecretion of the noxious humours made in a fever. Others uſe it for the critical motion itſelf; and Galen defines a criſis in fevers, a ſudden and inſtantaneous change, either for the better or the worſe, productive of recovery or death.

CRISPIN *and* CRISPIANUS, two legendary ſaints, whoſe feſtival, as marked in the kalendar, is on the 25th of October. According to the legend, they were brethren, born at Rome; from whence they travelled to Soiſſons in France, about the year 303, to propagate the Chriſtian religion; and becauſe they would not be chargeable to others for their maintenance, they exerciſed the trade of ſhoemakers: but the governor of the town diſcovering them to be Chriſtians, ordered them to be beheaded. From which time the ſhoemakers made choice of them for their tutelar ſaints.

CRISTÆ, in *Surgery*, a term for certain excreſcences about the anus and pudenda. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CRISTA GALLI, in *Anatomy*, an eminence in the middle of the *os ethmoides*, advancing within the cavity of the cranium; and to which is faſtened that part of the dura mater which divides the brain, called *falx*. It has its name from its figure, which reſembles that of a cock's comb. In adults, this proceſs appears of a piece with the *ſeptum narium*. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CRITERION, or CRITERIUM, a ſtandard by which propoſitions and opinions are compared, in order to diſcover their truth or falſehood.

CRITHE, in *Surgery*, commonly called the *ſtye*, is a ſort of tubercle that grows on the eyelids. When ſmall, it is ſeated on the edge of the eyelid; but when large, it ſpreads further. When they do not ſuppurate they become wens. They are apt to diſappear and return. If there is inflammation, endeavour to ſuppurate it with the white bread poultice: if it is hard, deſtroy it with a mixture of equal parts of hog's lard and quickſilver. If the lower eyelid is affected, the tumour is more frequently on its inſide; and then it is beſt to diſſect it, or to make way for it outwardly by applying a cauſtic on the ſkin juſt upon it.

CRITHUM, SAMPHIRE; a genus of plants belonging to the pentandria claſs; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.—Its leaves are an excellent pickle uſed for ſauces, and are by many eaten raw in ſalads. It is of a ſaltiſh reliſh, palatable, and comfortable to the ſtomach. It is not very eaſily preſerved in gardens. It muſt be ſown on gravelly or rocky ground, half an inch deep; in which ſituation the plants will come up, and laſt ſome years.

CRITHOMANCY,

Crithomancy || Criticism.

CRITHOMANCY, a kind of divination, performed by considering the dough or matter of the cakes offered in sacrifice, and the meal strewed over the victims to be killed. Hence, in regard they ordinarily used barley-meal in these ceremonies, this kind of divination was called *crithomancy*, from κριθη, *barley*, and μαντεια, *divination*.

CRITIAS, one of the 30 tyrants set over Athens by the Spartans. He was eloquent and well bred, but of dangerous principles. He cruelly persecuted his enemies, and put them to death. He was killed about 400 years before the Augustan age, in a battle against those citizens whom his oppression had banished. He had been among the disciples of Socrates, and had written elegies and other compositions, of which some fragments remain.

CRITICAL DAYS and SYMPTOMS, among physicians, are certain days and symptoms in the course of acute diseases, which indicate the patient's state, and determine him either to recover or grow worse. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CRITICISM, the art of judging with propriety concerning any object or combination of objects. But, in a more limited sense, the science of criticism is confined to the fine arts. The principles of the fine arts are best unfolded by studying the sensitive part of our nature, and by learning what objects are naturally agreeable and what are naturally disagreeable. The man who aspires to be a critic in these arts, must pierce still deeper: he must clearly perceive what objects are lofty, what low, what are proper or improper, what are manly, and what are mean or trivial. Hence a foundation for judging of taste, and for reasoning upon it: where it is conformable to principles, we can pronounce with certainty that it is correct; otherwise, that it is incorrect, and perhaps whimsical. Thus the fine arts, like morals, become a rational science; and, like morals, may be cultivated to a high degree of refinement.

Manifold are the advantages of criticism, when thus studied as a rational science. In the first place, a thorough acquaintance with the principles of the fine arts redoubles the entertainments those arts afford. To the man who resigns himself entirely to sentiment or feeling, without interposing any sort of judgment, poetry, music, painting, are mere pastime; in the prime of life, indeed, they are delightful, being supported by the force of novelty and the heat of imagination: but they lose their relish gradually with their novelty; and are generally neglected in the maturity of life, which disposes to more serious and more important occupations. To those who deal in criticism as a regular science, governed by just principles, and giving scope to judgment as well as to fancy, the fine arts are a favourite entertainment; and in old age maintain that relish which they produce in the morning of life.

In the next place, a philosophical inquiry into the principles of the fine arts, inures the reflecting mind to the most enticing sort of logic: the practice of reasoning upon subjects so agreeable tends to a habit; and habit strengthening the reasoning faculties, prepares the mind for entering into subjects more difficult and abstract. To have, in this respect, a just conception of the importance of criticism, we need but reflect upon the common method of education; which, after some years spent in acquiring languages, hurries us, without the least preparatory discipline, into the most profound philosophy: a more effectual method to alienate the tender mind from abstract science, is beyond the reach of invention: and accordingly, with respect to such speculations, the bulk of our youth contract a sort of hobgoblin terror, which is seldom, if ever, subdued. Those who apply to the arts are trained in a very different manner: they are led, step by step, from the easier parts of the operation to what are more difficult; and are not permitted to make a new motion till they be perfected in those which regularly precede it. The science of criticism appears then to be a middle link, connecting the different parts of education into a regular chain. This science furnisheth an inviting opportunity to exercise the judgment: we delight to reason upon subjects that are equally pleasant and familiar; we proceed gradually from the simpler to the more involved cases: and in a due course of discipline, custom, which improves all our faculties, bestows acuteness upon those of reason, sufficient to unravel all the intricacies of philosophy.

Nor ought it to be overlooked, that the reasonings employed upon the fine arts are of the same kind with those which regulate our conduct. Mathematical and metaphysical reasonings have no tendency to improve social intercourse; nor are they applicable to the common affairs of life: but a just taste in the fine arts, derived from rational principles, furnishes elegant subjects for conversation, and prepares us finely for acting in the social state with dignity and propriety.

The science of rational criticism tends to improve the heart not less than the understanding. It tends, in the first place, to moderate the selfish affections: by sweetening and harmonizing the temper, it is a strong antidote to the turbulence of passion and violence of pursuit; it procures to a man so much mental enjoyment, that, in order to be occupied, he is not tempted in youth to precipitate into hunting, gaming, drinking; nor in middle age, to deliver himself over to ambition; nor in old age, to avarice. Pride and envy, two disgustful passions, find in the constitution no enemy more formidable than a delicate and discerning taste: the man upon whom nature and culture have bestowed this blessing feels great delight in the virtuous dispositions and actions of others; he loves to cherish them, and to publish them to the world: faults and failings, it is true, are to him not less obvious; but these he avoids, or removes out of sight, because they give him pain. On the other hand, a man void of taste, upon whom the most striking beauties make but a faint impression, has no joy but in gratifying his pride or envy by the discovery of errors and blemishes. In a word, there may be other passions, which, for a season, disturb the peace of society more than those mentioned: but no other passion is so unwearied an antagonist to the sweets of social intercourse: these passions, tending assiduously to their gratification, put a man perpetually in opposition to others; and dispose him more to relish bad than good qualities, even in a companion. How different that disposition of mind, where every virtue in a companion or neighbour, is, by refinement of taste, set in its strongest light; and defects

Criticism || Crizzelling.

defects or blemishes, natural to all, are suppressed, or kept out of view!

In the next place, delicacy of taste tends not less to invigorate the social affections than to moderate those that are selfish. To be convinced of this tendency, we need only reflect, that delicacy of taste necessarily heightens our sensibility of pain and pleasure, and of course our sympathy, which is the capital branch of every social passion. Sympathy, in particular, invites a communication of joys and sorrows, hopes and fears: such exercise, soothing and satisfactory in itself, is necessarily productive of mutual good-will and affection.

One other advantage of rational criticism is reserved to the last place, being of all the most important; which is, that it is a great support to morality. No occupation attaches a man more to his duty than that of cultivating a taste in the fine arts: a just relish of what is beautiful, proper, elegant, and ornamental, in writing or painting, in architecture or gardening, is a fine preparation for the same just relish of those qualities in character and behaviour. To the man who has acquired a taste so acute and accomplished, every action wrong or improper must be highly disgustful: if, in any instance, the overbearing power of passion sway him from his duty, he returns to it upon the first reflection with redoubled resolution never to be swayed a second time: he has now an additional motive to virtue, a conviction derived from experience, that happiness depends on regularity and order, and that a disregard to justice or propriety never fails to be punished with shame and remorse.

For this rule of criticism applicable to the fine arts, and derived from human nature, see ARCHITECTURE, BEAUTY, CONGRUITY, COMPARISON, GRANDEUR, &c.

CRITO, an Athenian philosopher, flourished 400 years before Christ. He was one of the most zealous disciples of Socrates, and supplied him with whatever he wanted. He had several scholars who proved great men, and he composed some dialogues which are lost.

CRITOLAUS, a citizen of Tegea in Arcadia. He with two brothers fought against the three sons of Demonstratus of Pheneus, to put an end to a long war between their respective nations. These brothers of Critolaus were both killed, and he alone remained to withstand his three bold antagonists. He conquered them; and when at his return his sister deplored the death of one of his antagonists, to whom she was betrothed, he killed her in a fit of resentment. The offence deserved capital punishment; but he was pardoned on account of the services he had rendered his country. He was afterwards general of the Achæans; and it is said that he poisoned himself because he had been conquered at Thermopylæ by the Romans, about 146 years before the Augustan age.

CRIZZELLING, in the glass trade, a kind of roughness arising on the surface of some kinds of glass. This was the fault of a peculiar sort of glass made in Oxfordshire and some other places, of black flints, a crystallized sand, and a large quantity of nitre, tartar, and borax. The glass thus made is very beautiful, but, from the too great quantities of the salts in the mixture, is subject to crizzel; that is, the salts in the mixture, from their too great proportion, are subject, either from the adventitious nitre of the air from without, or from warm liquors put in them, to be either increased in quantity or dissolved, and thereby induce a scabrities or roughness irrecoverably clouding the transparence of the glass. This is what was called *crizzelling;* but by using an Italian white pebble, and abating the proportions of the salts, the manufacture is now carried on with advantage, and the glass made with these salts is whiter than the finest Venetian, and is subject to no faults.

Crizzelling || Crocodile.

CROATIA, a part of the ancient Illyricum, is bounded on the east by Sclavonia and Bosnia, on the south and south-west by Morlachia, and on the north by the Drave, which separates it from a part of Sclavonia. It is about 80 miles in length and 70 in breadth, and was once divided between the Hungarians and Turks; but now the greatest part of it is subject to the house of Austria. The Croats derive their origin from the Sclavi; and their language is a dialect of the Sclavonian, approaching very near to that of the Poles. The country is divided into two parts, viz. that under, and that beyond, the Save. In the late wars between the empress queen and the king of Prussia, no less than 50,000 men were raised out of this small territory. Both horse and foot are good soldiers, especially the former. The soil, where cultivated, is fruitful in wine and oil, &c. but being a frontier country, and much exposed to inroads, it is not so well cultivated as it otherwise might be.

CROCODILE. See LACERTA, ERPETOLOGY *Index*.

Fossil CROCODILE, one of the remarkable discoveries in the fossil world which later times have produced. It is the skeleton of a large crocodile, almost entire, found at a great depth under ground, bedded in stone. This was in the possession of Linkius, who wrote many pieces of natural history, and particularly an accurate description of this curious fossil. It was found in the side of a large mountain in the interior of Germany, and in a stratum of black stone, somewhat like slate, (marl probably), but of a coarser texture, the same with that in which the fossil fishes in many parts of the world are found. This skeleton had the back and ribs very plain, and was of a much deeper black than the rest of the stone; as is also the case in the fossil fishes which are preserved in this manner. The part of the stone where the head lay was not found; this being broken off just at the shoulders, but that irregularly; so that in one place a part of the back of the head was visible in its natural form. The two shoulder bones were very fair, and three of the feet were well preserved: the legs were of their natural shape and size, and the feet preserved even to the extremities of the five toes of each.

CROCODILE (*crocodilus*), in *Rhetoric*, a captious and sophistical kind of argumentation, contrived to seduce the unwary, and draw them speciously into a snare. It has its name crocodile from the following occasion, invented by the poets. A poor woman, begging a crocodile that had caught her son walking by the riverside to spare and restore him, was answered, that he would restore him, provided she would give a true answer to a question he should propose: the question was, Will I restore thy son or not: To this the poor woman

man, suspecting a deceit, sorrowfully answered, Thou wilt not: and demanded to have him restored, because she had answered truly. Thou liest, says the crocodile; for if I restore him thou hast not answered truly: I cannot therefore restore him without making thy answer false. Under this head may be reduced the propositions called *mentientes* or *insolubiles;* which destroy themselves. Such is that of the Cretan poet: *Omnes ad unum Cretenses semper mentiuntur:* "all the Cretans, to a man, always lie." Either then the poet lies when he asserts that the Cretans all lie, or the Cretans do not all lie.

CROCUS, SAFFRON; a genus of plants belonging to the triandria class; and in the natural method ranking under the 6th order, *Ensatæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CROCUS, in *Chemistry*, denotes any metal calcined to a red or deep yellow colour.

CROCUS Metallorum, an emetic preparation of antimony and nitre. See CHEMISTRY *Index*.

CROESUS, the last king of Lydia, remarkable for his riches, his conquests, his temporary prosperity, and the sad reverse of his fortune. He subdued the Phrygians, Mysians, Paphlagonians, Thracians, and Carians; amassed together immense riches; and became one of the most powerful and magnificent princes in the world. He drew the learned to his court, and took a pleasure in conversing with them. Thales of Miletus, Pittacus of Mitylene, Bias of Prienè, Cleobulus of Lindus, and most of the other "wise men," as they are emphatically styled, who lived in that age, as well as Æsop the fabulist, and the elegant Greek poets of the times, were bountifully received at the court of Crœsus. There is still on record a memorable conversation between that prince and Solon, which seemed to predict the subsequent events of his reign, and which had a late but important influence on the character and fortune of the Lydian king. Crœsus having entertained his Athenian guest, according to the ancient fashion, for several days, before he asked him any questions, ostentatiously showed him the magnificence of his palace, and particularly the riches of his treasury. After all had been displayed to the best advantage, the king complimented Solon upon his curiosity and love of knowledge; and asked him, as a man who had seen many countries, and reflected with much judgment upon what he had seen, Whom of all men he esteemed most happy? By the particular occasion, as well as the triumphant air with which the question was proposed, the king made it evident that he expected flattery rather than information. But Solon's character had not been enervated by the debilitating air of a court; and he replied with a manly freedom, "Tellus, the Athenian." Crœsus, who had scarcely learned to distinguish, even in imagination, between wealth and happiness, inquired with a tone of surprise, why this preference to Tellus? "Tellus," rejoined Solon, "was not conspicuous for his riches or his grandeur, being only a simple citizen of Athens; but he was descended from parents who deserved the first honours of the republic. He was equally fortunate in his children, who obtained universal esteem by their probity, patriotism, and every useful quality of the mind or body: and as to himself, he died fighting gallantly in the service of his country, which his valour rendered victorious in a doubtful combat; on which account the Athenians buried him on the spot where he fell, and distinguished him by every honour which public gratitude can confer on illustrious merit."

Crœsus had little encouragement, after this answer, to ask Solon, in the second place, Whom, next to Tellus, he deemed most happy? Such, however, is the illusion of vanity, that he still ventured to make this demand; and still, as we are informed by the most circumstantial of historians, entertained hopes of being favourably answered. But Solon replied with the same freedom as before, "The brothers Cleobis and Biton, two youths of Argos, whose strength and address were crowned with repeated victory at the Olympic games; who deserved the affection of their parents, the gratitude of their country, the admiration of Greece; and who, having ended their lives with peculiar felicity, were commemorated by the most signal monuments of immortal fame." "And is the happiness of a king, then," said Crœsus, "so little regarded, O Grecian stranger, that you prefer to it the mean condition of an Athenian or Argive citizen?" The reply of Solon sufficiently justified his reputation for wisdom. "The life of man," said he, "consists of 70 years, which make 25,550 days; an immense number: yet in the longest life, the events of any one day will not be found exactly alike to those of another. The affairs of men are liable to perpetual vicissitudes: the Divinity who presides over our fate is envious of too much prosperity; and all human life, if not condemned to calamity, is at least liable to accident. Whoever has uninterruptedly enjoyed a prosperous tide of success may justly be called *fortunate:* but he cannot before his death be entitled to the epithet of *happy*."

The events which soon followed this conversation, prove how little satisfaction is derived from the possession of a throne. Victorious in war, unrivalled in wealth, supreme in power, Crœsus felt and acknowledged his unhappiness. The warmest affections of his soul centred in his son Atys, a youth of the most promising hopes, who had often fought and conquered by his side. The strength of his attachment was accompanied with an excess of paternal care, and the anxiety of his waking hours disturbed the tranquillity of his rest. He dreamed that his beloved son was slain by a dart; and the solicitude with which he watched his safety, preventing the youth from his usual occupations and amusements, and thereby rendering him too eager to enjoy them, most probably exposed him to the much-dreaded misfortune. Reluctantly permitted to engage in a party of hunting, the juvenile ardour of Atys, increased by the impatience of long restraint, made him neglect the precautions necessary in that manly amusement. He was slain by a dart aimed at a wild boar of monstrous size, which had long spread terror over the country of the Mysians. The weapon came from the hand of Adrastus, a Phrygian prince and fugitive, whom Crœsus had purified from the involuntary guilt of a brother's blood, and long distinguished by peculiar remarks of bounty. To the grateful protection of the Phrygian, Crœsus recommended, at parting, the safety of his beloved son. A mournful procession of Lydians brought to Sardis the dead body of Atys. The ill-fated murderer followed behind.

Crœsus.

behind. When they approached the royal presence, Adrastus stepped forward and entreated Crœsus to put him to death; thinking life no longer to be endured after killing, first his own brother, and then the son of his benefactor. But the Lydian king, notwithstanding the excess of his affliction, acknowledged the innocence of Adrastus, and the power of fate. "Stranger, your action is blameless, being committed without design. I know that my son was destined to a premature death." Adrastus, though pardoned by Crœsus, could not pardon himself. When the mourners were removed, he privately returned, and perished by his own hand on the tomb of Atys.

Two years Crœsus remained disconsolate for the loss of his son: and might have continued to indulge his unavailing affliction during the remainder of life, had not the growing greatness of Persia, which threatened the safety of his dominions, roused him from his dream of misery. (See LYDIA.)—He marched against Cyrus with a great army, but was defeated; and retreating to his capital Sardis, was there besieged. The city was taken by assault; and as a Persian soldier was going to kill Crœsus, that prince's only surviving son, who had hitherto been dumb, terrified at his danger, cried, *Stop soldier, and touch not Crœsus.* But though delivered by this extraordinary accident from the blind rage of the soldier, he seemed to be reserved for a harder fate. Dragged into the presence of his conqueror, he was loaded with irons; and the stern, unrelenting Cyrus, of whose humane temper of mind we have so beautiful, but so flattering, a picture in the philosophical romance of Xenophon, ordered him, with the melancholy train of his Lydian attendants, to be committed to the flames. An immense pile of wood and other combustibles was erected in the most spacious part of the city. The miserable victims, bound hand and foot, were placed on the top of the pyre. Cyrus, surrounded with his generals, witnessed the dreadful spectacle. Either from an abominable principle of superstition he had bound himself by a vow to sacrifice Crœsus as the first fruits of his Lydian victory, or from a motive of curiosity, equally cruel and impious, to try whether Crœsus, who had so magnificently adorned the temples and enriched the ministers of the gods, would be helped in time of need by the miraculous interposition of his much honoured protectors. Meanwhile the unfortunate Lydian, oppressed and confounded by the intolerable weight of his present calamity compared with the security and splendour of his former state, recollected his memorable conversation with the Athenian sage, and uttered with a deep groan the name of *Solon.* Cyrus asked by an interpreter, "Whose name he invoked?" "*His,*" replied Crœsus, emboldened by the prospect of certain death, "whose words ought ever to speak to the heart of kings." This reply not being satisfactory, he was commanded to explain at full length the subject of his thoughts. Accordingly he related the important discourse which had passed between himself and the Athenian, of which it was the great moral, That no man could be called happy till his death.

The words of a dying man are fitted to make a strong impression on the heart. Those of Crœsus deeply affected the mind of Cyrus. The Persian considered the speech of Solon as addressed to himself. He repented of his intended cruelty towards the unfortunate prince, who had formerly enjoyed all the pomp of prosperity: and dreading the concealed vengeance that might lurk in the bosom of fate, gave orders that the pyre should be extinguished. But the workmen who had been employed to prepare it, had performed their task with so much care, that the order could not speedily be obeyed. At that moment, Crœsus calling on Apollo, whose favourite shrine of Delphi had experienced his generous munificence, and whose perfidious oracle had made him so ungrateful a return; the god, it is said, sent a plentiful shower to extinguish the pyre. This event, which saved the life, and which sufficiently attested the piety, of Crœsus, strongly recommended him to the credulity of his conqueror. It seemed impossible to pay too much respect to a man who was evidently the favourite of heaven. Cyrus gave orders that he should be seated by his side, and thenceforth treated as a king; a revolution of fortune equally sudden and unexpected. But the mind of Crœsus had undergone a still more important revolution: for, tutored in the useful school of adversity, he learned to think with patience and to act with prudence, to govern his own passions by the dictates of reason, and to repay by wholesome advice the generous behaviour of his Persian master.

The first advantage which he derived from the change in Cyrus's disposition towards him, was the permission of sending his fetters to the temple of the Delphian Apollo, whose flattering oracles had encouraged him to wage war with the Persians. "Behold," were his messengers instructed to say, "the trophies of our promised success! behold the monuments of the unerring veracity of the god!" The Pythia heard their reproach with a smile of contemptuous indignation, and answered it with that solemn gravity which she was so carefully taught to assume: "The gods themselves cannot avoid their own destiny, much less avert, however they may retard, the determined fates of men. Crœsus has suffered, and justly suffered, for the crime of his ancestor Gyges; who, entrusted as chief of the guards, with the person of Candaules, the last king of the race of Hercules, was seduced by an impious woman to murder his master, defile his bed, and to usurp his royal dignity. For this complicated guilt of Gyges the misfortunes of Crœsus have atoned; but know, that through the favour of Apollo, these misfortunes have happened three years later than the fates ordained." The Pythia then proceeded to explain her answers concerning the event of the war against Cyrus, and proved, to the conviction of the Lydians, that her words, if properly understood, portended the destruction, not of the Persian, but of the Lydian empire. Crœsus heard with resignation the report of his messengers, and acknowledged the justice of the Delphian oracle, which maintained and increased the lustre of its ancient fame. This fallen monarch survived Cyrus. The manner of his death is not known.

CROFT, a little close adjoining to a dwelling-house, and inclosed for pasture or arable land, or any other purpose.—In some ancient deeds, *crusta* occurs as the Latin word for a "croft;" but *cum toftis et croftis* is more frequent. Croft is translated in Abbo Floriacensis by *prædium*, a "farm."

CROISADE, or CRUSADE, a name given to the expeditions

Crœsus || Croisade.

Croisade. expeditions of the Christians against the infidels for the conquest of Palestine.

These expeditions commenced in the year 1096. The foundation of them was a superstitious veneration for those places where our Saviour performed his miracles, and accomplished the work of man's redemption. Jerusalem had been taken, and Palestine conquered, by Omar the successor of Abu Becr *, who succeeded Mahomet himself. This proved a considerable interruption to the pilgrims, who flocked from all quarters to perform their devotions at the holy sepulchre. They had, however, still been allowed this liberty, on paying a small tribute to the Saracen caliphs, who were not much inclined to molest them. But, in 1065, this city changed its masters. The Turks took it from the Saracens; and being much more fierce and barbarous than the former, the pilgrims now found they could no longer perform their devotions with the same safety they did before. An opinion was about this time also prevalent in Europe, which made these pilgrimages much more frequent than formerly. It was somehow or other imagined, that the thousand years mentioned in the 20th chapter of the Revelations, were fulfilled; that Christ was soon to make his appearance in Palestine, to judge the world; and consequently that journeys to that country were in the highest degree meritorious, and even absolutely necessary. The multitudes of pilgrims which now flocked to Palestine meeting with a very rough reception from the Turks, filled all Europe with complaints against those infidels, who profaned the holy city by their presence, and derided the sacred mysteries of Christianity even in the place where they were fulfilled. Pope Gregory VII. had formed a design of uniting all the princes of Christendom against the Mahometans; but his exorbitant encroachments upon the civil power of princes had created him so many enemies, and rendered his schemes so suspicious, that he was not able to make great progress in the undertaking. The work was reserved for a meaner instrument.

* See *Arabia*, N° 76.

Peter, commonly called the *hermit*, a native of Amiens in Picardy, had made the pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and being deeply affected with the dangers to which that act of piety now exposed the pilgrims, as well as with the oppression under which the eastern Christians now laboured, formed the bold, and, in all appearance, impracticable design of leading into Asia, from the farthest extremities of the west, armies sufficient to subdue those potent and warlike nations that now held the Holy Land in slavery. He proposed his scheme to Martin II. who then filled the papal chair; but he, though sensible enough of the advantages which must accrue to himself from such an undertaking, resolved not to interpose his authority till he saw a greater probability of success. He summoned, at Placentia, a council consisting of 4000 ecclesiastics and 30,000 seculars. As no hall could be found large enough to contain such a multitude, the assembly was held in a plain. Here the Pope himself, as well as Peter, harangued the people, representing the dismal situation of their brethren in the east, and the indignity offered to the Christian name in allowing the holy city to remain in the hands of the infidels. These speeches were so agreeable to those who heard them, that the whole multitude suddenly and violently declared for the war, and solemnly devoted themselves to perform this service, which they believed to be so meritorious in the sight of God.

But though Italy seemed to have embraced the design with ardour, Martin yet thought it necessary, in order to insure perfect success, to engage the greater and more warlike nations in the same enterprise. Having therefore exhorted Peter to visit the chief cities and sovereigns of Christendom, he summoned another council at Clermont in Auvergne. The fame of this great and pious design being now universally diffused, procured the attendance of the greatest prelates, nobles, and princes; and when the Pope and the hermit renewed their pathetic exhortations, the whole assembly, as if impelled by an immediate inspiration, exclaimed with one voice, "It is the will of God! it is the will of God!" These words were deemed so memorable, and so much the effect of a divine impulse, that they were employed as the signal of rendezvous and battle in all future exploits of these adventurers. Men of all ranks now flew to arms with the utmost ardour, and a cross was affixed to their right shoulder by all who inlisted in this holy enterprise.

At this time Europe was sunk in the most profound ignorance and superstition. The ecclesiastics had gained the greatest ascendant over the human mind; and the people, who committed the most horrid crimes and disorders, knew of no other expiation than the observances imposed on them by their spiritual pastors.

But amidst the abject superstition which now prevailed, the military spirit had also universally diffused itself; and, though not supported by art and discipline, was become the general passion of the nations governed by the feudal law. All the great lords possessed the right of peace and war. They were engaged in continual hostilities with one another: the open country was become a scene of outrage and disorder: the cities, still mean and poor, were neither guarded by walls nor protected by privileges. Every man was obliged to depend for safety on his own force, or his private alliances; and valour was the only excellence which was held in esteem, or gave one man the preeminence above another. When all the particular superstitions, therefore, were here united in one great object, the ardour for private hostilities took the same direction; "and all Europe (as the princess Anna Comnena expresses herself) torn from its foundations, seemed ready to precipitate itself in one united body upon Asia."

All orders of men, now deeming the croisades the only road to heaven, were impatient to open the way with their swords to the holy city. Nobles, artisans, peasants, even priests, inrolled their names; and to decline this service was branded with the reproach of impiety or cowardice. The nobles who inlisted themselves were moved, by the romantic spirit of the age, to hope for opulent establishments in the east, the chief seat of arts and commerce at that time. In pursuit of these chimerical projects, they sold at the lowest price their ancient castles and inheritances, which had now lost all value in their eyes. The infirm and aged contributed to the expedition by presents and money; and many of them, not satisfied with this, attended

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tended it in perſon, being determined, if poſſible, to breathe their laſt in ſight of that city where their Saviour had died for them. Women themſelves, concealing their ſex under the diſguiſe of armour, attended the camp; and commonly forgot their duty ſtill more, by proſtituting themſelves to the army. The greateſt criminals were forward in a ſervice which they conſidered as an expiation for all crimes; and the moſt enormous diſorders were, during the courſe of theſe expeditions, committed by men inured to wickedneſs, encouraged by example, and impelled by neceſſity. The multitude of adventurers ſoon became ſo great, that their more ſagacious leaders became apprehenſive leſt the greatneſs of the armament would be the cauſe of its own diſappointment. For this reaſon they permitted an undiſciplined multitude, computed at 300,000 men, to go before them under the command of Peter the hermit, and Gautier or Walter, ſurnamed the *moneyleſs*, from his being a ſoldier of fortune. Theſe took the road towards Conſtantinople through Hungary and Bulgaria; and, truſting that heaven, by ſupernatural aſſiſtance, would ſupply all their neceſſities, they made no proviſion for ſubſiſtence in their march. They ſoon found themſelves obliged to obtain by plunder what they vainly expected from miracles; and the enraged inhabitants of the countries through which they paſſed, attacked the diſorderly multitude, and ſlaughtered them without reſiſtance. The more diſciplined armies followed after; and, paſſing the ſtraits of Conſtantinople, they were muſtered in the plains of Aſia, and amounted in the whole to 700,000.

The rage for conquering the Holy Land did not ceaſe with this expedition. It continued for very near two centries, and eight different croiſades were ſet on foot, one after another. The firſt was in the year 1069, as already obſerved. The princes engaged in it were, Hugo, count of Vermandois, brother to Philip I. king of France; Robert, duke of Normandy; Robert, earl of Flanders; Raimond, earl of Toulouſe and St Giles; Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorrain, with his brothers Baldwin and Euſtace; Stephen, earl of Charters and Blois; Hugo, count of St Paul; with a great number of other lords. The general rendezvous was at Conſtantinople. In this expedition, the famous Godfrey beſieged and took the city of Nice. The city of Jeruſalem was taken by the confederated army, and Godfrey choſen king. The Chriſtians gained the famous battle of Aſcalon againſt the ſoldan of Egypt; which put an end to the firſt croiſade.

The ſecond croiſade, in the year 1144, was headed by the emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. king of France. The emperor's army was either deſtroyed by the enemy, or periſhed through the treachery of Manuel the Greek emperor; and the ſecond army, through the unfaithfulneſs of the Chriſtians of Syria, was forced to break up the ſiege of Damaſcus.

The third croiſade, in the year 1188, immediately followed the taking of Jeruſalem by Saladin the ſoldan of Egypt. The princes engaged in this expedition were, the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa; Frederic duke of Suabia, his ſecond ſon; Leopold duke of Auſtria; Berthold duke of Moravia; Herman marquis of Baden; the counts of Naſſau, Thuringia, Miſſer, and Holland; and above 60 other princes of the empire; with the biſhops of Beſançon, Cambray, Munſter, Oſnaburgh, Miſſen, Paſſau, Viſburg, and ſeveral others. In this expedition, the emperor Frederic defeated the ſoldan of Iconium: his ſon Frederic, joined by Guy Luſignan king of Jeruſalem, in vain endeavoured to take Acre or Ptolemais. During which tranſactions, Philip Auguſtus king of France, and Richard I. king of England, joined the croiſade; by which means the Chriſtian army conſiſted of 300,000 fighting men: but great diſputes happening between the kings of France and England, the former quitted the Holy Land, and Richard concluded a peace with Saladin.

The fourth croiſade was undertaken, in the year 1195, by the emperor Henry VI. after Saladin's death. In this expedition the Chriſtians gained ſeveral battles againſt the infidels, took a great many towns, and were in the way of ſucceſs, when the death of the emperor obliged them to quit the Holy Land, and return into Germany.

The fifth croiſade was publiſhed, by order of Pope Innocent III. in 1198. Thoſe engaged in it made fruitleſs efforts for the recovery of the Holy Land; for, though John de Neule, who commanded the fleet equipped in Flanders, arrived at Ptolemais a little after Simon of Montfort, Reynard of Dampierre, and others; yet the plague deſtroying many of them, and the reſt either returning, or engaging in the petty quarrels of the Chriſtian princes, there was nothing done; ſo that the ſoldan of Aleppo eaſily defeated their troops in 1204.

The ſixth croiſade began in 1228; in which the Chriſtians took the town of Damietta, but were forced to ſurrender it again. The next year the emperor Frederic made peace with the ſoldan for 10 years. About 1240, Richard earl of Cornwall, and brother to Henry III. king of England, arrived in Paleſtine at the head of the Engliſh croiſade; but finding it moſt advantageous to conclude a peace, he re-embarked, and ſteered towards Italy. In 1244, the Karaſinians being driven out of Perſia by the Tartars, broke into Paleſtine, and gave the Chriſtians a general defeat near Gaza.

The ſeventh croiſade was headed by St Lewis, in the year 1249, who took the town of Damietta: but a ſickneſs happening in the Chriſtian army, the king endeavoured to retreat; in which being purſued by the infidels, moſt of his army were miſerably butchered, and himſelf and the nobility taken priſoners. Then a truce was agreed upon for 10 years, and the king and lords ſet at liberty.

The eighth croiſade, in 1270, was headed by the ſame prince, who made himſelf maſter of the port and caſtle of Carthage in Africa; but dying in a ſhort time he left his army in a very ill condition. Soon after, the king of Sicily coming up with a good fleet, and joining Philip the Bold, ſon and ſucceſſor of Lewis, the king of Tunis, after ſeveral engagements with the Chriſtians, in which he was always worſted, deſired peace, which was granted upon conditions advantageous to the Chriſtians; after which both princes embarked for their own kingdoms. Prince Edward of England, who arrived at Tunis at the time of this treaty, ſailed towards Ptolemais, where he landed with a ſmall body of

Croisade.

of 300 English and French, and hindered Bendocdar from laying siege to Ptolemais: but being obliged to quit the Holy Land to take possession of the crown of England, this croisade ended without contributing any thing to the recovery of the Holy Land. In 1291, the town of Acre, or Ptolemais, was taken and plundered by the soldan of Egypt, and the Christians quite driven out of Syria. There has been no croisade since that time, though several popes have attempted to stir up the Christians to such an undertaking; particularly Nicholas IV. in 1292, and Clement V. in 1311.

Though these croisades were effects of the most absurd superstition, they tended greatly to promote the good of Europe. Multitudes indeed were destroyed. M. Voltaire computes the people who perished in the different expeditions at upwards of two millions. Many there were, however, who returned; and these having conversed so long with people who lived in a much more magnificent way than themselves, began to entertain some taste for a refined and polished way of life. Thus the barbarism in which Europe had been so long immersed, began to wear off soon after this time. The princes also who remained at home, found means to avail themselves of the frenzy of the people. By the absence of such numbers of restless and martial adventurers, peace was established in their dominions. They also took the opportunity of annexing to their crown many considerable fiefs, either by purchase, or by the extinction of the heirs; and thus the mischiefs which must always attend feudal governments were considerably lessened.

With regard to the bad success of the croisaders, it was scarce possible that any other thing could happen them. The emperors of Constantinople, instead of assisting, did all in their power to disconcert their schemes. They were jealous, and not without reason, of such an inundation of barbarians. Yet, had they considered their true interest, they would rather have assisted them, or at least stood neuter, than entered into alliances with the Turks. They followed the latter method, however, and were often of very great disservice to the western adventurers, which at last occasioned the loss of their city*. But the worst enemies the croisaders had, were their own internal feuds and dissensions. They neither could agree while marching together in armies with a view to conquest, nor could they unite their conquests under one government after they had made them. They set up three small states, one at Jerusalem, another at Antioch, and another at Edessa. These states, instead of assisting, made war upon each other, and on the Greek emperors; and thus became an easy prey to the common enemy. The horrid cruelties they committed also were such as must have inspired the Turks with the most invincible hatred against them, and made them resist with the greatest obstinacy. They were such as could have been committed only by barbarians inflamed with religious enthusiasm. When Jerusalem was taken, not only the numerous garrison were put to the sword, but the inhabitants were massacred without mercy and without distinction. No age or sex was spared, even children at the breast were barbarously murdered. According to Voltaire, some Christians, who had been suffered by the Turks to live in that city, led the conquerors into the most private caves where women had concealed themselves with their children, and not one of them was suffered to escape. What eminently shows the enthusiasm with which these conquerors were animated, is their behaviour after this terrible slaughter. They marched over heaps of dead bodies towards the holy sepulchre; and while their hands were yet polluted with the blood of so many innocent persons, sung anthems to the common Saviour of mankind. Nay, so far did their religious enthusiasm overcome their fury, that these ferocious conquerors now burst into tears. If the absurdity and wickedness of this conduct can be exceeded by any thing, it must be by what follows. In the year 1204, the frenzy of croisading seized the children, who are ever ready to imitate what they see their parents engage themselves in. Their childish folly was encouraged by the monks and schoolmasters; and thousands of those innocents were conducted from the houses of their parents on the faith of these words, "Out of the mouth of babes and sucklings hast thou perfected praise." Their base conductors sold a part of them to the Turks, and the rest perished miserably.

See Constantinople, N° 144.

Croisade || Croix.

CROISERS, a religious order founded in honour of the invention or discovery of the cross by the empress Helena. They are dispersed in several parts of Europe, particularly in the Low Countries, France, and Bohemia, those in Italy being at present suppressed. These religious follow the rule of St Augustine. They had in England the name of *crouched friars*.

CROISES, or CROIZES, in English antiquity, pilgrims bound for the Holy Land, or such as had been there; so called from a badge they wore in imitation of a cross. The knights of St John of Jerusalem, created for the defence and protection of pilgrims, were particularly called *croises*.

CROIX, FRANCIS PETIT DE LA, secretary and interpreter to the king of France, in the Turkish and Arabic languages, died November 4. 1695, in his 73d year; after having executed this employment for the space of 44 years. And it appears, that he executed it with as much integrity as abilities; for, when the Algerines sought for peace of Louis XIV. conditions were offered, by which they were required to reimburse to this monarch 600,000 franks. The terms being thought exorbitant, they had recourse to stratagem; and they offered a large sum to La Croix, who was the interpreter of all that passed, if he would put into the treaty "crowns of Tripoli," instead of "French crowns;" which would have made to the Algerines a difference of more than 100,000 livres. But the integrity of the interpreter triumphed over the temptation; which however was the greater, as it was next to impossible he should be discovered. Besides the Turkish and the Arabic, the Persian and the Tartarian, he also understood the Ethiopian and Armenian languages. He is well known to the learned world by many works. He translated the "History of France" into the Turkish language. He digested the three volumes of, "Voyages into the East Indies" of M. Thevenot. He made an accurate catalogue of all the Turkish and Persian books which are in the king's library. He composed two complete Dictionaries for the French and Turkish languages; and, when he was dying, he was about to present the world with the history of Jenghis Khan. He undertook this

history

hiſtory by the order of M. Colbert: for this miniſter, altogether intent upon aggrandizing his maſter, was accuſtomed every week to call together, either in the king's library or his own, certain of the learned, whom, according as they excelled in their ſeveral departments in literature, he conſtantly ſet to work. This hiſtory, which coſt La Croix more than ten years labour, is uſeful not only to the learned who are curious to know paſt events, or to geographers who had hitherto been greatly ignorant of Grand Tartary, but likewiſe to all who trade to China, Perſia, or other eaſtern parts of the world. There is a good map of northern Aſia drawn by M. de l'Iſle, accompanying the work; which M. Petit de la Croix, the author's ſon, not only reviſed, but, to render it more curious, added to it an abridgement of the lives of all thoſe authors from whom it was extracted. It was tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed at London, 1722, 8vo.

CROMARTY, a town of Scotland, capital of the county of the ſame name. The town is ſmall, and ſituated upon a rock or point of land, which overhangs the ſea in a romantic manner, and is much expoſed to the eaſt wind; it was formerly a royal borough, but was disfranchiſed by an act of the privy council of Scotland, in conſequence of a petition for that purpoſe preſented by Sir John Urquhart, proprietor of the eſtate of Cromarty; it is now under the baronial juriſdiction of the earl of Cromarty. The pariſh extends about ſeven miles in length, and from one to four in breadth, bounded by the frith of Cromarty on the north. On the banks of the frith the ſurface is level, and covered with verdure. A bank about two miles from the coaſt, extends the whole length of the pariſh, above which the ground is covered with heath and moſs. The ſoil is everywhere wet and mooriſh, which makes the ſeaſons late, and the crop uncertain. The coaſt towards the eaſt is bold and rocky, ſome of the cliffs being nearly 250 feet perpendicular to the ſea; the reſt is flat and ſandy. After every ſtorm a great quantity of ſea weed is thrown aſhore, which is partly uſed as a manure, and partly burnt into kelp, of which there is annually made about 10 or 12 tons. The harbour of Cromarty is inferior, perhaps, to none in Britain for ſafety; and a commodious quay was lately built at the joint expence of government and the proprietor of the eſtate of Cromarty, where veſſels of 350 or 400 tons may lie in perfect ſecurity. A conſiderable trade in the hempen or ſack-cloth line has been long eſtabliſhed in Cromarty and the neighbourhood.

CROMARTY, *County of*, in Scotland, forms a kind of peninſula, waſhed on three ſides by the friths of Cromarty and Moray, and bounded on the ſouth-weſt and ſouth by the county of Roſs. Its extreme extent in length is about 16 miles, and on an average about ſix and a half or ſeven in breadth. It was erected into a diſtinct county about the end of the 17th century, at the requeſt of Sir James M'Kenzie, earl of Cromarty, to whom it almoſt entirely belonged. The face of the country is pleaſant; a long ridge of hills extending the whole length in the middle of the county, having a fine declivity on either ſide towards the ſhores of the friths. The higher grounds are moſtly covered with heath, but towards the ſhores the ſoils are light and early. A great many plantations have been lately made out, which will ſhortly be a great ornament and ſhelter to the country. The language is generally Gaelic, but many ſpeak that broad Scotch, which is commonly called the Buchan or Aberdeenſhire dialect. Freeſtone, granite, and reddiſh-coloured porphyry, are almoſt the only minerals, if we except *topazes*, ſimilar to thoſe of *Cairngorum*, found in the pariſh of Kincardine. Fiſheries are very ſucceſsfully carried on, and pearls of conſiderable value are ſometimes found in the frith of Cromarty, where the river *Conal* falls into that bay.

Population of the County of Cromarty at two different periods.

Pariſhes.	Population in 1755.	Population in 1790—1798.
Cromarty	2096	2184
Fodderty	1483	1730
Tarbat	1584	1370
	5163	5284
		5163
	Increaſe	121

CROMARTY, *Frith of*, is one of the fineſt bays in Great Britain; hence called by Buchanan *Portus Salutis*. It is divided from the Moray frith by the county of Cromarty, and waſhes the ſouthern ſhore of the county of Roſs. It is about 16 miles in length, and ſometimes three in breadth. The entrance is between two promontories or headlands, called the *Sutors of Cromarty*, which are about a mile and a half diſtant: there is the fineſt anchorage ground after paſſing the *Sutors*, for ſeveral miles up the bay, with deep water on both ſides, almoſt cloſe to the ſhore, where in moſt places the coaſt is ſo ſmooth, that ſuppoſing a veſſel to part her cables (a thing ſcarcely probable), ſhe might run aground without ſuſtaining much damage. Such is the extent of ſea-room in the bay, and ſuch is the capacity, that almoſt the whole Britiſh navy might lie here in ſafety.

CROMLECH, in Britiſh antiquities, are huge, broad, flat ſtones, raiſed upon other ſtones ſet up on end for that purpoſe. They are common in ANGLESEA; under which article a very large one is deſcribed. See Plate CLXIV.

Theſe monuments are ſpoken of largely by Mr Rowland, by Dr Borlaſe, and by Wormius, under the name of *Ara* or altar. Mr Rowland, however, is divided in his opinion; for he partly inclines to the notion of their having been altars, partly to their having been ſepulchres: he ſuppoſes them to have been originally tombs, but that in after times ſacrifices were performed upon them to the heroes depoſited within. Mr Keiller preſerves an account of King Harold having been interred beneath a tomb of this kind in Denmark, and Mr Wright diſcovered in Ireland a ſkeleton depoſited under one of them. The great ſimilarity of the monuments throughout the north, Mr Pennant obſerves, evinces the ſame religion to have been ſpread in every part, perhaps with ſome ſlight deviations. Many of theſe monuments are both Britiſh and Daniſh; for we find them where the Danes never penetrated.

The cromlech, or cromleh, chiefly differs from the *KIST-vaen*, in not being cloſed up at the end and ſides, that

that is, in not so much partaking of the chest-like figure; it is also generally of larger dimensions, and sometimes consists of a greater number of stones: the terms *cromlech* and *kist-vaen* are however indiscriminately used for the same monument. The term *cromlech* is by some derived from the Armoric word *crum*, "crooked or bowing," and *leh*, "stone," alluding to the reverence which persons paid to them by bowing. Rowland derives it from the Hebrew words *carem-luach*, signifying a "devoted or consecrated stone." They are called by the vulgar *coetne-Arthor*, or *Arthur's quoits*, it being a custom in Wales as well as Cornwall to ascribe all great or wonderful objects to Prince Arthur, the hero of those countries.

CROMWELL, Thomas, earl of Essex, was the son of a blacksmith at Putney, and born in 1498. Without a liberal education, but endowed with a strong natural genius, he considered travelling as the proper means of improving his understanding; and to this early token of his sound judgment he stood indebted for the high rank and distinguished honours he afterwards enjoyed. He became by degrees the confidential favourite and prime minister of Henry VIII.; and from the moment he acquired any authority in the cabinet, he employed it in promoting the reformation, to his zeal for which he became a victim; for, the more firmly to secure the Protestant cause, he contrived to marry the king to Ann of Cleves, whose friends were all Lutherans. Unfortunately Henry took a disgust at this lady, which brought on Cromwell's ruin; the king, with his usual cruelty and caprice, taking this opportunity to sacrifice this minister to the Roman Catholic party, to whom he seemed desirous of reconciling himself as soon as he had Catharine Howard in view. Cromwell was a great politician, and a good man; but, like most statesmen, was guilty of great errors. In his zeal for the new religion, he had introduced the unjustifiable mode of attainder in cases of treason and heresy; and his enemies, who were numerous (consisting of two classes, the ancient nobility and gentry, who were enraged to see the highest honours bestowed on a man of mean extraction, and the Roman Catholics, who detested him), having preferred many complaints against him, availed themselves of his own law. He was attainted of treason and heresy, convicted unheard, and beheaded in 1540. He was the chief instrument of the suppression of the abbeys and monasteries, and of the destruction of images and relics; to him also we are indebted for the institution of parish-registers of births, marriages, and burials.

Cromwell, *Oliver*, stiled *Lord Protector* of the commonwealth of England, one of the most extraordinary personages mentioned in history, was the son of Mr Robert Cromwell of Hinchinbrooke in the county of Huntingdon. His ancestors were of very honourable extraction; but no ways related to Thomas Cromwell earl of Essex, the prime minister and favourite of Henry VIII. He was born in the parish of St John Huntingdon, where his father mostly lived, on the 25th or 26th of April 1599, and educated at the free school of that town. Little is known concerning him in his younger years, or indeed concerning his behaviour in private life. It is, however, related by authors of unsuspected veracity, that when at school he gave many signs of a very turbulent and restless disposition. He is also said from his early years to have been subject to the hypochondriac disorder, and to many deceptions of the imagination. He had a very remarkable one while at school. It happened in the day-time, when he was lying melancholy upon his back in bed. A spectre, as he thought, approached him, and told him that he should be the greatest man in the kingdom. His father, being informed of this, was very angry, and desired his master to correct him severely. This, however, produced no effect. Oliver persisted in the truth of his story, and would sometimes mention it, though his uncle told him "it was too traiterous to be repeated."—From this school Oliver was removed to Sidney college in Cambridge, where he was admitted in 1616. His progress in his studies is uncertain; but he spent much time in playing at foot-ball, cricket, and other robust exercises, at which he was very expert. His father dying after he had been about two years at college, Cromwell returned home; but the irregularity of his life gave such offence to his mother, that, by the advice of some friends, she sent him to London, and placed him in Lincoln's-inn. This expedient by no means answered the purpose; her son gave himself up to gaming, wine, and women, so that he quickly dissipated all that was left him by his father. This dissipation, however, could be but of very short continuance; for he was married, before he was 21 years of age, to Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bouchier of Essex. Soon after his marriage he returned to the country, where he led a very grave and sober life. This sudden reformation has been ascribed to his falling in with the Puritans; but it is certain, that Mr Cromwell continued then, and for some time after, a zealous member of the church of England, and formed a close friendship with several eminent divines. He continued at Huntingdon, where he settled after his marriage, till an estate of between 400l. and 500l. per annum devolved on him by the death of his uncle Sir Thomas Stuart. This induced him to remove to the isle of Ely where the estate lay, and here he embraced the puritanical doctrines. He was elected a member of the third parliament of Charles I. which met on the 10th of January 1628; and was a member of the committee for religion, where he distinguished himself by his zeal against popery. After the dissolution of that parliament, he returned again into the country, where he continued to express much concern for religion, to keep company with silenced ministers, and to invite them often to lectures and sermons at his house. Thus he brought his affairs again into a very indifferent situation: so that, by way of repairing the breaches he made in his fortune, he took a farm at St Ives, which he kept five years. But this scheme succeeded so ill, that he was obliged to give it up; and at last, chagrined with his disappointments, and made uneasy by the treatment his party at that time received, he formed a design of going over to New England. In this, however, he was disappointed; the king issued out a proclamation against all such emigrations, and Cromwell was obliged to remain in England against his will.

In 1638, Cromwell had first an opportunity of getting himself publicly taken notice of. The earl of Bedford,

Cromwell.

Bedford, and ſome other perſons of high rank, who had eſtates in the fen country, were very deſirous of having it better drained; and though one project of this ſort had failed, they ſet on foot another, got it countenanced by royal authority, and ſettled a part of the profits upon the crown. This, though really intended for a public benefit, was oppoſed as injurious to private property: and at the head of the oppoſers was Mr Oliver Cromwell, who had conſiderable influence in theſe parts. The vigour he ſhowed on this occaſion recommended him to his friend and relation Mr Hampden; who afterwards characterized him in parliament, as a perſon capable of contriving and conducting great deſigns. But for all this he was not very ſucceſsful in his oppoſition; and as his private affairs were ſtill declining, he was in very neceſſitous circumſtances at the approach of the long parliament. In this critical ſituation he got himſelf elected member of parliament in the following manner. In the puritanical meetings which he conſtantly frequented, Oliver had moſt eminently diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his *gifts* of praying, preaching, and expounding. At one of theſe meetings he met with one Richard Tims, a tradeſman of Cambridge. This man was ſo much taken with Oliver, that he took it into his head to attempt getting him choſen burgeſs for the approaching parliament. Being himſelf one of the common council, Tims imagined this deſign might be brought about; and with this view went to Mr Wildbore a relation of Cromwell's, to whom he communicated his intention. Wildbore agreed as to the fitneſs of the perſon; but told him the deſign was impracticable, becauſe Oliver was not a freeman. Tims next addreſſed one Evett on the ſame ſubject, who alſo made the ſame objection. He recollected, however, that the mayor had a freedom to beſtow, and a ſcheme was immediately laid for ſecuring this freedom to Cromwell. On application to the mayor, however, he told them that the freedom was already diſpoſed of to another; but this objection being obviated by promiſing that perſon a freedom from the town, the mayor being informed that Cromwell was a man of great fortune, ſignified his intention of beſtowing the freedom upon him. Our hero being informed of the good offices of his friends, made his appearance in the court dreſſed in ſcarlet richly laced with gold, and having provided plenty of claret and ſweetmeats, they were ſo freely circulated among the corporation, that Mr Mayor's freeman was unanimouſly declared to be a very civil worthy gentleman. When the election came on, the mayor diſcovered his miſtake, but it was now too late; the party among the burgeſſes was ſtrong enough to chooſe him, and accordingly did ſo at the election next year.

When Cromwell firſt came into parliament, he affected great plainneſs, and even careleſſneſs in his dreſs. His attention to farming had entirely ruſticated him, ſo that he made a very uncouth appearance, "Who (ſays Dr South) that had beheld ſuch a bankrupt, beggarly fellow, as Cromwell, firſt entering the parliament houſe, with a thread-bare torn coat and greaſy hat, and perhaps neither of them paid for, could have ſuſpected, that, in the ſpace of ſo few years, he ſhould, by the murder of one king, and the baniſhment of another, aſcend the throne, be inveſted with the royal robes, and want nothing of the ſtate of a king but the changing his hat into a crown?" Cromwell was very active in promoting the famous *Remonſtrance** ; which in reality laid the foundation of the civil war. He declared afterwards to Lord Falkland, that if the remonſtrance had not been carried, he deſigned to have converted the ſmall remains of his eſtate into ready money the next day, and to have left the kingdom by the firſt opportunity. His firmneſs on this occaſion ſo effectually recommended him to Hampden, Pym, and the other leaders of the popular party, that they took him into all their councils; and here he acquired that clear inſight into things, and that knowledge of men, of which he afterwards made ſuch prodigious uſe. His exploits during the civil war, his murder of the king, and uſurpation of the kingdom, are related under the article Britain, N° 127—188.

* See *Britain.*

With regard to the character of Cromwell, Mr Hume expreſſes himſelf as follows: "The writers attached to this wonderful perſon make his character, with regard to abilities, bear the air of the moſt extravagant panegyric: his enemies form ſuch a repreſentation of his moral qualities as reſembles the moſt virulent invective. Both of them, it muſt be confeſſed, are ſupported by ſuch ſtriking circumſtances in his fortune and conduct, as beſtow on their repreſentation, a great air of probability. 'What can be more extraordinary (it is ſaid), than that a perſon of private birth and education, no fortune, no eminent qualities of body, which have ſometimes, nor ſhining qualities of mind, which have often raiſed men to the higheſt dignities, ſhould have the courage to attempt, and the abilities to execute, ſo great a deſign as the ſubverting one of the moſt ancient as well as beſt eſtabliſhed monarchies in the world? That he ſhould have the power and boldneſs to put his prince and maſter to an open and infamous death? ſhould baniſh that numerous and ſtrongly allied family—cover all theſe temerities under a ſeeming obedience to a parliament, in whoſe ſervice he pretended to be retained—trample too upon that parliament in their turn, and ſcornfully expel them as ſoon as they gave him ground of diſſatisfaction—erect in their place the dominion of the ſaints, and give reality to the moſt viſionary idea which the heated imagination of any fanatic was ever able to entertain—ſuppreſs again that monſter in its infancy, and openly ſet himſelf up above all things that ever were called *ſovereign* in England—overcome firſt all his enemies by arms, and all his friends afterwards by artifice—ſerve all parties patiently for a while, and afterwards command them victoriouſly at laſt—overrun each corner of the three nations, and ſubdue with equal facility both the riches of the ſouth, and the poverty of the north—be feared and courted by all princes, and adopted a brother to the gods of the earth—call together parliaments with a word of his pen, and ſcatter them again by the breath of his mouth—reduce to ſubjection a warlike and diſcontented nation by means of a mutinous army—command a mutinous army by means of ſeditious and factious officers—be humbly and daily petitioned, that he would be pleaſed, at the rate of millions a-year, to be hired as maſter of thoſe who had formerly hired him for their ſervant—have the eſtates and

Cromwell. and lives of three nations as much at his disposal as was once the little inheritance of his father, and be as noble and liberal in the spending of them? And, lastly, (for there is no end of enumerating every particular of his glory), with one word bequeath all this power and splendour to his posterity—die possessed of peace at home, and triumph abroad—be buried among kings, and with more than regal solemnity, and leave a name behind him not to be extinguished but with the whole world; which, as it was too little for his praise, so it might have been for his conquests, if the short line of his mortal life could have stretched out to the extent of his immortal designs?

"My intention is not to disfigure this picture drawn by so masterly a hand; I shall only endeavour to remove from it somewhat of the marvellous; a circumstance which, on all occasions, gives much ground for doubt and suspicion. It seems to me that the circumstance of Cromwell's life in which his abilities are principally discovered, is his rising, from a private station, in opposition to so many rivals, so much advanced before him, to a high command and authority in the army. His great courage, his signal military talents, his eminent dexterity and address, were all requisite for this important acquisition. Yet will not this promotion appear the effect of supernatural abilities, when we consider that Fairfax himself, a private gentleman, who had not the advantage of a seat in parliament, had through the same steps attained even to a superior rank; and, if endued with common capacity and penetration, had been able to retain it. To incite such an army to rebellion against the parliament, required no uncommon art or industry: to have kept them in obedience had been the more difficult enterprise. When the breach is once formed between the military and civil powers, a supreme and absolute authority, from that moment, is devolved on the general; and if he is afterwards pleased to employ artifice or policy, it may be regarded on most occasions as great condescension, if not as superfluous caution. That Cromwell was ever able really to blind or overreach either the king or the republicans, does not appear: as they possessed no means of resisting the force under his command, they were glad to temporize with him; and, by seeming to be deceived, to wait for an opportunity of freeing themselves from his dominion. If he seduced the military fanatics, it is to be considered that their interest and his evidently concurred; that their ignorance and low education exposed them to the grossest imposition; and that he himself was at the bottom as frantic an enthusiast as the worst of them; and in order to obtain their confidence, needed but to display those vulgar and ridiculous habits which he had early acquired, and on which he set so high a value. An army is so forcible, and at the same time so coarse a weapon, that any hand which wields it, may, without much dexterity, perform any operation, and attain any ascendant in human society.

"The domestic administration of Cromwell, though it discovers great ability, was conducted without any plan either of liberty or arbitrary power: perhaps his difficult situation admitted of neither. His foreign enterprises, though full of intrepidity, were pernicious to national interest; and seem more the result of impetuous fury or narrow prejudices, than of cool foresight and deliberation. An eminent personage, however, he was in many respects, and even a superior genius; but unequal and irregular in his operations: and, though not defective in any talent except that of elocution, the abilities which in him were most admirable, and which contributed most to his marvellous success, were the magnanimous resolution of his enterprises, and his peculiar dexterity in discovering the characters and practising on the weaknesses of mankind.

"If we survey the moral character of Cromwell, with that indulgence which is due to the blindness and infirmities of the human species, we shall not be inclined to load his memory with such violent reproaches as those which his enemies usually throw upon it. Amidst the passions and prejudices of that time, that he should prefer the parliamentary to the royal cause, will not appear extraordinary; since even at present many men of sense and knowledge are disposed to think, that the question, with regard to the justice of the quarrel, may be regarded as doubtful and ambiguous. The murder of the king, the most atrocious of all his actions, was to him covered under a mighty cloud of republican and fanatical illusions; and it is not impossible but he might believe it, as many others did, the most meritorious action which he could perform. His subsequent usurpation was the effect of necessity, as well as of ambition; nor is it easy to see how the various factions could at that time have been restrained without a mixture of military and arbitrary authority. The private deportment of Cromwell as a son, a husband; a father, a friend, is exposed to no considerable censure, if it does not rather merit praise. And, upon the whole, his character does not appear more extraordinary and unusual by the mixture of so much absurdity with so much penetration, than by his tempering such violent ambition and such enraged fanaticism with so much regard to justice and humanity."

That Cromwell continued a most complete and bigotted enthusiast to the very last, appears from his behaviour in his last sickness. His disease, which at first was a kind of slow fever, brought on by the cares and anxiety of his mind, soon degenerated into a tertian ague. For about a week the disorder continued without any dangerous symptoms, insomuch that every other day he walked abroad; but one day after dinner his five physicians coming to wait upon him, one of them having felt his pulse, said that it intermitted. At this Cromwell was surprised, turned pale, fell into a cold sweat, and, when he was almost fainting, ordered himself to be carried to bed; where, by the assistance of cordials, being brought a little to himself, he made his will with respect to his private affairs. The next morning, when one of his physicians came to visit him, Cromwell asked him, why he looked so sad? and when answer was made that so it became every one who had the weighty charge of his life and health upon him, "Ye physicians (says Cromwell), think I shall die: I tell you I shall not die this bout, I am sure of it. Do not you think (said he to the physician, looking more attentively at him), do not think that I am mad: I speak the words of truth upon surer grounds than your Hippocrates or Galen can furnish you with. God Almighty himself hath given that answer, not to my

Cromwell. my prayers alone, but alſo to the prayers of thoſe who entertain a ſtricter commerce and greater intereſt with him. Go on cheerfully, baniſhing all ſadneſs from your looks; and deal with me as you would deal with a ſerving man. Ye may have a ſkill in the nature of things, yet nature can do more than all phyſicians, put together, and God is far more above nature." As this phyſician was coming out of the chamber, he accidentally met with another, to whom he expreſſed his fear that the protector was turning light-headed. But the other informed him that the chaplains, being diſperſed the preceding night into different parts of the houſe, had prayed for the protector's recovery, and unanimouſly received for anſwer that he ſhould recover. Nay, to ſuch a degree of madneſs did they at laſt arrive, that, a public faſt being kept at Hampton court, they did not ſo much pray to God for the protector's health, as return thanks for the undoubted pledges they had of his recovery. On this account, though the phyſicians perceived his diſtemper increaſing every hour, they took no notice of his danger, till it became neceſſary for him to appoint a ſucceſſor while he had any breath remaining. But being then in a lethargic fit, he anſwered from the purpoſe; upon which he was again aſked whether he did not name his eldeſt ſon Richard? and to this queſtion he anſwered, Yes. Being then aſked where his will was which he had formerly made concerning the heirs of the kingdom: he ſent to look for it in his cloſet and other places, but in vain; for ſomebody had either ſtolen it, or he himſelf had burnt it. Soon after, he expired, on the 3d of September 1658, aged ſomewhat more than 59 years and four months. This day of September he had always reckoned to be the moſt fortunate for him in the whole year. A violent tempeſt, which immediately ſucceeded his death, ſerved as a ſubject of diſcourſe to the vulgar. His partizans, as well as his opponents, were fond of remarking this event; and each of them endeavoured, by forced inferences, to interpret it as beſt ſuited their particular prejudices.

It has been imagined by ſome, that Oliver Cromwell was poiſoned: but for this there ſeems to be no reaſonable foundation. His body was opened by Dr Bates. He found the brain ſomewhat overcharged with blood, and the lungs a little inflamed; but what he reckoned to have been the principal cauſe of his diſorder was a total degeneracy of the ſubſtance of his ſpleen into a matter reſembling the lees of oil. This, he thought, alſo accounted for the hypochondriac diſpoſitions to which Cromwell had from his infancy been ſubject. Though the bowels were taken out, and the body filled with ſpices wrapped in a fourfold cere cloth, put firſt into a coffin of lead, and then into one of wood, yet the corruption was ſo great that the humour wrought itſelf through the whole, and there was a neceſſity of interring the body before the ſolemnity of the funeral. A very pompous funeral was ordered at the public expence, and performed from Somerſet-houſe, with a ſplendour not only equal but ſuperior to that beſtowed upon crowned heads. Some have related that his body was depoſited in Naſebyfield; others, that it was wrapped in lead, and ſunk in the deepeſt part of the Thames, to prevent any inſult that might afterwards be offered to it. But it ſeems beyond doubt that his body was interred at Weſtminſter: as we are informed, that on the order to diſinter him after the Reſtoration, his corpſe was found in a vault in the middle aiſle of Henry VII.'s chapel. In the inſide of the coffin, and on the breaſt of the corpſe, was laid a copper plate finely gilt, encloſed in a thin caſe of lead. On one ſide of this plate were engraven the arms of England impaled with thoſe of Oliver, and on the reverſe the following legend: *Oliverius Protector Reipublicæ Angliæ, Scotiæ, et Hiberniæ, natus* 25. *Aprilis* 1599, *inauguratus* 16. *Decembris* 1653, *mortuus* 3. *Septembris ann.* 1658, *hic ſitus eſt.* Cromwell || Cronius.

Cromwell was of a robuſt frame of body, and of a manly though not agreeable aſpect. His noſe being remarkably red and ſhining, was often made the ſubject of ridicule. He left only two ſons, Richard and Henry: and three daughters; one married to General Fleetwood, another to Lord Fauconberg, and a third to Lord Rich. His mother lived till after he was protector; and contrary to her orders he buried her with great pomp in Weſtminſter abbey. She could not be perſuaded that ever his power or his perſon was in ſafety. At every noiſe ſhe heard ſhe would exclaim that her ſon was murdered; and was never ſatisfied that he was alive if ſhe did not receive frequent viſits from him. She was a decent woman; and by her frugality and induſtry had raiſed and educated a numerous family upon a ſmall fortune. She had even been obliged to ſet up a brewery in Huntingdon, which ſhe managed to good advantage. Hence Cromwell, in the invectives of that age, is often ſtigmatized with the name of brewer. Ludlow, by way of inſult, mentions the great acceſſion which he would receive to his royal revenues upon his mother's death, who poſſeſſed a jointure of 60 pounds a-year upon his eſtate. She was of a good family of the name of Stuart; and is by ſome ſuppoſed to have been remotely allied to the royal family.

Cromwell, *Richard*, eldeſt ſon of Oliver Cromwell, was by his father appointed ſucceſſor to the protectorſhip, but very ſoon depoſed by the army *. They diſcharged his debts, took all the houſehold ſtuff, plate, &c. gave him a protection for ſix months, and ſo he retired. He was by no means qualified to ſupport the ſtation gained by the aſpiring talents of his father. He was of a moderate temper, and untainted with that fanatical ſpirit which his father had ſo ſucceſsfully cultivated. On the Reſtoration he went abroad; but returned in 1680 under the aſſumed name of Clark, and ſettled in Cheſhunt in Hertfordſhire, where he lived privately, and died in 1712, aged 86.

* See *Britain*, No. 189, 190.

Cronenburg, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and in the landgraviate of Heſſe Caſſel, with a ſtrong caſtle. It is ſeated at the foot of a high mountain, on a fertile ſoil, and is ſurrounded with a double wall. E. Long. 8. 15. N. Lat. 50. 15.

Cronenburg, a ſtrong fortreſs of Denmark, in the iſle of Zealand, at the entrance of the Sound, where the Danes take toll of ſuch ſhips as are bound for the Baltic. It was very richly furniſhed, but pillaged by the Swedes in 1658, who took away the furniture, among which were ſome ſtatues of maſſy ſilver. It is built upon piles. E. Long. 12. 50. N. Lat. 56. 0.

Cronius, in *Chronology*, the ancient name of the Athenian month Hecatombæon; which was the firſt

firſt of their year, and anſwered to the latter part of our June and beginning of July.—There were feaſts called *Croniene*s celebrated at Athens in this month, in honour of Saturn, anſwering to the Saturnalia of the Romans.

CRONSLOT. See CRONSTADT.

CRONSTADT, a ſea-port town of Ruſſia, where the greateſt part of the navy is ſtationed. It ſtands upon the iſland of Retuſari in the gulf of Finland; and was founded by Peter I. as being provided with the ſafeſt harbour in theſe parts, and as forming a ſtrong bulwark by ſea for the defence of the new metropolis. The only paſſage by which ſhips of burden can approach Peterſburgh, lies on the ſouth ſide of Retuſari, through a narrow channel; one ſide whereof is commanded by Cronſtadt, and the oppoſite by Cronſlot and the citadel. Cronſlot, which ſtands upon a ſmall iſland of ſand, is a circular wooden building, and ſurrounded with fortifications of wood that jut into the water. It contains a garriſon of 100 men. The citadel is another ſmall wooden fortreſs, conſtructed alſo upon an adjacent ſand-bank, and capable of holding about 30 ſoldiers. All large veſſels muſt ſail between Cronſtadt and theſe two fortreſſes, expoſed to the fire of the oppoſite batteries; for the other parts of the gulf are only from one to eleven feet in depth. All theſe fortifications were, at the time of their conſtruction, eſteemed places of conſiderable ſtrength; but now they derive their conſequence more from their paſt importance than from any reſiſtance they could make againſt the attack of a powerful fleet.

Cronſtadt is built upon the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of the iſland, and is defended towards the ſea by wooden piers projecting into the water, and towards the land by ramparts and baſtions. It is a very ſtraggling place; and occupies, like all the Ruſſian towns, a larger ſpace of ground than the number of habitations ſeems to require; the houſes are moſtly of wood, excepting a few fronting the harbour, which are of brick ſtuccoed white. Among the latter are the imperial hoſpital for ſailors, the barracks, and the academy for marines and officers of the navy. That ſeminary uſually contains between three and four hundred cadets, who are clothed, maintained, and taught at the expence of the crown. They are admitted at the age of five, and are ſuffered to remain until they reach their ſeventeenth year. They learn accounts, mathematics, drawing, fortification, and navigation; and have maſters in the French, German, Engliſh, and Swediſh languages. They are trained to naval affairs, and make an annual cruiſe in the Baltic as far as Revel. Cronſtadt has a ſeparate haven appropriated to the men of war, and another to merchant ſhips. Cloſe to the haven for merchant ſhips is a canal and ſeveral dry docks, begun in 1719 by Peter I. for the purpoſe of refitting the men of war. This uſeful work was neglected under his ſucceſſor, and was not completed until the reign of his daughter Elizabeth. It has been ſtill farther beautified and improved by the preſent empreſs; and is now applied for building as well as careening ſhips of the line. At the extremity of theſe docks is a great reſervoir 568 feet in length, which contains water ſufficient, and half the quantity over, to ſupply all the docks; which is pumped into it by means of a fire engine, the diameter of whoſe cylinder is ſix feet. The length of this work, from the beginning of the canal to the end of the laſt dock, is 4221 feet. The ſides of the docks are faced with ſtone, and the bottom is paved with granite. They are 40 feet deep and 150 broad; and are capable of containing nine men of war upon the ſtocks.

CRONSTAT, a town of Tranſylvania, near the frontiers of Moldavia, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. E. Long. 25. 0. N. Lat. 47. 0.

CROP, the high part or end of any thing cut off. It is particularly uſed for the corn gathered off a field in harveſt. See AGRICULTURE *Index*.

CROSIER, or CROZIER, a ſhepherd's crook; a ſymbol of paſtoral authority, conſiſting of a gold or ſilver ſtaff, crooked at the top, carried occaſionally before biſhops and abbots, and held in the hand when they give the ſolemn benedictions. The cuſtom of bearing a paſtoral ſtaff before biſhops is very ancient, as appears from the life of St Cæſarea of Arles, who lived about the year 500. Among the Greeks none but the patriarchs had a right to the croſier. The croſiers were at firſt no more than ſimple wooden ſtaves in form of a T, uſed to reſt and lean upon. By degrees they were made longer; and at length arrived at the form we now ſee them of. Regular abbots are allowed to officiate with a mitre and croſier.

CROSIER, in *Aſtronomy*, four ſtars in the ſouthern hemiſphere in the form of a croſs, ſerving thoſe who ſail in ſouth latitudes to find the antarctic pole.

CROSLET, in *Heraldry*, is when a croſs is croſſed again at a ſmall diſtance from each of the ends. Upton ſays it is not ſo often borne by itſelf in arms as other croſſes are, but often in diminutives, that is, in ſmall croſlets ſcattered about the field. See HERALDRY.

CROSS, a gibbet made with two pieces of wood placed croſswiſe, whether they croſs with right angles at the top like a T, or in the middle of their length like an X. The croſs to which our Saviour was faſtened, and on which he died, was of the former kind; being thus repreſented by old monuments, coins, and croſſes; and St Jerome compares it to a bird flying, a man ſwimming, or praying with his arms extended. The puniſhment of the croſs was common among the Syrians, Egyptians, Perſians, Africans, Greeks, Romans, and Jews.

The death of the croſs was the moſt dreadful of all others, both for the ſhame and pain of it; and ſo ſcandalous, that it was inflicted as the laſt mark of deteſtation upon the vileſt of people. It was the puniſhment of robbers and murderers, provided that they were ſlaves too; but otherwiſe, if they were free, and had the privileges of the city of Rome, this was then thought a proſtitution of that honour, and too infamous a puniſhment for ſuch a one, let his crimes be what they would.

The Moſaic law ordained, that the perſons executed ſhould not be left upon the tree after ſunſet, becauſe he that is hanged in this manner is accurſed of God, Deut. xxi. 22. The Jews believe, that the ſouls of thoſe who remain upon the gibbet, and without burial, enjoy no peace, and receive no benefit from the prayers of other people; but wander up and down till their bodies are buried: which agrees with the notions that the Greeks and Romans had of this matter, as may be ſeen in *Hom. Iliad* 4. and *Virg. Æneid* 6.

Crofs.

The form of a crofs being fuch as has been already defcribed, the body of the criminal was faftened to the upright piece by nailing the feet to it, and on the other tranfverfe piece generally by nailing the hands on each fide. Now, becaufe thefe parts of the body, being the inftruments of action and motion, are provided by nature with a much greater quantity of nerves than others have occafion for; and becaufe all fenfation is performed by the fpirit contained in thefe nerves; it will follow, as Stanhope obferves, that wherever they abound, the fenfe of pain muft needs in proportion be more quick and tender.

The Jews confefs, that indeed they crucified people in their nation, but deny that they inflicted this punifhment upon any one alive. They firft put them to death, and then faftened them to the crofs either by the hands or neck. But there are indifputable proofs of their crucifying men frequently alive. The worfhippers of Baal-peor and the king of Ai were hung up alive; as were alfo the defcendants of Saul, who were put into the hands of the Gibeonites, 2 Sam. xxi. 9.

Before crucifixion the criminal was generally fcourged with cords: fometimes little bones, or pieces of bones, were tied to thefe fcourges, fo that the condemned perfon might fuffer more feverely. It was alfo a cuftom that he who was to be crucified fhould bear his own crofs to the place of execution. After this manner we find Chrift was compelled to bear his own crofs; and, as he funk under the burden, Simon the Cyrenian was conftrained to bear it after him and with him. But whereas it is generally fuppofed that our Lord bore the whole crofs, i. e. the long and tranfverfe part both, this feems to be a thing impoffible; and therefore Lipfius (in his treatife *De Supplicio Crucis*) has fet the matter in a true light, when he tells us that Jefus only carried the tranfverfe beam; becaufe the long beam, or the body of the crofs, was either fixed in the ground before, or made ready to be fet up as foon as the prifoner came: and from hence he obferves, that painters are very much miftaken in their defcription of our Saviour carrying the whole crofs.

There were feveral ways of crucifying; fometimes the criminal was faftened with cords to a tree; fometimes he was crucified with his head downwards. This way St Peter chofe out of refpect to his mafter Jefus Chrift, not thinking himfelf worthy to be crucified like him; though the common way of crucifying was by faftening the criminal with nails, one through each hand, and one through both feet, or one through each of them: for this was not always performed in the fame manner; the ancients fometimes reprefenting Jefus Chrift crucified with four nails, and fometimes with three. The criminal was fixed to the crofs quite naked; and in all probability the Saviour of the world was not ufed with any greater tendernefs than others upon whom the punifhment was inflicted. The foldiers divided his clothes among them, and caft lots for his tunic, which is an under garment worn over the flefh like a fhirt.

The text of the gofpel fhows clearly, that Jefus Chrift was faftened to the crofs with nails; and the Pfalmift (xxii. 16.) had foretold long before, that they fhould pierce his hands and his feet: but there are great difputes concerning the number of thefe nails. The Greeks reprefent our Saviour as faftened to the crofs with four nails; in which particular Gregory of Tours agrees with them, one at each hand and foot. But feveral are of opinion, that our Saviour's hands and feet were pierced with three nails only, viz. one at each hand, and one through both his feet: and one cuftom of the Latins is rather for this laft opinion; for the generality of the old crucifixes made in the Latin church have only three nails. Nonnus thinks that our Saviour's arms were befides bound faft to the crofs with chains; and St Hilary fpeaks of the cords wherewith he was tied to it.

Sometimes they who were faftened upon the crofs lived a good while in that condition. St Andrew is believed to have continued three days alive upon it. Eufebius fpeaks of certain martyrs in Egypt who were kept upon the crofs till they were ftarved to death. Pilate was amazed at Jefus Chrift dying fo foon; becaufe naturally he muft have lived long, if it had not been in his power to have laid down his life and to take it up again. The thighs of the two thieves who were crucified together with our Saviour were broken in order to haften their death, that their bodies might not remain upon the crofs on the Sabbath-day (John xix. 31, 32, 33.), and to comply with the law of Mofes, which forbids the bodies to be left there after funfet. But among other nations they were fuffered to remain upon the crofs a long time. Sometimes they were devoured alive by birds and beafts of prey. Guards were appointed to obferve that none of their friends or relations fhould take them down and bury them. The ftory of the Ephefian matron and the foldier who was fet to guard the crofs, is very well known. The Roman foldiers who had crucified Jefus Chrift and the two thieves continued near the croffes till the bodies were taken down and buried.

Croffes were ufually, in former times, erected on the tops of houfes, by which tenants pretended to claim the privileges of the Templars Hofpitallers, to defend themfelves againft their rightful lords. This was condemned by the ftatute Wil. II. c. 37. It was ufual alfo, in thofe days, to fet up croffes in places where the corpfe of any of the nobility refted as it was carried to be buried, that *à tranfeuntibus pro ejus animo deprecentur.* Croffes, &c. are forbidden to be brought into England by 13 Eliz. c. 2. on pain of a *præmunire*, &c.

Invention of the CROSS, an ancient feaft folemnized on the third of May, in memory of St Helena's (the mother of Conftantine) finding the true crofs of Chrift deep in the ground on Mount Calvary; where fhe erected a church for the prefervation of part of it; the reft being brought to Rome and depofited in the church of the Holy Crofs of Jerufalem.

Theodoret mentions the finding of three croffes; that of Jefus Chrift and thofe of the two thieves; and that they diftinguifhed between them by means of a fick woman, who was immediately healed by touching the true crofs. The place is faid to have been pointed out to her by St Quiriacus, then a Jew, afterwards converted and canonized.

Exaltation of the CROSS, an ancient feaft, held on the 14th of September, in memory of this, that Heraclitus reftored to Mount Calvary the true crofs in 642, which had been carried off 14 years before by Cofroes king of Perfia, upon his taking Jerufalem from the emperor Phocas.

The adoration of the crofs appears to have been practifed in the ancient church; inafmuch as the heathens, particularly Julian, reproached the primitive Chriftians with it. And we do not find that their apologifts difclaimed the charge. Mornay, indeed, afferted, that this had been done by St Cyril, but could not fupport his allegation at the conference of Fountainbleau. St Helena is faid to have reduced the adoration of the crofs to its juft principle, fince fhe adored in the wood, not the wood itfelf, which had been direct idolatry and heathenifm, but him who had been nailed to this wood. With fuch modifications fome Proteftants have been induced to admit the adoration of the crofs. John Hufs allowed of the phrafe, provided it were exprefsly added, that the adoration was relative to the perfon of Chrift. But however Roman Catholics may feem to triumph by virtue of fuch diftinction and mitigations, it is well known they have no great place in their own practice. Imbert, the good prior of Gafcony, was feverely profecuted in 1683 for telling the people, that in the ceremony of adoring the crofs, practifed in that church on Good Friday, they were not to adore the wood, but Chrift, who was crucified on it. The curate of the parifh told them the contrary: it was the wood! the wood! they were to adore. Imbert replied, it was Chrift, not the wood: for which he was cited before the archbifhop of Bourdeaux, fufpended from his functions, and threatened with chains and perpetual imprifonment. It little availed him to cite the bifhop of Meaux's diftinction; it was anfwered that the church allowed it not.

Cross-Bearer (*port-croix*, *cruciger*), in the Romifh church, the chaplain of an archbifhop or a primate, who bears a crofs before him on folemn occafions.

The pope has the crofs borne before him everywhere; a patriarch anywhere out of Rome; and primates, metropolitans, and thofe who have a right to the pallium, throughout their refpective jurifdictions.

Gregory XI. forbade all patriarchs and prelates to have it borne in prefence of cardinals. A prelate bears a fingle crofs, a patriarch a double crofs, and the pope a triple one on his arms.

Cross-Bearers alfo denote certain officers in the inquifition, who make a vow before the inquifitors or their vicars to defend the Catholic faith, though with the lofs of fortune and life. Their bufinefs is to provide the inquifitors with neceffaries. They were formerly of great ufe; but in procefs of time fome of their conftitutions were changed, and they were called of the penance of St Dominic.

Pectoral Cross, is a crofs of gold or filver, or other precious materials, often enriched with diamonds, which the bifhops, archbifhops, &c. and regular abbeffes, wear hanging from the neck.

Order of the Cross, or *Croifade*, an order of ladies inftituted in 1668 by the empref Eleonora de Gonzagua, wife of the emperor Leopold; on occafion of the miraculous recovery of a little golden crofs wherein were inclofed two pieces of the true crofs, out of the afhes of part of the palace. It feems the fire had burnt the cafe wherein it was inclofed, and melted the cryftal, yet the wood remained untouched.

Maids of the Cross, a community of young women inftituted in 1265 at Roye in Picardy, and fince difperfed to Paris and other towns. They inftruct young perfons of their own fex. Some take the three vows of poverty, chaftity, and obedience; others retain their liberty. They are under the direction of a fuperior.

Cross, in *Heraldry*, is defined by Guillim, an ordinary compofed of fourfold lines; whereof two are perpendicular, and the other two tranfverfe; for fo we muft conceive of them, though they be not drawn throughout, but meet by couples, in four right angles near the feffe point of the efcutcheon. See Heraldry.

This bearing was firft beftowed on fuch as had performed, or at leaft undertaken, fome fervice for Chrift, and the Chriftian profeffion; and is held by divers the moft honourable charge in all heraldry. What brought it into fuch frequent ufe, was the ancient expeditions into the Holy Land; and the holy war pilgrims, after their pilgrimage, taking the crofs for their cognizance; and the enfign of that war being the crofs. In thofe wars, fays Mackenzie, the Scots carried St Andrew's crofs; the French a crofs argent; the Englifh a crofs or; the Germans, fable; the Italians, azure; the Spaniards, gules.

St George's Cross, or the red crofs, in a field argent, is now the ftandard of England; that faint being the reputed patron of this nation.

Nor is it only in croffes that the variety is fo great; the like is found in many other bearings, and particularly in lions, and the parts of them; whereof Columbiere gives us no lefs than 96 varieties. Leigh mentions but 46 feveral croffes; Sylvanus Morgan, 26; Upton, 30; Johannes de Bado Aureo, 12; and fo others, whom it is needlefs to mention. Upton owns he dares not prefume to afcertain all the various croffes ufed in arms, for that they are at prefent almoft innumerable; and therefore he only takes notice of fuch as he had feen ufed in his own time.

Cross, in mining, two nicks cut on the fuperficies of the earth, thus +, which the miners make when they take the ground to dig for ore. This crofs gives the miners three days liberty to make and fet on ftones. As many of thefe croffes as the miner makes, fo many mears of ground he may have in the vein, provided he fet on ftones within three days after making his crofs or croffes. But if he make but one crofs, and a ftander by makes the fecond, and a ftranger makes the third, every one is ferved with the next mear, according as they have firft or laft, fooner or later, made their crofs or croffes upon the ground.

Cross, in coins, a name given to the right fide or face, the other being called the *pile* or *reverfe*. It has been a common error, that the reverfe was meant by the crofs; becaufe at this time, with us, it is marked with figures difpofed in that form: but the ftamping the head of the prince in thefe kingdoms on the right fide of the coin, was preceded by a general cuftom of ftriking on that part the figure of a crofs; while the other, called the *pile*, contained the arms, or fome other device.

Cross, inftead of a fignature to a deed, &c. is derived from the Saxon practice of affixing the fign of the crofs, whether they could write or not.

Cross, in furveying, is an inftrument which confifts of a brafs circle, divided into four equal parts by two lines croffing each other in the centre. At each extremity of the lines is fixed a perpendicular fight, with

Crofs. small holes below each flit, for the better difcovering of diftant objects. The crofs is mounted on a ftaff or ftand, to fix it in the ground, and it is found to be a very ufeful inftrument for meafuring fmall pieces of land, and taking offsets, &c,

Cross-Bar Shot, a bullet with an iron bar paffing through it, and ftanding fix or eight inches out at both fides. It is ufed at fea for deftroying the enemy's rigging.

Cross-Bill. See Loxia, Ornithology *Index*.

Cross-Bill, in chancery, is an original bill, by which the defendant prays relief againft the plaintiff.

Cross-Bows. See Bows and Archery.

Cross-grained Stuff, in joinery. Wood is faid to be crofs-grained, when a bough or branch has fhot out of it; for the grain of the branch fhooting forward, runs athwart that of the trunk.

In wood well grown this defect is fcarce perceivable, except in working; but in deal-boards thefe boughs make knots. If the bough grew up with the young trunk, inftead of a knot is found a curling in the ftuff, very fenfible under the plane.

Cross-Jack, pronounced *cro-jeck*, a fail extended on the lower yard of the mizen-maft, which is hence called the *crofs-jack yard*. This fail, however, has generally been found of little fervice, and is therefore very feldom ufed.

Cross-Piece, a rail of timber extended over the windlafs of a merchant fhip from the knight-heads to the belfry. It is ftuck full of wooden pins, which are ufed to faften the running rigging as occafion requires. See Windlass.

Cross-Staff, or *Fore-ftaff*, is a mathematical inftrument of hard wood, confifting of a fquare ftaff of about three feet long, having each of its faces divided like a line of tangents, and having four crofs pieces of unequal lengths to fit on the ftaff, the halves of thefe being as the radii to the tangent lines on the faces of the ftaff.—The inftrument was formerly ufed in taking the altitudes of the celeftial bodies at fea.

Cross-Tining, in *Hufbandry*, a method of harrowing land, confifting in drawing the harrow up the interval it went down before, and down that which it was drawn up.

Cross-Trees, certain pieces of timber, fupported by the cheeks and treftle-trees, at the upper ends of the lower mafts, athwart which they are laid to fuftain the frame of the top.

Cross-Tree Yard, is a yard ftanding fquare, just under the mizen-top, and to it the mizen-top is faftened below. See *Cross-Jack*.

Cross-Wort. See Valantia, Botany *Index*.

Ordeal of the Cross, a fpecies of trial frequently practifed in the days of fuperftition. See Ordeal.

Cross, an Englifh artift, famous only for copying, in the reigns of Charles I. and Charles II. Of this talent there is a ftory current, more to the credit of his fkill than of his probity. He is faid to have been employed by Charles I. to copy the celebrated Madona of Raphael in St Mark's church at Venice; and that, having obtained leave of the ftate for that purpofe, he executed his piece fo well as to bring away the original and leave his copy in the place of it. The deception was not detected until it was too late to recover the lofs; and this piece was bought in Oliver Cromwell's time by the Spanifh ambaffador for his mafter, who placed it in the Efcurial.

CROSSEN, a handfome town of Silefia in Germany, and capital of a principality of the fame name. It is fituated at the confluence of the rivers Bobar and Oder, in a fertile country abounding in wine and fruits. There is a bridge over the Oder which is fortified. E. Long. 15. 20. N. Lat. 52. 5.

CROSSOSTYLUS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants belonging to the monadelphia clafs.

CROTALARIA, Rattle-wort; a genus of plants belonging to the diadelphia clafs; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*.

CROTALO, an inftrument of military mufic, like that defcribed in the next article. The Turks were the firft, among the moderns, who introduced the ufe of it for their troops. It is now common in Flanders and Florence, and other territories on the continent. It has only one tone; but its effect in marking time may be diftinctly heard through the noife of forty drums. This is the fame inftrument with the ancient cymbalum.

CROTALUM, an ancient kind of caftagnetta, or mufical inftrument, found on medals in the hands of the priefts of Cybele. The crotalum differed from the fiftrum; though authors frequently confound the two. It confifted of two little brafs plates or rods, which were fhaken in the hand, and in ftriking againft each other made a noife.

It was fometimes alfo made of a reed fplit lengthwife; one part whereof they ftruck againft the other; and as this made a noife fomewhat like that of a crane's bill, they called that bird *crotaliftria*, a player on the crotala: and Ariftophanes calls a great talker a *crotalum*.

Clemens Alexandrinus attributes the invention to the Sicilians; and forbids the ufe thereof to the Chriftians, becaufe of the indecent motions and geftures that accompany it.

CROTALUS, or Rattle-snake, in *Zoology*, a genus belonging to the order of amphibia ferpentes. See Ophiology *Index*. The following is the account given by Mr Catefby of the *crotalus horridus*, or American rattle-fnake. This grows fometimes to the length of eight feet, and weighs between eight and nine pounds. The colour of the head is brown; the eye red; the upper part of the body of a yellowifh-brown colour, tranfverfely marked with irregular broad black lifts. The rattle is of a brown colour, compofed of feveral horny, membranous cells, of an undulated pyramidal figure. Thefe are articulated within one another in fuch a manner that the point of the firft cell reaches as far as the bafis of the protuberant ring of the third, and fo on; which articulation, being very loofe, gives liberty to the parts of the cells that are inclofed within the outward rings to ftrike againft the fides of them, and fo to caufe the rattling noife which is heard when the fnake fhakes its tail. This is the moft inactive and flow-moving of all the fnakes, and is never the aggreffor except in what it preys upon. The above gentleman is of opinion that no remedy is yet difcovered for the bite of this animal. He had frequently access to see Indians bitten by it, and always thought that thofe who recovered were cured more through

through the force of nature, or by reason of the slightness of the bite, than by the remedies used. He tells us, that the Indians know their destiny the moment they are bitten; and if the bite happens to be on any of the large veins, they apply no remedies, as knowing them to be entirely useless. He believes the reports of the fascinating power of this serpent, though he never had an opportunity of seeing it. See the article POISON and SERPENT.

CROTALYSTRIÆ, in antiquity, a kind of morice dancers, admitted to entertainments, in order to divert the company with their dancing and playing on an instrument called *crotalum*, whence they had their name.

CROTCHET, in *Music*, one of the notes or characters of time, equal to half a minum, and double of a quaver.

CROTCHETS are also marks or characters, serving to inclose a word or sentence which is distinguished from the rest, being generally in this form [ ].

CROTO, or CROTON, in *Ancient Geography*, a noble city of the Bruttii, built by the Acheans, 150 stadia to the north of Lacinium, and in the neighbourhood of Metapontum. It was twelve miles in compass before the arrival of Pyrrhus in Italy; but after the desolation produced by that war, scarce half of it was inhabited. The citadel on one side hung over the sea, on the other towards the land. It was naturally strong from its situation, but afterwards walled round; on which side it was taken by Dionysius by stratagem, by means of the rocks behind it.

Pythagoras, after his long peregrinations in search of knowledge, fixed his residence in this place, which some authors think his native one, at least that of his parents, supposing him to have been born in the isle of Samos, and not at some town of that name in Italy. This incomparable sage spent the latter part of his life in training op disciples to the rigid exercise of sublime and moral virtue, and instructing the Crotonites in the true arts of government, such as alone can inspire happiness, glory, and independence.

Under the influence of this philosophy, the Crotonites inured their bodies to frugality and hardships, and their minds to self-denial and patriotic disinterestedness. Their virtues were the admiration of Greece, where it was a current proverb, that the last of the Crotonites was the first of the Greeks. In one Olympiad, seven of the victors in the games were citizens of Croton; and the name of Milo is almost as famous as that of Hercules. The vigour of the men and beauty of the women were ascribed to the climate, which was believed to be endowed with qualities peculiarly favourable to the human system. Their physicians were in high repute; and among those, Alcmeon and Democides rendered themselves most conspicuous. Alcmeon was the first who dared to amputate a limb, in order to save the life of a patient; and also the first writer who thought of inculcating moral precepts under the amusing cloak of apologues. This invention is more commonly attributed to Æsop, as he was remarkably ingenious in this species of composition. Democides was famous for his attachment to his native soil. Though caressed and enriched by the king of Persia, whose queen he had snatched from the jaws of death, he abandoned wealth and honours, and by stratagem escaped to the humble comforts of a private life at Croton.—The Pythagoreans are said to have discovered that disposition of the solar system, which, with some modifications, has been revived by Copernicus, and is now universally received, as being most agreeable to nature and experiment. Theano, the wife of Pythagoras, and many other women, emulated the virtues of their husbands.

In those fortunate days the state of Croton was most flourishing. Its walls inclosed a circumference of 12 miles. Of all the colonies sent out from Greece, this alone furnished succour to the mother-country when invaded by the Persians. By its avenging arms the Sybarites were punished for their shameful degeneracy; but victory proved fatal to the conquerors, for riches, and all their pernicious attendants, insinuated themselves into Croton, and soon contaminated the purity of its principles. Indeed, the very constitution of human nature militates against any long continuance in such rigid practices of virtue; and therefore it is no wonder if the Crotonites fell by degrees into the irregularities they once abhorred. Not long after the Locrians, who were less corrupted, defeated them on the banks of the Sagra, and reduced the republic to distress and penury. This restored the remaining Crotonites to their pristine vigour of mind, and enabled them to make a brave, though unsuccessful resistance, when attacked by Dionysius of Syracuse. They suffered much in the war with Pyrrhus, and, by repeated misfortunes, decreased in strength and numbers, from age to age, down to that of Hannibal, when they could not muster 20,000 inhabitants. This small population being incapable of manning the extensive works erected in the days of prosperity, Croton was taken by the Carthaginians, and its citizens transported to Locri. The Romans sent a colony hither 200 years before Christ. In the Gothic war, this city rendered itself conspicuous by its fidelity to Justinian, and Totila besieged it long in vain.

CROTON, WILD RICINUS; a genus of plants, belonging to the monœcia class; and in the natural method ranking under the 38th order, *Tricoccæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CROTONA, a town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, seated on the gulf of Taranto, with a bishop's see and citadel. E. Long. 17. 27. N. Lat. 39. 10.

CROTOPHAGA, a genus of birds belonging to the order of picæ. See ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CROTOY, a town of France in Picardy, and in Ponthieu. The fortifications are demolished. It is seated at the mouth of the river Somme. E. Long. 1. 45. N. Lat. 50. 15.

CROUCHED FRIARS. See CROISIERS.

CROUP, in *Medicine*. See MEDICINE *Index*.

CROUP of a Horse, in the manege, the extremity of the reins above the hips.

CROUPADE, in the manege, a leap, in which the horse pulls up his hind legs, as if he drew them up to his belly.

CROUTE, SOUR CROUTE, or KROUTE. As this preparation of cabbage has been found of sovereign efficacy as a preservative in long voyages from the sea-scurvy, it may not be unacceptable to give a concise account

account of the process for making it, according to the information communicated by an ingenious German gentleman.

The soundest and most solid cabbages are selected for this use, and cut very small, commonly with an instrument made for this purpose, not unlike the plane which is used in this country for slicing cucumbers. A knife is used when the preparation is made with great nicety. The cabbage thus minced is put into a barrel in layers, hand high, and over each is strewed a handful of salt and carraway seeds; in this manner it is rammed down with a rammer, *stratum super stratum*, till the barrel be full; when a cover is put over it and pressed down with a heavy weight. After standing some time in this state it begins to ferment; and it is not till the fermentation has entirely subsided that the head is fitted to it, and the barrel is finally shut up and preserved for use. There is not a drop of vinegar employed in this preparation. The Germans write this preparation in the following manner: *Sauer kraut*, or *sauer kohl;* that is, in their language, "sour herb, or sour cabbage."

CROUSAZ, JOHN PETER DE, a learned philosopher and mathematician, was born in 1663. Having made great progress in the mathematics and the philosophy of Des Cartes, he travelled to Geneva, Holland, and France; was successively professor in several universities; and at length was chosen governor to Prince Frederick of Hesse Cassel, nephew to the king of Sweden. He wrote many works; the most esteemed of which are, 1. His Logic, the best edition of which is that of 1741, in 6 vols 8vo. 2. A Treatise on Beauty. 3. A Treatise on the Education of Children, 2 vols 12mo. 4. Several Treatises on Philosophical and Mathematical Subjects, &c. He died at Lausanne in 1748.

CROW. See CORVUS, ORNITHOLOGY *Index*.

CROW, in *Mechanics*, a kind of iron lever, with a claw at one end and a sharp point at the other; used for heaving or purchasing great weights.

CROW's Bill, among surgeons, a kind of forceps for drawing bullets and other foreign bodies out of wounds.

CROW's Feet, in the military art, machines of iron, having four points, each about three or four inches long, so made that, whatever way they fall, there is still a point up; they are thrown upon breaches, or in passes where the enemy's cavalry are to march, proving very troublesome, by running into the horses feet, and laming them.

CROW's Foot, on shipboard, a complication of small cords spreading out from a long block, like the smaller parts which extend from the backbone of a herring. It is used to suspend the *ownings;* or to keep the topsails from striking violently, and fretting against the tops.

CROW-Net, is an invention for catching wild-fowl in the winter season, and may be used in the day time. The net is made of double thread, or fine packthread; the meshes should be two inches wide, the length about ten yards, and the depth three; it must be verged on the side with good strong cord, and stretched out very stiff on long poles prepared for that purpose. When you are come to the place where you would spread your net, open it, and lay it out at its full length, and breadth; then fasten the lower end of the net all along the ground, so as only to move it up and down; the upper end of the net must stand extended on the long cord; the further end thereof being staked first to the earth by a strong cord about five yards distant from the net. Place this cord in an even line with the lower edge of the net. The other end must be at least 25 yards distant to reach into some natural or artificial shelter, by the means of which you may lie concealed from the fowl, otherwise no good success can be expected. The net must be placed in such exact order that it might give way to play on the fowl on the least pull of the cord, which must be done smartly, lest the fowl should prove too quick for you. This net may be used for pigeons, crows, or other birds, on corn-fields newly sown; as also in stubble-fields, provided the stubble conceals the net from the birds.

CROWD, in a general sense, signifies a number of people assembled in a place scarce big enough to hold them all.

To CROWD, in the sea-language, is to carry an extraordinary force of sail upon a ship, in order to accelerate her course on some important occasion; as in pursuit of, or flight from an enemy; to escape any immediate danger, &c.

CROWLAND, a town in Lincolnshire, seated in the fens, in a dirty soil, and had formerly an abbey of very great note. There is no coming at it but by narrow causeways, which will not admit a cart. It has three streets, separated from each other by water-courses, whose banks are supported by piles, and set with willow trees. Their chief trade is in fish and fowl, which are in great plenty in the adjacent pools and marshes. W. Long. 0. 10. N. Lat. 52. 40.

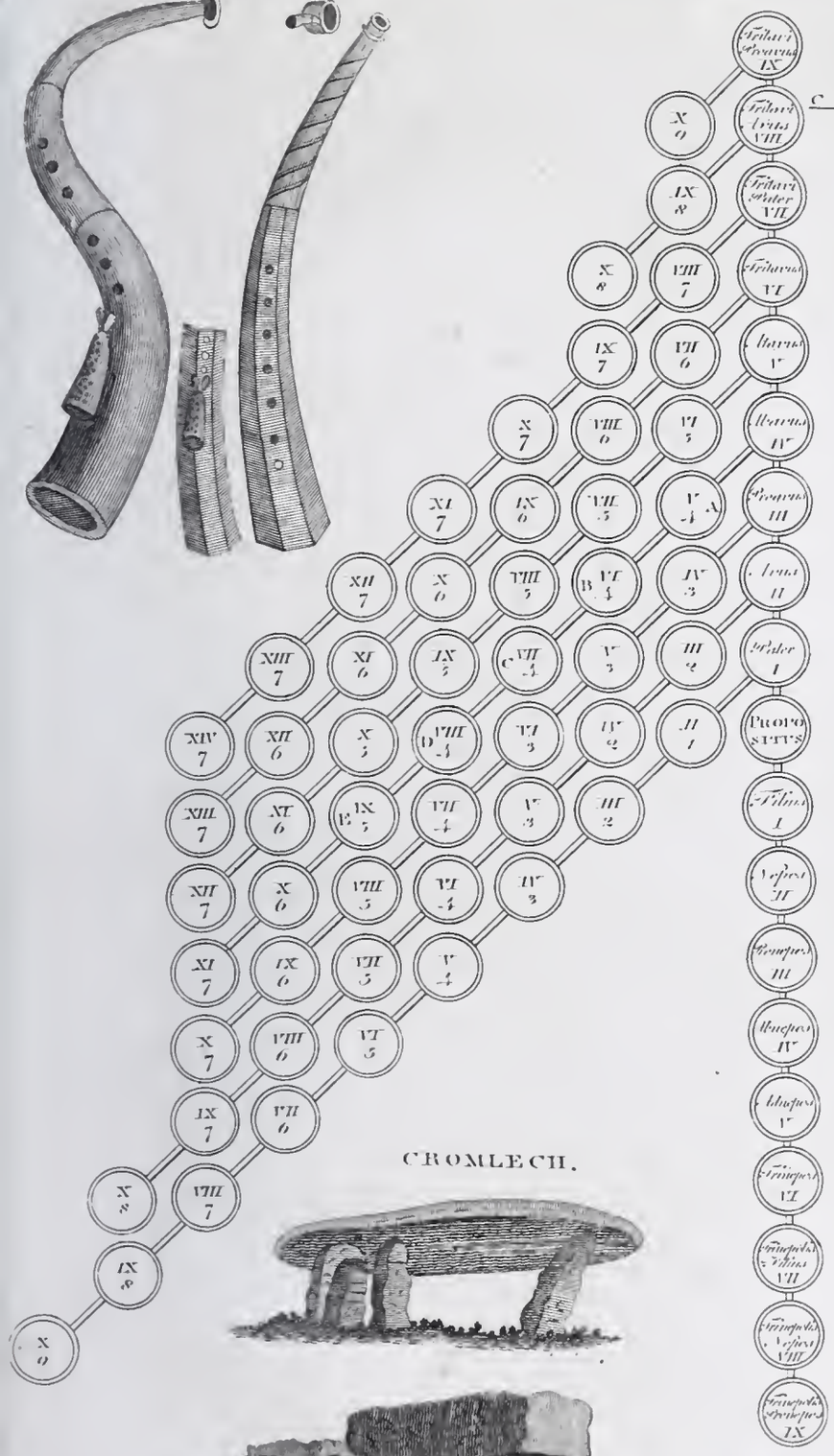
CROWN, an ornament worn on the head by kings, sovereign princes, and noblemen, as a mark of their dignity.

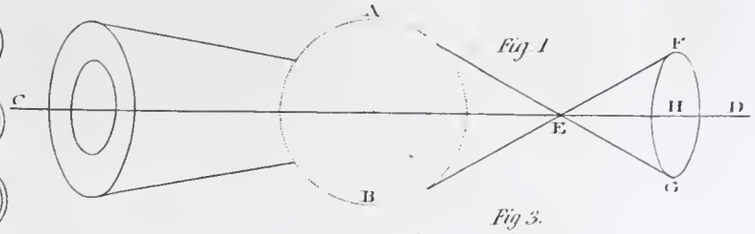
In scripture there is frequent mention of crowns, and the use of them seems to have been very common among the Hebrews. The high priest wore a crown, which was a fillet of gold placed upon the forehead, and tied with a ribbon of hyacinth colour or azure blue. It seems also as if private priests, and even common Israelites, wore also a sort of crown, since God commands Ezekiel not to take off his crown, nor assume the marks of one in mourning. This crown was no more than a ribbon or fillet, with which the Jews and several people in the east girt their heads. And indeed the first crowns were no more than a bandelet drawn round the head, and tied behind, as we still see it represented in medals round the heads of Jupiter, the Ptolemies, and kings of Syria. Afterwards they consisted of two bandelets; by degrees they took branches of trees of divers kinds; at length they added flowers, insomuch that Claudius Saturninus says, there was not any plant whereof crowns had not been made. The woods and groves were searched to find different crowns for the several deities; and they were used not only on the statues and images of the gods, by the priests in sacrificing, and by kings and emperors, but also on altars, temples, doors of houses, sacred victims, ships, &c.

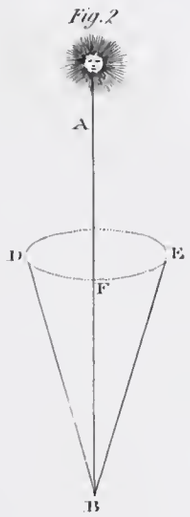
The Roman emperors had four kinds of crowns, still seen on medals, viz. a crown of laurels, a radial or radiating crown, a crown adorned with pearls and precious

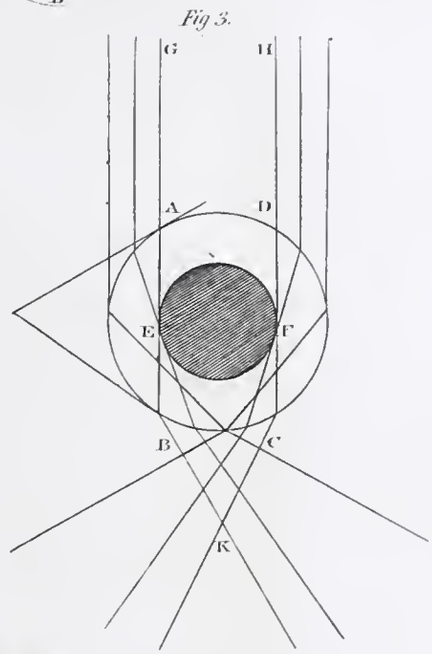
CONSANGUINITY. CORONA or HALO. PLATE CLXIV.

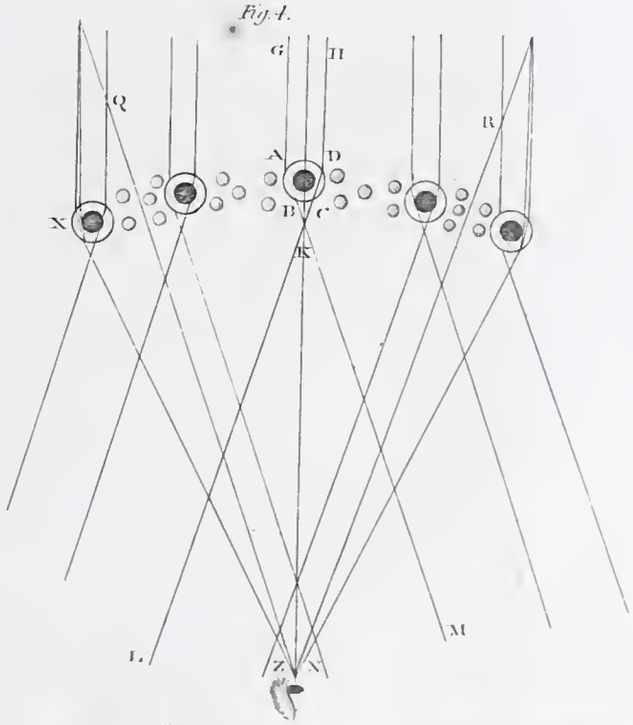
CORNET.



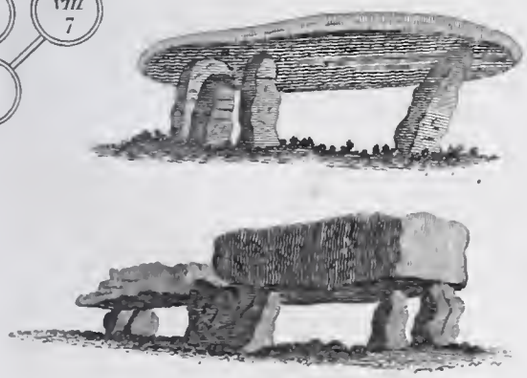




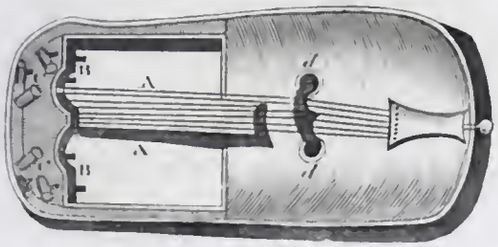




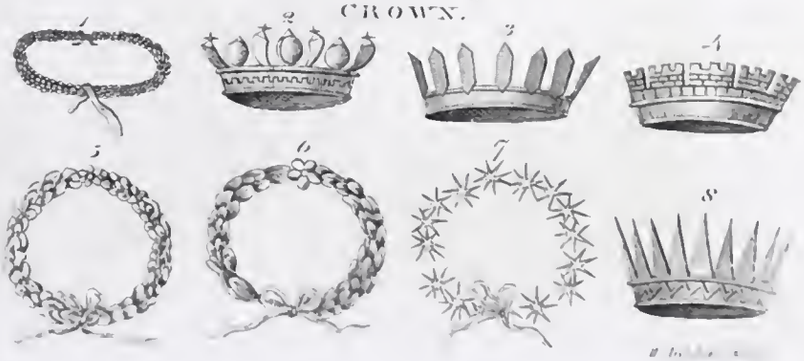
CROMLECH.



CROWTH.



CROWN.



ous ſtones, and the fourth a kind of bonnet or cap, ſomething like the mortier.

The Romans had alſo various kinds of crowns, which they diſtributed as rewards of military atchievements; as, 1. The oval crown, made of myrtle, and beſtowed upon generals who were entitled to the honours of the leſſer triumph, called *ovation*. 2. The naval or roſtral crown, compoſed of a circle of gold, with ornaments repreſenting beaks of ſhips, and given to the captain who firſt grappled, or the ſoldier who firſt boarded an enemy's ſhip. 3. The crown called in Latin *vallaris*, or *caſtrenſis*, a circle of gold raiſed with jewels or paliſades; the reward of him who firſt forced the enemy's entrenchments. 4. The mural crown, a circle of gold indented and embattled; given to him who firſt mounted the wall of a beſieged place, and there lodged a ſtandard. 5. The civic crown, made of the branch of a green oak, and given him who had ſaved the life of a citizen. 6. The triumphal crown, conſiſting at firſt of wreaths of laurel, but afterwards made of gold; proper to ſuch generals as had the honour of a triumph. 7. The crown called *obſidionalis*, or *graminea*, made of graſs growing on the place; the reward of a general who had delivered a Roman army from a ſiege. 8. The radial crown, given to princes at their tranſlation among the gods. We meet alſo with the corona aurea, often beſtowed on ſoldiers without any other additional term; athletic crowns, and crowns of laurel, deſtined to crown victors at the public games, poets, orators, &c. All theſe crowns were marks of nobility to the wearers; and upon competitions with rivals for rank and dignities, often determined the preference in their favour. See Plate CLXIV. For an account of modern crowns ſee HERALDRY.

CROWN is alſo uſed to ſignify the poſſeſſions and dignity of a king. The crown of England, according to Sir William Blackſtone, is by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed or limited by act of parliament, under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary. See SUCCESSION.

Pleas of the CROWN. See PLEAS.

CROWN, in *Commerce*, is a general name for coins, both foreign and domeſtic, of or near the value of five ſhillings ſterling. In its limited ſenſe, crown is only applicable to that popular Engliſh coin which bears the name, and which is equivalent to ſixty Engliſh pence or five ſhillings, or to ſix livres French money. But, in its extenſive ſenſe, it takes in ſeveral others; as the French ecu, which we call the French crown, ſtruck in 1641 for ſixty ſols, or three livres; alſo the petagon, dollar, ducatoon, rixdollar, and piaſtre or piece of eight.

CROWN, in an eccleſiaſtical ſenſe, is uſed for the clerical tonſure; which is the mark or character of the Romiſh eccleſiaſtics. This is a little circle of hair ſhaved off from the crown of the head: more or leſs broad, according to the quality of the orders received: That of a mere clerk is the ſmalleſt; that of prieſts and monks the largeſt. The clerical crown was anciently a round liſt of hair, ſhaved off around the head, repreſenting a real crown: this is eaſily obſervable in ſeveral ancient ſtatues, &c. The religious of St Dominic and St Francis ſtill retain it.

CROWN, among jewellers, the upper work of the roſe diamond, which all centres in the point at the top, and is bounded by the horizontal ribs.

CROWN-Office, an office belonging to the king's bench court, of which the king's coroner or attorney is commonly maſter. In this office, the attorney general and clerk of the crown ſeverally exhibit informations for crimes and miſdemeanours at common law, as in the caſe of batteries, conſpiracies, libelling, &c. on which the offender is liable to pay a fine to the king.

CROWN-Glaſs, denotes the fineſt ſort of window-glaſs. See GLASS.

CROWN Scabs. See FARRIERY *Index*.

CROWN Wheel of a Watch, the upper wheel next the balance, which by its motion drives the balance, and in royal pendulums is called the *ſwing-wheel*.

CROWN-Imperial. See FRITILLARIA, BOTANY *Index*.

CROWN-Work, in *Fortification*, is an out-work running into the field; deſigned to keep off the enemy, gain ſome hill or advantageous poſt, and cover the other works of the place. The crown-work conſiſts of two demi-baſtions at the extremes, and an entire baſtion in the middle, with curtains.

CROWN, in *Aſtronomy*, a name given to two conſtellations, the ſouthern and the northern.

CROWN, in *Geometry*, a plane ring included between two parallel or concentric peripheries of unequal circles.

CROWN-Poſt, is a poſt in ſome building ſtanding upright in the middle between two principal rafters; and from which proceed ſtruts or braces to the middle of each rafter. It is otherwiſe called a *king poſt*, or *king's piece*, or *joggle-piece*.

CROWNE, JOHN, a celebrated dramatic writer, born in Nova Scotia, where his father was a miniſter. Being impatient of the gloomy reſtraint of that country, he came to England, where he was reduced to enter into the ſervice of an old lady; of which he was ſoon as weary as he had been of America. He then had recourſe to his pen, which quickly procured him favour at court: but this kind of ſubſiſtence proving precarious, he ventured to ſolicit Charles II. for ſome eſtabliſhment. Charles promiſed to provide for him, but inſiſted firſt on having another comedy; and ſuggeſted to him the plan of a Spaniſh play, from which Crowne produced the comedy of *Sir Courtly Nice*: but the ſudden death of the king on the laſt day of the rehearſal, plunged him at once from his pleaſing expectations into diſappointment and diſtreſs, and left him no reſource but his wits. He died ſome time about the year 1703; and left behind him 17 tragedies and comedies, ſome of which are acted with great ſucceſs. His chief excellence lay in comedy; yet his tragedies are far from being contemptible. His plots are for the moſt part his own invention; his characters are in general ſtrongly coloured and highly finiſhed; and his dialogue lively and ſpirited, attentively diverſified, and well adapted to the ſeveral ſpeakers. So that on the whole he may aſſuredly be allowed to ſtand at leaſt in the third rank of our dramatic writers.

CROWNING, in *Architecture*, is underſtood, in the general, of any thing that terminates or finiſhes a member or decoration. Thus, a corniche, a pediment, &c. are called *crownings*. Thus alſo the abacus is ſaid to crown the capital; and thus any member or moulding is ſaid to be crowned when it has a fillet over it; and a niche is crowned when it is covered with a capital.

CROWNING, in ſea-language, denotes the finiſhing part of a knot made at the end of a rope. It is performed by interweaving the ends of the different ſtrands artfully amongſt each other, ſo as that they may not become looſened or untwiſted. They are uſeful in all kinds of ſtoppers.

CROWTH, or CRUTH. See CRUTH.

CROXAL, SAMUEL, an ingenious Engliſh divine, who in his youth wrote the celebrated poem entitled *The Fair Circaſſian*. He had the livings of Hampton in Middleſex, and the united pariſhes of St Mary Somerſet, and St Mary Mounthaw, in London; both which he held till his death in 1751. He publiſhed many other poems and tranſlations, with an entire Engliſh edition of Æſop's Fables. In conſequence of his attachment to Whig principles, he enjoyed ſome other preferments, and was chaplain in ordinary to George II.

CROYDON, a town of Surry in England. Its ſituation is low, near the ſpring-head of the river Wandel, and it is in a manner ſurrounded with hills. It is pretty large, and is chiefly noted for being the ſeat of the archbiſhop of Canterbury. It has a large handſome church, an hoſpital, and a free ſchool. W. Long. 0. 5. N. Lat. 51. 22.

CRUCIAL INCISION, in *Surgery*, an inciſion made in the form of a croſs.

CRUCIANELLA, PETTY MADDER; a genus of plants, belonging to the tetrandria claſs, and in the natural method ranking under the 47th order, *Stellatæ*. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRUCIBLE, a chemical veſſel made of earth, and ſo tempered and baked as to endure the greateſt heat. It is uſed to melt metals, and to flux minerals, ores, &c.

CRUCIFIX, a croſs upon which the body of Chriſt is faſtened in effigy, uſed by the Roman Catholics to excite in their minds a ſtrong idea of our Saviour's paſſion.

They eſteem it an eſſential circumſtance of their religious worſhip performed at the altar; and on Good Friday they perform the ceremony of adoring it, which is done in theſe words, *O crux ave, ſpes unica;* "Hail, thou croſs, our only hope." The officiating prieſt uncovers the crucifix, elevates it with both his hands, and ſays, *Ecce lignum crucis;* "Behold the wood of the croſs." The people anſwer, *in quo ſalus mundi pependit;* "on which the Saviour of the world ſuffered death." Then the whole congregation bow with great reverence, and devoutly kiſs the holy wood.

CRUCIFIXION, a capital puniſhment by nailing the criminal to a croſs. See CROSS.

CRUCIFORM, in general, ſomething diſpoſed croſs-ways; but more eſpecially uſed by botaniſts, for flowers conſiſting of four petals diſpoſed in the form of a croſs.

CRUCITA, in *Botany*, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the tetrandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking with thoſe the order of which is doubtful. The interior calyx is tetraphyllous, the exterior calyx triphyllous; there is no corolla, and only one ſeed.

CRUDE, an epithet given to ſomething that has not paſſed the fire or had a proper degree of coction.

CRUDITY, among phyſicians, is applied to undigeſted ſubſtances in the ſtomach; to humours in the body which are unconcocted, and not prepared for expulſion; and to the excrements.

CRUISE, from the German *kruiſs*, "acroſs," ſignifies to croſs to and fro, to ſail up and down within a certain ſpace of the ſea, called the *cruiſing* latitude, in queſt of veſſels or fleets of an enemy, &c.

CRUISERS, in the navy, are ſmall men of war made uſe of to and fro in the Channel, and elſewhere, to ſecure our merchant ſhips and veſſels from the enemy's ſmall frigates and privateers. They are generally ſuch as ſail well, and are commonly well manned: and indeed the ſafety of the trade in the Channel, and up and down the ſoundings, and other places, abſolutely requires the conſtant keeping out ſuch ſhips at ſea.

CRUMENTATA, among zoologiſts, animals furniſhed with a pouch or bag, wherein to receive their young in time of danger; as the oppoſſum. See DIDELPHUS.

CRUOR, ſometimes ſignifies the blood in general; ſometimes only the venous blood; and ſometimes extravaſated or coagulated blood: but is moſt frequently uſed for the red globules of the blood; in contradiſtinction to the limpid or ſerous part.

CRUPPER, in the manege, the buttocks of a horſe; the rump: alſo a thong of leather put under a horſe's tail, and drawn up by thongs to the buckle behind the ſaddle, ſo as to keep him from caſting the ſaddle forwards on his neck.

CRURÆUS, CRUREUS, *Muſculus*, in *Anatomy*, a fleſhy maſs, covering almoſt all the foreſide of the os femoris, between the two vaſti, which likewiſe cover the edges of this muſcle on each ſide. See ANATOMY, *Table of the Muſcles*.

CRURAL, in *Anatomy*, an epithet given to the artery which conveys the blood to the crura or legs, and to the vein by which this blood returns towards the heart. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CRUS, in *Anatomy*, all that part of the body contained between the buttocks and the toes.

CRUSADE. See CROISADE.

CRUSADO, in commerce, a Portugueſe coin, ſtruck under Alphonſus V. about the year 1457, at the time when Pope Calixtus ſent thither the bull for a croiſade againſt the infidels. This coin has a croſs on one ſide and the arms of Portugal on the other.

CRUSCA, an Italian term ſignifying *bran*, is in uſe amongſt us to denote that celebrated academy called *Della Cruſca*, eſtabliſhed at Florence for purifying and perfecting the Tuſcan language. See ACADEMY, N° 11. The academy took its name from its office, and the end propoſed by it; which is, to refine the language, and as it were to ſeparate the bran from it. Accordingly, its device is a ſieve; and its motto, *Il piu biel fior ne coglie;* that is, "It gathers the fineſt flour thereof." In the hall or apartment where the academy

academy meets, M. Moneonis informs us, that every thing bears an allusion to the name and device; the seats are in form of a baker's basket; their backs like a shovel for moving of corn; the cushions of gray satin, in form of sacks or wallets; and the branches where the lights are placed resembling sacks. The vocabulary *Della Crusca* is an excellent Italian dictionary, composed by this academy.

CRUSTA LACTEA, in *Medicine*, the same with ACHOR.

CRUSTACEOUS FISH, in *Natural History*, are those covered with shells, consisting of several pieces or scales; as those of crabs, lobsters, &c.

These are usually softer than the shells of the testaceous kind, which consist of a single piece, and generally much thicker and stronger than the former; such as those of the oyster, scallop, cockle, &c.

Dr Woodward observes, in his Natural History, that of all the shells found in beds of all the different matters dug out of the earth, there are scarce any of the crustaceous kind: the reason he gives for it is, that these being much lighter than the rest, must have floated on the surface at the time of the deluge, when all the strata were formed; and there have corrupted and perished.

CRUTH, or CROWTH, a kind of musical instrument formerly in use among the common people in Wales. It is of the fidicinal kind, somewhat resembling a violin, 12 inches in length, and an inch and a half in thickness. It has six strings supported by a bridge, and is played on with a bow: the bridge differs from that of a violin, in that it is flat and not convex on the top; a circumstance from which it is to be inferred, that the strings are to be struck at the same time, so as to afford a succession of concords. The bridge is not placed at right angles with the sides of the instrument, but in an oblique direction; and, which is farther to be remarked, one of the feet of the bridge goes through one of the sound-holes, which are circular, and rests on the inside of the back; the other foot, which is proportionably shorter, resting on the belly before the other sound-hole. Of the strings the four first are conducted from the bridge down the finger board, as in a common violin; but the fifth and sixth, which are about an inch longer than the others, leave the small end of the neck about an inch to the right. The whole six are wound up either by wooden pegs in the form of the letter T, or by iron pins, which are turned with a wrest like those of a harp or spinet. Of the tuning, it is to be remarked, that the fifth and sixth strings are the unison and octave of G; the fourth and fifth, the same of C; and the second and first, the same of D; so that the second pair of strings are a fourth, and the third a fifth, to the first. See Plate CLXIV.

Concerning the antiquity of this instrument, there is but little written evidence to carry it further back than the time of Leland; nevertheless the opinion of its high antiquity is so strong among the inhabitants of the country where it was used, as to afford a probable ground of conjecture, that the cruth might be the prototype of the whole fidicinal species of musical instruments. Another evidence of its antiquity, but which tends also to prove that it was not peculiar to Wales, arises from a discovery lately made and communicated to the society of antiquarians, respecting the abbey-church of Melrose in Scotland, supposed to have been built about the time of Edward II. It seems that among the outside ornaments of that church there is the representation of a cruth, very little different from the description above given. The instrument is now disused, insomuch that Sir John Hawkins, from whom we extract, tells us, that there is but one person in the whole principality of North Wales that can play upon it; and as he was at that time near 60 years of age, the succession of performers is probably near an end.

CRUX, or St CROIX, one of the Caribbee islands, situated about 60 miles south-east of Porto Rico, and subject to Denmark. From being a perfect desert, it has begun to flourish exceedingly, being made a free port, and receiving great encouragement from government. W. Long. 64. 0. N. Lat. 17. 30.

LA CRUZ, an excellent harbour on the north-west coast of America, which was discovered by the Spaniards in 1779. They were introduced into it by a passage which they called *Bucarelli's entrance*, and which they placed in 55. 18. N. Lat. and 139. 15. W. Long. from the meridian of Paris. The latitude of this passage as laid down by the Spaniards seems to be correct; but the editor of Perouse's voyage concludes, from the survey made by Captain Cook on the coasts adjacent to the entrance of Bucarelli, that this entrance is about 135° 20′ to the west of Paris, or near 133° west of Greenwich.

The Spaniards were not long in the harbour of La Cruz before they received a visit from the inhabitants in its neighbourhood. Bartering took place. The Indians gave their peltry, and various trifles, for glass beads, bits of old iron, &c. By this traffic the Spaniards were enabled to gain a sufficiently exactly knowledge of their genius, of their offensive and defensive arms, of their manufactures, &c. Their colour is a clear olive; many among them have, however, a perfectly white skin: their countenance is well proportioned in all its parts. They are robust, courageous, arrogant, and warlike. They clothe themselves in one or two undressed skins (with the fur apparently); these are the skins of otters, of sea-wolves, of benades (a species of deer), of bears, or other animals. These dresses cover them from the neck to the middle of the leg; some, however, among them wear boots of smooth skin, resembling English boots, only that those of the Indians open before, and are laced tight with a string. They wear hats woven from the fine bark of trees, which is formed into the shape of a funnel or a cone. At the wrists they have bracelets of copper or iron, or for want of these metals the fins of whales; and round the neck, necklaces of small fragments of bones of fishes and other animals, and even copper collars of the bigness of two fingers. They wear in their ears pendants of mother-of-pearl, or flat pieces of copper, on which is embossed a resin of a topaz colour, and which are accompanied with jet beads. Their hair is long and thick, and they make use of a comb to hold it together in a small queue from the middle to the extremity; a narrow ribbon of coarse linen, woven for this purpose, serves as a ligament. They wear also as a covering a kind of scarf, woven in a particular manner, something more than a yard and a half long, and about half a yard broad, round

which hangs a fringe ſomething more than half a quarter of a yard deep, of which the thread is regularly twiſted.

The women give proofs of their modeſty and decency by their dreſs. Their phyſiognomy is agreeable, their colour freſh, their cheeks vermilioned, and their hair long: they plait it together in one long treſs. They wear a long robe of a ſmooth ſkin tied round the loins, like that of a nun; it covers them from the neck as low as the feet; the ſleeves reach down to the wriſts. Upon this robe they put divers ſkins of otters or other animals to defend themſelves from the inclemency of the weather. All the married women have a large opening in the under lip, and this opening or orifice is filled up by a piece of wood cut in an oval ſhape, of which the ſmalleſt diameter is almoſt an inch: the more a woman is advanced in years the more this curious ornament is extended; it renders them frightful, the old women eſpecially, whoſe lip, deprived of its wonted ſpring, and dragged by the weight of this extraordinary jewel, neceſſarily hangs in a very diſagreeable manner. The girls wear only a copper needle, which croſſes the lip in the place where the ornament is intended hereafter to be placed.

Theſe Indians in war make uſe of cuiraſſes and ſhoulder-pieces of a manufacture like that of the whalebone ſtays among the Europeans. Narrow boards or ſcantlings form, in ſome ſort, the woof of the texture, and threads are the warp: in this manner the whole is very flexible, and leaves a free uſe to the arms for the handling of weapons. They wear round the neck a coarſe and large gorget which covers them as high as below the eyes, and their head is defended by a morion, or ſkull piece, uſually made of the head of ſome ferocious animal. From the waiſt downwards, they wear a kind of apron, of the ſame contexture as their cuiraſs. Laſtly, a fine ſkin hangs from their ſhoulders down to the knee. With this armour, they are invulnerable to the arrows of their enemies; but thus armed, they cannot change poſition with ſo much agility as if they were leſs burdened.

Their offenſive arms are arrows; bows, of which the ſtrings are woven like the large cords of our beſt muſical inſtruments; lances, four yards in length, tongued with iron; knives of the ſame metal, longer than European bayonets, a weapon however not very common among them; little axes of flint, or of a green ſtone, ſo hard that they cleave the moſt compact wood without injury to their edge.

The pronounciation of their language is extremely difficult; they ſpeak from the throat, with a movement of the tongue againſt the palate. The little uſe the women make of their inferior lip greatly injures the diſtinctiveneſs of their language. The Spaniards could neither pronounce nor write the words which they heard.

From the vivacity of ſpirit in theſe Indians, and from their attention amply to furniſh the market eſtabliſhed in the harbour, it may be concluded that they are pretty laborious. They continually brought ſtuffs well woven and ſhaded with various colours, the ſkins of land and ſea wolves, of otters, bears, and other ſmaller animals; of theſe ſome were raw, and others dreſſed. There were to be found at this market alſo coverlets of coarſe cloth, ſhaded with white and brown colours, very well woven, but in ſmall quantities: large ribbons of the ſame linen which might match with that of the Spaniſh officers mattreſſes; ſkeins of thread ſuch as this cloth was made of; wooden plates or bowls neatly worked; ſmall boats, or canoes, painted in various colours, the figures of which repreſented heads with all their parts; frogs in wood, nicely imitated, which opened like tobacco boxes, and which they employed to keep their trinkets in; boxes made of ſmall planks, of a cubical form, being three quarters of a yard on each ſide, with figures well drawn or carved on the outſide, repreſenting various animals; the covers fabricated like Flanders etwees, with rabbeted edges, formed ſo as to ſhut into the body of the box; animals in wood, as well thoſe of the earth as of the air; figures of men of the ſame material, with ſkull-caps repreſenting the heads of various fierce animals; ſnares and nets for fiſhing; copper collars for the neck, and bracelets of iron for the wriſt, but which they would not part with except at a very high price; beak-like inſtruments, from which they drew ſounds as from a German flute. The principal officers took ſuch of theſe merchandiſes as were moſt agreeable to them, and left the remainder to the ſhips crews.

As the Indians diſcovered that the Spaniards were very dainty in their fiſh, they did not let them want for choice: the greateſt abundance was in ſalmon, and a ſpecies of ſole or turbot three yards and a quarter long, broad and thick in proportion; cod and pilchards were alſo brought to market, and fiſhes reſembling trout. From all this it may be inferred, that this gulf is full of fiſh; the banks too are covered with ſhells.

The quantity of mother-of-pearl that theſe Indians cut to pieces for making ear-rings awakened the curioſity of the Spaniards: they tried to diſcover whether theſe people had not in their poſſeſſion, or whether their country did not produce pearls, or ſome precious ſtones: their reſearches were fruitleſs, they only found ſome ſtones which they judged to be metallic, and which they carried on board, not having the neceſſary means for extracting the metal they might contain.

The inhabitants of La Cruz feed upon fiſh, freſh or dry, boiled or roaſted; herbs and roots which their mountains yield them, and particularly that which in Spain is called ſea parſley; and, laſtly, upon the fleſh of animals which they take in hunting: the productions of the chaſe are undoubtedly abundant, ſeeing the number of dogs they keep for this purpoſe.

They appeared to the Spaniards to worſhip the ſun, the earlieſt and moſt natural of all idolatrous worſhip; and they paid a decent reſpect to the remains of their dead. Don Maurelle, one of the Spaniſh officers, in an expedition round the gulf, found in two iſlands three dead bodies laid in boxes of a ſimilar form to thoſe which have been deſcribed above, though conſiderably larger, and decked in their furs. Theſe biers were placed in a little hut upon a platform, or raiſed floor, made of the branches of trees.

The country is very hilly; the mountains are lofty, and their ſlope extends almoſt everywhere to the ſea. The ſoil is lime-ſtone; it is nevertheleſs covered with an impenetrable foreſt of tall fir trees, very large and very ſtraight. As theſe trees cannot ſtrike very deep into the earth, the violence of the wind often tears them up by the roots: they rot and become a light mould, upon which

which grows a bushy thicket: and in this are found nettles, chamomile, wild celery, anise, a species of cabbage, celandine, elder, wormwood, sorrel; and without doubt there are other plants along the rivers.

The Spaniards saw ducks, gulls, divers, kites, ravens, geese, storks, gold-finches, and other little birds unknown to them.

The commerce between the Spaniards and the Indians was quite undisturbed; and so desirous were the latter to obtain iron, cloths, and other stuffs, that they sold their children for broken iron hoops and other wares. The Spaniards in this manner bought three young lads, one from five to six years old, another of four, and the third from nine to ten, not to make slaves, but Christians of them; they hoped besides to derive useful information from them as to the nature of the country and its inhabitants. These youths were so contented in being with the Spaniards, that they hid themselves when their parents came on board, from the apprehension of being again restored to them. Two young girls were also purchased with the same view; one very ugly, seven years of age; the other younger, better made, but sickly, and almost at the gates of death.

At the full and change of the moon, the sea rises in the harbour of La Cruz seventeen feet three inches English; it is then high water at a quarter after 12 at noon; the lowest tides are fourteen feet three inches; the night tides exceed by one foot nine inches those of the day.

CRYMODES, among physicians, a kind of fever attended with a shivering cold.

CRYOLITE, a mineral substance. See MINERALOGY *Index*.

CRYPTA, a subterraneous cell or vault, especially under a church, for the interment of particular families or persons. S. Ciampini, describing the outside of the Vatican, speaks of the *cryptæ* of St Andrew, St Paul, &c. The word is formed of κρυπτω, *abscondo*, "I hide;" whence κρυπτη, *crypta*.

Vitruvius uses the word *crypta* for a part of a building, answering nearly to our cellar; Juvenal for a *cloaca*. Hence *crypto-porticus*, a subterraneous place arched or vaulted, used as an under-work or passage in old walls. The same is also used for the decoration at the entry of a grotto.

CRYPTA is also used by some of our ancient writers for a chapel or oratory under ground.

CRYPTÆ, in *Anatomy*, a name given by Ruysch to glands situated on the back of the tongue, and to glands of the intestines.

CRYPTOGAMIA, (from κρυπτος, *occultus*, "concealed," and γαμος, *nuptia*, "nuptials"), the 24th class in the Linnæan system, comprehending those plants whose fructification is concealed, either through minuteness, or within the fruit. See BOTANY *Index*.

CRYPTOGRAPHY, the art of writing in cipher, or with sympathetic ink. Among the methods which Ovid teaches young women to deceive their guardians, when they write to their lovers, he mentions that of writing with new milk, and of making the writing legible by means of coal dust or soot; from which it appears, that the use of sympathetic ink was known to the ancients.

Tuta quoque est, fallitque oculos, è lacte recenti
Litera: carbonis pulvere tange; leges.
De Arte Amandi, lib. iii.

Ausonius proposes the same means to Paulinus in the two following verses:

Lacte incide notas; arescens charta tenebit
Semper inaspicuus; prodentur scripta favillis.
Epist. xxiii.

But it would appear, that the commentators on this poet have mistaken the meaning of the word *favilla*, which is used here to signify *fuligo*, or soot; and in the same sense it is often employed by other poets. Columella, speaking of the method of preserving plants from insects with soot, calls it *nigra favilla*. In another place he mentions the same practice, and says *fuliginem quæ supra focos tectis inhæret*. Other glutinous juices besides milk may be employed for the same purpose, as they will equally hold fast the black powder strewed over them. Pliny, therefore, recommends the milky juice of certain plants, and particularly mentions that of lettuce, to produce this effect.

It is now well known that several metallic solutions may be employed for a similar purpose, and being exposed to the action of certain vapours, the characters which are written with them become visible. This effect was perhaps accidentally discovered; but it does not appear to be of great antiquity. In a book *De Secretis*, compiled by Wecker from Porta, Cardan, and some other old writers, and printed in 1592, there is no mention of it; nor even is it noticed by Caneparius in his book *de Atramentis*, printed in 1619. The first receipt given for the preparation of a sympathetic ink is in a book by Peter Borrel, printed at Paris in 1653, where it is called *magnetic water which acts at a distance. Beckmann. Hist. of Invent.* See CHEMISTRY *Index*, CIPHER, and INK.

CRYSTAL, in its original meaning, signified *ice*. It was afterwards applied to rock crystal, or crystallized siliceous earth; for the ancients, according to Pliny, regarded that body, as water which was congealed by the action of cold.

CRYSTAL, a species of stone belonging to the quartz or siliceous genus. It always appears, where there has been no interruption to its crystallization, in hexagonal prisms pointed at both ends. It is found of different kinds and colours. 1. Opaque or semi-transparent, and white or of a milk colour. 2. Opaque and red, or of a carnelian colour, from Oran in Barbary. 3. Opaque and black, from the same place. 4. Clear. The specific gravity of these kinds of crystals is from 2650 to 2700. Professor Bergman extracted from them about six parts of argilla and one of calcareous earth per hundred weight; but Mr Gerhard found some so pure as to contain neither. 5. Clear and blackish brown; the smoky topaz, or *rauch topaz* of the Germans. It is found at Egan in Norway, and at Lovisa in Finland. These crystals are said to become clear by boiling them in tallow. 6. Clear and yellow; found in Bohemia, and sold instead of topazes. 7. Clear and violet-coloured; the amethyst from Saxony, Bohemia, and Dannemore in Upland. The most transparent of these are called false diamonds, Bristol, Kerry stones, Alençon diamonds, &c. 8. Colourless rock crystal, properly so called, found in Bohemia, the province of Jemtland, and many other places. 9. Pyramidal crystal with one or two points. These have no prismatic shape, but either stand upon a base in cavities of quartz veins, have only a single pyramid,

Cryſtal.

pyramid, and are of various colours; or they lie in clayey earths, and have both pyramids, but no priſm. They are found at Blackenburg upon the Hartz, and at Morſeroſh in the Silverland in Tranſylvania.

The coloured tranſparent cryſtals derive their tinge from an exceedingly ſmall portion of metallic oxide, but loſe them entirely when ſtrongly heated. They are called *falſe gems;* viz. the red from Oran in Barbary, falſe rubies; the yellow from Saxony, falſe topazes; the green from Dauphiny, very rare, falſe emeralds or praſes; the violet from Vil in Catalonia, falſe amethyſts; the blue from Puy in Valais in France, falſe ſapphires. There are likewiſe opal or rainbow cryſtals, the various colours of which are thrown out in zones acroſs the ſurface. They make a very fine appearance, though they never ſhine like the oriental opal.

M. Fourcroy makes a remarkable difference between the cryſtals and quartz, by affirming that the former are unalterable in the fire, in which they neither loſe their hardneſs, tranſparency nor colour; while the quartz loſes the ſame qualities, and is reduced by it to a white and opaque earth. He claſſes the rock cryſtals,

I. According to their form, viz. 1. Inſulated hexagonal cryſtals ending in pyramids of ſix faces, which have a double refraction, or ſhow two images of the ſame object when looked through. 2. Hexagonal cryſtals united, having one or two points. 3. Tetraedral, dodecaedral, flatted cryſtals; and which, though hexagonal, have nevertheleſs their planes irregular. 4. Cryſtals in large maſſes, from the iſland of Madagaſcar, which have a ſimple refraction.

II. With regard to their colour, as being either diaphanous, reddiſh, ſmoky, or blackiſh.

III. With regard to accidental changes, ſome are hollow; ſome contain water within one or more cavities: ſome are caſed one within the other; ſome are of a round form, as the pebbles of the Rhine; ſome have a cruſt of metallic calces or of a pyrites; ſome are found cryſtallized in the inſide of a cavity; while ſome ſeem to contain amianthus or aſbeſtus; and others contain ſhirls. The ſame author reckons among cryſtals the oriental topaz, the hyacinth, the oriental ſapphire, and the amethyſt. M. Daubenton has always looked upon this laſt as a quartz of a cryſtal.

When the rock cryſtals are ſemitranſparent or intermixed with opaque veins, they are called by the Swediſh lapidaries *milk-cryſtals*. When they are found in the form of round pebbles, which is occaſioned by their being toſſed about and rubbed againſt one another by floods or by the ſea, they are called by the Engliſh lapidaries *pebble-cryſtals*. They come from the Indies, Siberia, and other places.

According to Bomare, the rock-cryſtals are generally formed upon or among quartz, which ſhows their great affinity, and are to be found in all parts of the world. The greateſt quantity of them is brought from Mount Saint Gothard in Switzerland. Large pieces of theſe, weighing from 5 to 800 pounds, were found there at Grimſelberg; another of about 1200 pounds weight was found ſome years ago at Fiſbach in the Valais: and a piece ſix feet long, four wide, and equally thick, was found in the iſland of Madagaſcar, where theſe natural productions are of the moſt extraordinary ſize and perfection.

In the imperial collection at Vienna, there is a pyramidal cryſtal vaſe two ells in height, cut wholly out of one piece. It is uſual with the largeſt cryſtals of the German mountains to be full of cracks and flaws, and to be ſo conſtructed internally as to ſhow all the priſmatic colours; but the above mentioned ones were quite free from theſe blemiſhes, and reſembled columns of the pureſt glaſs, only much clearer than any glaſs can be made. Cryſtal is alſo found in many parts of Britain and Ireland. About Briſtol it is found of an amethyſtine tinge. In Sileſia and Bohemia in Germany it is found ſtained with the colours of the ruby, ſapphire, emerald, and topaz; in which caſe jewellers take great advantage of it, ſelling it under the name of *occidental ſapphire.*

The orders of pure cryſtal are three; the firſt is perfect columnar cryſtals, with double pyramids, compoſed of 18 planes, in an hexangular column, terminated by an hexangular pyramid at each end: the ſecond order is that of perfect cryſtals, with double pyramids, without a column, compoſed either of 12 or of 16 planes, in two hexangular pyramids, joined cloſely baſe to baſe, without the intervention of any column; the third order is that of imperfect cryſtals, with ſingle pyramids, compoſed either of 12 or 10 planes, in an hexangular or pentangular column, affixed irregularly at one end to ſome ſolid body, and terminated at the other by an hexangular or pentangular pyramid.

Theſe are all the general forms into which cryſtal, when pure, is found concreted; but under theſe there are almoſt infinite varieties in the number of angles, and the length, thickneſs, and other accidents of the columns and pyramids.

When cryſtal is blended with metalline particles at the time of its formation, it aſſumes a variety of figures wholly different from theſe, conſtituting a fourth order, under the name of *metalline cryſtals;* when that metal is lead, the cryſtal aſſumes the form of a cube; when it is tin, of a quadrilateral pyramid, with a broad baſe; when iron, the cryſtal is found concreted in rhomboidal figures: theſe cryſtals are very common about mines; but the common ſpars, which are liable to be influenced in the ſame manner by the metals, and to appear in the very ſame form, are to be carefully diſtinguiſhed from them. There is one very eaſy teſt for this purpoſe, which is, that all ſpars are ſubject to be diſſolved by aquafortis, and effervesce violently only on its touching them: but it has no ſuch effects on cryſtal.

The pebble-cryſtal is common enough in all parts of the world; but that which is formed of hexangular columns, affixed to a ſolid baſe at one end, and terminated by a hexangular column at the other, is infinitely more ſo: this is what we call *ſprig* or *rock cryſtal*, and is the ſpecies deſcribed by moſt authors under the name of *cryſtal of the ſhops*, or that kept for medicinal uſes.

With regard to the formation of cryſtals, it is certain that they muſt have been once in a ſoft ſtate, ſince ſome are found to have water in their cavities. Profeſſor Bergman obtained 13 regular formed cryſtals, by ſuffering the powder of quartz to remain in a veſſel with fluor acid for two years. Theſe were about the ſize of ſmall peas, and were leſs hard than quartz. Mr Magellan informs us, that he received from Mr Achard

Cryſtal. Achard two cryſtals, one of the ſparry kind, and the other as hard and tranſparent as rock cryſtal. The firſt he procured by means of calcareous earth, and the latter from the earth of alum, both diſſolved in water impregnated with fixed air, the water filtrating very ſlowly through a porous bottom of baked clay. The apparatus is deſcribed by the author in the *Journal de Physique* for January 1778: but though the proceſs was attempted by Mr Magellan, and afterwards a ſecond time by Mr Achard himſelf, neither of them were able to ſucceed. Mr Morveau, however, in the firſt volume of the Dijon Memoirs for 1785, aſſerts that he has produced a very ſmall artificial cryſtal; and gives the proper method for ſucceeding in the proceſs.

Cryſtal is frequently cut; and luſtres, vaſes, and toys, are made of it as of other beautiful ſtones. For this purpoſe it is to be choſen perfectly clear and tranſparent. It is to be tried by aquafortis, or by drawing it along a pane of glaſs. The genuine cryſtal will not be affected by the acid, and will cut glaſs almoſt like a diamond. When any piece of workmanſhip of natural cryſtal is become foul and dark, the following method is to be uſed for recovering its brightneſs without hurting the poliſh. Mix together ſix parts of common water and one part of brandy; boil theſe over a briſk fire, and let the cryſtal be kept in it, in a boiling ſtate, a quarter of an hour; then take it out and rub it carefully over with a bruſh dipped in the ſame liquor; after this it is to be wiped with a napkin, and by that means its ſurface will be perfectly cleaned, and rendered as bright as at firſt, without any injury to the points of the cutting or the poliſh of the planes or faces, which would probably have happened had the cleaning been attempted by mere rubbing with a cloth.

Natural cryſtal may be reduced by calcination into a ſtate proper for making glaſs with alkaline ſalts, and thus becomes a very valuable frit. The method of doing it is as follows: calcine natural cryſtal in a crucible; when it is red hot, throw it into cold water. Repeat this eight times, covering the crucible, that no duſt or aſhes may get in among the cryſtal. Dry this calcined maſs, and reduce it to an impalpable powder.

Colouring CRYSTAL, for the imitation of gems. See DOUBLET.

CRYSTAL is alſo uſed for a factitious body, caſt in glaſs-houſes, called *cryſtal-glaſs*, being in fact no more than glaſs carried, in the compoſition and manufacture, to a greater perfection than the common-glaſs.

The beſt kind of glaſs-cryſtal is that called *Venice-cryſtal*, made at Moran near Venice. See GLASS.

Iſland or *Iceland* CRYSTAL, a tranſparent fiſſile ſtone brought from Iceland, ſoft as talc, clear as rock cryſtal, and without colour, remarkable for its unuſual refractions. It is a carbonate of lime.

It is there found in great abundance all over the country, but is particularly plentiful in a mountain, not far from the bay of Roezfiord, where the fineſt and moſt pellucid pieces are found on digging. The mountain lies in 65 degrees latitude, and has its whole outſide made up of it; but though this makes a very bright and glittering appearance, it is not ſo fine as that which lies at a little depth, and is met with on opening the ſurface. This is generally taken up out of the earth in maſſes a foot long, and its corners very frequently are terminated in theſe large maſſes by a ſort of cryſtals, very different in figure and qualities from the reſt of the maſs. The ſtone itſelf is of a parallelopiped figure; but theſe excreſcences are either ſingle pyramids, affixed to columns like common cryſtal, or double pyramids with or without columns between. The ſtone itſelf is ſoft; theſe are hard, and cut glaſs: the ſtone calcines to lime in the fire; theſe run into glaſs: in ſhort, the ſtone itſelf is true ſpar, and theſe are true cryſtal. Beſide theſe, there ſometimes grows out of the end of the larger maſſes a pure fine aſbeſtos. This likewiſe is the caſe ſometimes in the ſpar found about Bareges in France, and ſhows how nearly together the formation of bodies, wholly different from one another, may happen. The general figure of the ſtone is parallelopiped; or, as ſome expreſs it, rhomboid: and it retains this not only while whole, but alſo when broken to pieces; every fragment it naturally falls into, though ever ſo ſmall, being truly of that ſhape. But it is remarkable, that in ſome places of this mountain the ſame ſort of matter is found in form of triangular pyramids, all which have the ſame property of the double refraction with the parallelopipeds of the ſame ſubſtance; ſo that the original error of ſuppoſing its qualities owing to its ſhape, is refuted by this, as well as by the trials made with other pellucid bodies of the ſame figure, which do not ſhow this remarkable property.

The Iceland cryſtal is electrical, and when rubbed will attract ſtraws, feathers, and other light ſubſtances, in the ſame manner that amber does.

The vaſt maſſes of white ſpar which are found in the lead-mines of Derbyſhire, though they are not externally of the parallelopiped figure of the Iceland cryſtal, nor have any thing of its brightneſs or tranſparence in the general lump; yet when they are broken they ſeparate into rhomboidal fragments, and ſome of theſe are found to be tolerably pellucid: all thoſe which are ſo have the property of the Iceland cryſtal; and being laid upon paper where a black line is drawn, they all ſhow that line double, in the ſame manner as the real Iceland cryſtal does.

Iceland cryſtal bears a red heat without loſing its tranſparency; and in a very intenſe heat calcines without fuſion: ſteeped a day or two in water, it loſes its natural poliſh. It is very ſoft and eaſily ſcratched with the point of a pin: it will not give fire on being ſtruck againſt ſteel; and ferments and is perfectly diſſolved in aquafortis. It is found in Iceland, from whence it has its name; and in France, Germany, and many other places. In England fragments of other ſpars are very often miſtaken for it, many of them having in ſome degree the ſame property. It has none of the diſtinguiſhing characters of cryſtal; and is plainly a genus of ſpars, called from their figure *parallelopipedia*, which, as well as ſome other bodies of a different genus, have the ſame properties. Bartholine, Huygens, and Sir Iſaac Newton, have deſcribed the body at large, but have accounted it either a cryſtal or a talc; errors which could not have happened, had the criterions of foſſils been at that time fixed; ſince Sir Iſaac Newton has recorded its property of effervefcing with nitric acid, which alone muſt prove that it is neither

talc

Cryſtal. talc nor cryſtal, both thoſe bodies being wholly unaffected by that menſtruum. It is always found in form of an oblique parallelopiped, with ſix ſides; and is found of various ſizes, from a quarter of an inch to three inches or more in diameter. It is pellucid, and not much leſs bright than the pureſt cryſtal; and its planes are all tolerably ſmooth, though when nicely viewed they are found to be waved with crooked lines made by the edges of imperfect plates. What appears very ſingular in the ſtructure of this body is, that all the ſurfaces are placed in the ſame manner, and conſequently it will ſplit off into thin plates, either horizontally or perpendicularly; but this is found, on a microſcopic examination, to be owing to the regularity of figure, ſmoothneſs of ſurface, and nice joining of the ſeveral ſmall parallelopiped concretions, of which the whole is compoſed; and to the ſame cauſe is probably owing its remarkable property in refraction.

The phenomena of this ſtone are very remarkable, were firſt ſuggeſted by Bartholin, and have been examined with great accuracy by Mr Huygens and Sir Iſaac Newton.

1. Whereas in other pellucid bodies there is only one refraction, in this there are two; ſo that objects viewed through it appear double.

2. Whereas in other tranſparent bodies, a ray falling perpendicularly on the ſurface, paſſes ſtraight through, without ſuffering any refraction, and an oblique ray is always divided; in Iceland cryſtal, every ray, whether perpendicular or oblique, becomes divided into two, by means of the double refraction. One of theſe refractions is, according to the ordinary rule, the ſine of incidence out of air into cryſtal, being to the ſine of refraction as five to three; but the other is perfectly new. The like double refraction is alſo obſerved in cryſtal of the rock, though much leſs ſenſibly. When an incident ray is thus divided, and each moiety arrives at the farther ſurface, that refracted in the firſt ſurface after the uſual manner, is refracted entirely after the uſual manner at the ſecond; and that refracted in the unuſual manner in the firſt is entirely refracted after the like manner in the ſecond; ſo that each emerges out of the ſecond ſurface parallel to the firſt incident ray. Again, if two pieces of this cryſtal be placed over each other, ſo that the ſurfaces of the one be parallel to the correſponding ones of the other; the rays refracted in the uſual manner in the firſt ſurface of the firſt, are refracted after the uſual manner in all the other ſurfaces; and the ſame uniformity appears in the rays refracted after the unuſual manner; and this in any inclination of the ſurfaces, provided their planes of perpendicular refraction be parallel.

From theſe phenomena Sir Iſaac Newton infers, that there is an original difference in the rays of light; by means whereof ſome are here conſtantly refracted after the uſual manner; and others in the unuſual manner. Were not the difference original, and did it ariſe from any new modifications impreſſed on the rays at their firſt refraction, it would be altered by new modifications in the three following ones; whereas, in fact, it ſuffers no alteration at all. Again, he hence takes occaſion to ſuſpect, that the rays of light have ſeveral ſides, endued with ſeveral original properties: for it appears from the circumſtances, that theſe are not two ſorts of rays differing in their nature from each other, one conſtantly in all poſitions, refracted in the uſual, and the other in the unuſual manner; the difference in the experiment mentioned being only in the poſition of the ſides of the rays to the plane of perpendicular refraction. For one and the ſame ray is refracted ſometimes after the uſual, and ſometimes after the unuſual manner, according to the poſition of its ſides to the cryſtal: the refraction being alike in both, when the ſides of the rays are poſited the ſame way to both, but different when different. Every ray therefore may be conſidered as having four ſides or quarters; two of which, oppoſite to each other, diſpoſe the ray to be refracted after the unuſual manner; and the other two in the uſual. Theſe diſpoſitions, being in the rays before their incidence on the ſecond, third, and fourth ſurfaces, and ſuffering no alteration; for what appears in their paſſage through them muſt be original and connate.

Father Beccaria corrects the obſervations of Huygens and Newton concerning the refraction of rock or mountain cryſtal. The double refraction of the latter happens when a ray paſſes through two ſides that are inclined to each other, and conſequently iſſues coloured: whereas that of the Iceland cryſtal is made by the paſſage of a ray through two parallel ſides, and therefore it iſſues colourleſs. He ſuggeſts, that there may be other ſubſtances in which there is a manifold refraction. Graveſande had a priſm of Braſil pebble, which had a double refraction at each angle, but of a different kind from one another. Mr B. Martin prepared ſeveral priſms of Iceland cryſtal, which exhibited not only a double but a multiple refraction. A ſingle priſm produced a ſix-fold refraction; and by combining ſeveral priſms, a number of refractions was obtained equal to the product of thoſe of the ſingle priſms; i. e. a priſm which afforded two images applied to one of ſix, produced a priſm of twelve images, &c. He farther obſerves, with reſpect to Iceland cryſtal, that though the ſides of its plane of perpendicular refraction be parallel to one another, a beam of light tranſmitted through them will not be colourleſs; in which property it differs from all other known ſubſtances.

CRYSTALLINE, in general, ſomething compoſed of or reſembling cryſtal. See CRYSTAL.

CRYSTALLINE Heavens, in *Ancient Aſtronomy*, two ſpheres imagined between the primum mobile and the firmament, in the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, which ſuppoſes the heavens ſolid, and only ſuſceptible of a ſingle motion. See ASTRONOMY.

CRYSTALLINE Humour. See ANATOMY *Index*.

CRYSTALLINÆ, or CRYSTALLINES, in *Medicine*, are puſtules filled with water, and ſo called on account of their tranſparency. They are one of the worſt ſymptoms attendant on a gonorrhœa. They are lodged on the prepuce, without pain; and though cauſed by coition, have nothing of infection attending them. The cauſe is ſuppoſed to be a contuſion of the lymphatic veſſels in the part affected. Dr Cockburn, who hath deſcribed this caſe, recommends for the cure a mixture of three parts of lime-water and two of rectified ſpirit of wine, to be uſed warm, as a lotion three times a-day.

CRYSTALLIZATION.

CRYSTALLIZATION.

Introduction.

1 Definition.

CRYSTALLIZATION is the ſymmetrical arrangement of the particles of a body when it paſſes from the liquid to the ſolid form. This arrangement is determined by the mutual action of the ſmall ſolids of which the body is compoſed; and theſe ſolids are ſeparated from the liquid by their force of coheſion. Cryſtallization is one of the moſt remarkable effects of coheſion. The qualities of a ſolid in which the force of coheſion is more eaſily overcome in one direction than another; its brittleneſs, elaſticity, and ductility, depend on this arrangement of its particles.

2 Bodies which cryſtallize muſt be ſuſceptible of

Solid bodies are found either in irregular maſſes, or exhibit certain determinate forms by the proceſs of cryſtallization. Thoſe ſubſtances which are capable of aſſuming regular figures, uniformly affect the ſame form; ſubject, however, to certain deviations, from the operation of particular circumſtances. Thoſe bodies only can aſſume the form of cryſtals which are ſuſceptible of being reduced to the fluid ſtate. This is the uſual method of cryſtallizing ſaline ſubſtances. The ſubſtance to be cryſtallized is diſſolved in a ſufficient quantity of water to retain it in ſolution. This is ſlowly evaporated; and as the bulk of the fluid is diminiſhed, the particles are brought nearer to each other; they combine together by the force of coheſion, and form cryſtals. Some ſaline bodies, which diſſolve but in ſmall proportion in cold water, are found to be very

3 ſolution;

ſoluble in hot water. But when this water cools, it is no longer capable of holding them in ſolution. The particles then gradually approach each other, and arrange themſelves into certain determinate forms; or they cryſtallize. Many of the ſaline bodies which cryſtallize in this manner, combine with a conſiderable portion of water. This is called the *water of cryſtallization*. Other ſaline ſubſtances are equally ſoluble in hot and cold water. Theſe ſubſtances do not cryſtallize by cooling the fluid; they aſſume regular forms only by diminiſhing its quantity. This is effected by means of evaporation by the application of heat. In ſalts which are cryſtallized in theſe circumſtances, the proportion of water which enters into combination is ſmall.

4 or fuſion.

There are ſome claſſes of bodies which aſſume regular forms, but are not ſoluble in any liquid. Such, for inſtance, are metallic ſubſtances, glaſs, and ſome other bodies. Subſtances of this nature are cryſtallized, by being previouſly ſubjected to fuſion; and thus having combined with caloric, they are reduced to the liquid ſtate, and the particles being ſeparated from each other are left at liberty to arrange themſelves into regular forms, or to cryſtallize, as the body cools.

5 Conjectures about the cauſe.

But what is the cauſe which operates in determining the regular arrangement of the particles of bodies in theſe circumſtances? or what is the cauſe of the ſame bodies in the ſame circumſtances aſſuming regular figures? The ancient philoſophers ſuppoſed that the elements of bodies conſiſted of certain regular geometrical figures; but it does not appear that they applied this theory to explain cryſtallization. The ſchoolmen aſcribed the regular figure of cryſtals to their ſubſtantial forms; and others ſuppoſed that it depended merely on the aggregation of the particles, but without explaining to what this aggregation was owing, or the reaſon of the regular figures thus produced. Accord-

Introduction.

6 Newton's.

ing to Sir Iſaac Newton and the theory of Boſcovich, the particles of bodies held in ſolution in a fluid, are arranged at regular diſtances, and in regular order; and when the force of coheſion between the particles and the fluid is diminiſhed, it is increaſed between the particles themſelves. Thus they ſeparate from the fluid, and combine together in groups which are compoſed of the particles neareſt to each other. If we ſuppoſe that the particles compoſing the ſame body have the ſame figure, the aggregation of any determinate number of ſuch particles will produce ſimilar figures. Bergman is of opinion that the particles of ſaline ſubſtances poſſeſs a double tendency: by the one they arrange themſelves in the form of ſpiculæ; and by the other, theſe ſpiculæ arrange themſelves at certain angles of inclination, and according to the difference of theſe angles, different forms of cryſtals are produced. Theſe effects are aſcribed by the ingenious author to the mutual attraction which exiſts between the particles, which, according to the peculiar figures of the atoms, at one time, arranges them in the form of ſpiculæ, and then combines the ſpiculæ thus formed under different angles of inclination. But this arrangement of the particles,

7 Bergman's.

or tendency to arrangement, aſſigned by Bergman as a cauſe, is only explaining the phenomenon by itſelf; while the cauſe of the tendency is yet unexplained. Nor will Newton's hypotheſis be more ſatisfactory; for if the particles of a body, after being equally diffuſed in a fluid, are brought together by a general attraction, it will follow that every ſaline body ſhould cryſtallize in the ſame manner.

8 Hauy's.

According to the ingenious theory which has been propoſed by Hauy, the integrant particles always combine in the ſame body in the ſame way; the ſame faces and the ſame edges are always attracted towards each other. But theſe faces and edges are different in different cryſtals; and hence originates that variety of forms which different bodies aſſuming regular figures by cryſtallization exhibit. But why are the ſame edges and the ſame faces attracted in the ſame way? This ſtill wants explanation. If it be aſcribed, as ſome have ſuppoſed, to a certain degree of polarity exiſting among the particles, it might enable us to account for the regular figures of bodies produced by the proceſs of cryſtallization. For by the effects of this agent we might ſuppoſe that different parts of the particles of bodies are endowed with different forces; one an attractive, and another a repulſive force; and by the action of theſe two forces, the ſame arrangement of the particles will uniformly take place; for when one part of a particle is attracted, the other will be invariably repelled; and thus the ſame faces and edges will always be diſpoſed in the ſame way. But it ought to be obſerved that the exiſtence of this power, however ſatisfactorily

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factorily it might account for the phenomena, has by no means been proved; and even if its existence were completely established, the difficulty still remains how this polarity is to be explained.

Without entering farther into these speculations, we propose, in the two following sections, to present our readers with a comprehensive view of the formation and structure of crystallized bodies. In the first section we shall treat of the phenomena of crystallization, the means of conducting this process to obtain the most perfect crystals, and the modifications of which each of the forms is susceptible. In the second we shall give a short view of the theory of the structure of crystals.

Sect. I. *Of the Phenomena of Crystallization, and the modifications to which it is subject.*

The most complete set of observations which has yet appeared on this branch of practical chemistry has been made by M. Leblanc; and to his ingenious memoir † we must acknowledge ourselves indebted for what we now lay before our readers that is new or interesting on this subject. This art, he observes, of managing or conducting the crystallization of salts, is in a great measure new; for it has hitherto attracted little attention. To insure success in obtaining perfect crystals, the process must be conducted in flat-bottomed vessels; and vessels of glass or porcelain are found preferable to those of any other materials for this purpose. The salt employed should be in a state of purity; and to favour the increase and regular form of the crystals, they are to be placed at a distance from each other in the vessels containing the solution. To these necessary precautions, it may be added, that the vessels in which the evaporation goes on should be at perfect rest, and that it is requisite to observe the density, or specific gravity, at which the solution begins to yield crystals.

† *Jour. de Physique*, tome lv. 300.

9 Conditions.

The particles of any saline body cannot come into contact and form crystals, as long as the force of affinity between these particles and the fluid in which they are held in solution is greater than the mutual affinity of the particles among themselves. A salt, for instance, which begins to crystallize at a certain specific gravity of its solution in water, will afford no crystals when that specific gravity is diminished; for then the particles of the salt are removed to a greater distance from each other; and while, by this distance, the force of their mutual attraction is diminished, the attraction between these particles and the water in which they are dissolved is increased by the increase of the quantity of the solvent. But, on the other hand, if a solution which begins to crystallize at a certain specific gravity, is more concentrated, the crystals which are thus obtained are greatly multiplied, but they are heaped together in confused masses, exhibiting no regular forms. Thus, a solution which has been scarcely reduced to that degree of concentration at which it begins to crystallize, being poured while it is hot into the proper vessel for carrying on the process, or left at rest in the same vessel in which the solution is made, to cool slowly, will yield a small number of crystals, which will have no other defects than what are occasioned by their contact with the vessel. Even perfect crystals will be sometimes found among the smaller ones. When the concentration of the solution has not been carried too far, or not farther than what is effected by slow cooling, not only have the embryo crystals less bulk, but the particles having come into contact slowly and without confusion, they possess a greater degree of transparency. After a certain period, which varies according to the species of salt which is subjected to the operation, small crystals may be distinctly observed. These are to be carefully detached from each other, and placed in a different position. Being placed by this management on a different side, the defects occasioned by their contact with the vessel are soon repaired. From the crystals treated in this way, the finest and most perfect are to be obtained. This operation of changing the position of the crystal from one side to the other, ought to be repeated at least once every day, if we wish to obtain the completest crystals.

10 Preparation of the solution.

At the end of a certain period, the small crystals are to be removed, that the fluid may be more concentrated, either by a new evaporation, or by dissolving a new portion of the same salt. After the new solution has cooled, and the crystals which have formed in it are separated, if it has been too much concentrated, or too great a portion of salt has been added; the crystals of the first solution are then to be introduced and treated in the same way as formerly.

11 Management of the crystals.

When the crystals have acquired a sufficient volume to handle them, and to choose such as we wish should increase to the largest size, either as simple or complete crystals, or as exhibiting varieties from position or particular circumstances, the individual crystals are then to be separated, and solutions are to be prepared for them and brought to such a degree of concentration as to afford crystals in a mass; which latter being removed, the single crystals are introduced into these solutions, which are now in a proper state to favour their increase. The crystals may be either previously disposed in the vessel, and then the solution may be poured on; or having first introduced the latter, they may be afterwards distributed on the bottom of the vessel. And thus by continuing the same process, by taking care to change the position of the crystal from one side to the other frequently, and by keeping up the solution to a proper degree of strength, we may obtain crystals of any bulk we choose.

12 which decrease if left too long in the solution.

When the quantity of particles, which in a certain state of concentration continue to be mutually attracted, has diminished in consequence of their accumulation on the crystals which are formed, at a certain stage of this diminution the crystals cease to enlarge or increase in bulk; it happens, on the contrary, if they are left in the fluid, that they begin to dissolve. It is usually on the corners and angles that this decrease takes place; and in some salts it seems to go on piecemeal, so as to present distinct layers of the particles; for in this case lines parallel to the sides may be observed, and these are disposed like steps of stairs. Should the accident, which is here alluded to, be allowed to go on too far, it may often require a long time to repair it; but it is in general easy to avoid this inconvenience, by watching the progress of the operation and the increase of the crystals. If their corners or angles are observed to become less sharp, they must be removed till the fluid is farther concentrated, or they

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they muſt be introduced into a new ſolution of the ſame ſalt of the proper degree of ſtrength. To prepare the new ſolution for the increaſe of the cryſtals, a quantity of the ſame ſalt is to be diſſolved in a given portion of water, ſo that it ſhall be fully ſaturated. It is then allowed to cool and cryſtallize. The cryſtals being ſeparated, the remaining ſolution is to be employed in ſuch quantity as may be judged neceſſary to replace that in which the diminution of the cryſtals had commenced.

Sometimes it happens, from want of neceſſary precaution, that the new ſolution in which the proceſs is to be conducted, either being too much ſaturated, or being diſturbed by pouring from one veſſel to another, exhibits many other points of attraction beſide the cryſtals whoſe increaſe is propoſed. In this caſe a great number of ſmall cryſtals make their appearance, and cover the ſurface of the former with a kind of incruſtation. The ſmall cryſtals, provided they are taken in time, may be removed without injury to the others; if not, they will be unavoidably ſpoiled.

13 Their poſition muſt be changed.

When the cryſtals have reached ſuch a ſize as that they may be placed one by one, without being in contact with each other, we muſt ſtill continue frequently to change their poſition. This may be done with a ſpatula, a glaſs rod, or with any inſtrument which will communicate nothing to the fluid. In this way the ſides of the cryſtal which are alternately in contact with the bottom of the veſſel will increaſe in equal proportion, and it will always remain complete.

It is chiefly in ſalts which furniſh elongated priſms that the influence of poſition may be moſt diſtinctly ſeen. If, for inſtance, a cryſtal before it has acquired much volume is found to reſt on one of its baſes as well as on one of its ſides, it will be obſerved to be compreſſed in the direction from baſe to baſe; and it will appear to be only a regular ſegment of the cryſtal, which having been placed on one of its ſides has obtained a great bulk. If we take a ſix-ſided priſm whoſe ſummits are obliquely truncated, and if it be placed on one of its ſides, it will enlarge in a greater or leſs degree, but always in ſuch a manner that the diſtance from one baſe to the other ſhall never be leſs than the diſtance between the ſides. But if the poſition be on one of its baſes, then its principal increaſe will be in the direction of the ſides, and it will appear to be compreſſed between the baſes. At firſt ſight, a cryſtal treated in this way will ſeem different from the former. For the corners form the ſummit of apparent pyramids which are ſeparated by a four-ſided priſm. This circumſtance affords a ſufficient explanation of one of the cauſes which produce varieties in the appearances of a cryſtal with regard to its relative extent; it ſhows that there is no foundation for the opinion of a ſuppoſed balance between the particles of the ſalt and that of the ſolvent; and it ſhows alſo, that if the force of attraction be the efficient cauſe of the ſaline particles coming into contact, the force of gravitation acts at the ſame time, and modifies in a greater or leſs degree the effects of the firſt.

According to theſe obſervations, and the different ſtates in which cryſtallized ſubſtances are found, it has been ſuppoſed that we might conclude, that the force of adheſion between the particles of the ſalt and thoſe of the ſolvent, varies according to circumſtances, which depend on the degree of tendency to combination between the bodies, and the relative weight or bulk of the parts of which theſe bodies are compoſed. If a cryſtal in the incipient ſtage of its increaſe be placed on one of its baſes, it enlarges in the direction of its ſides; but if it be reverſed and placed on one of its ſides, it enlarges in the dimenſions of an elongated priſm.

An inſulated cryſtal, placed on one of its ſides on a ſmooth ſurface, and left undiſturbed to enlarge in ſize, preſents on this part a kind of hollow, which correſponds exactly with the ſide which it replaces. Here the ſaline particles which cannot reach this ſurface, are diſtributed on the neighbouring parts with which they come in contact, with this circumſtance, that the edges of the ſurface on which the cryſtal reſts increaſe in proportion, but without allowing the liquid to have acceſs to this ſurface.

The hollows which are formed at the ſurface of liquids differ ſometimes from each other even in the ſame ſalt. If we ſuppoſe that a particle forms the incipient point of the hollow, the latter will aſſume a configuration correſponding to the ſide of the particle preſented to the ſurface of the liquid: but the part which it touches increaſes alſo; and if by any circumſtance a change of poſition happens, the hollow, thus neceſſarily formed according to the arrangement of the part which correſponds exactly to the ſurface of the liquid, will change its form, becauſe the new poſition of the ſide preſented differs from the firſt.

When a neutral ſalt, in a ſtate of purity, and after being cryſtallized, ceaſes to produce any effect on vegetable blues, it is not ſuppoſed that any of its conſtituent principles is in exceſs. But if in this ſtate it is found to combine with other bodies, in ſuch a manner as to produce ſolid and well defined cryſtals, we muſt admit that there exiſts an affinity between the ſalt and the body with which it has combined.

14 Compound combination.

This ſubject, Leblanc obſerves, of the ſupra-compoſition, or compound combination, as it might perhaps be called, of which ſeveral ſalts are ſuſceptible, has not hitherto much occupied the attention of chemical philoſophers. Some indeed have been pointed out by Bergman and others; but it has been remarked that theſe affinities are probably much more extenſive than has been ſuppoſed; and not only with regard to neutral ſalts with each other, but alſo neutral ſalts with other bodies. Of this kind of combination is not to be reckoned that of one of the conſtituent parts of a ſalt being in exceſs, which frequently takes place in ſome ſalts, and is found to be more or leſs permanent. This circumſtance ſeems to prove that certain ſalts have two different points in the combination of their conſtituent parts. Let us ſee what has been obſerved in this reſpect of the ſulphate of alumina, which will perhaps explain the reaſon that this ſalt is almoſt always found in nature in the acidulous ſtate. It is found that the more that alum approaches to the ſtate of ſaturation by an additional portion of baſe, the leſs ſolid the new combination becomes; and in all caſes, after a certain time, which is longer or ſhorter according to circumſtances, the portion which was added ſeparates. It will perhaps appear in the ſequel, that this tendency to combination which is conſtantly in action, producing an immenſe multitude of different individuals, reſides not only among the properties of the ſimple principles,

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ciples, but alſo in thoſe which belong to all the compounds.

Many of the ſulphates are always found in the acidulous ſtate; and all of them ſeem to be ſuſceptible of combination with a new quantity of the ſame baſe, till they reach the point of ſaturation. For example, the ſulphate of copper, in the ſtate in which it is uſually found, cryſtallizes in eight-ſided, oblique priſms, terminated by ſides according to the obliquity of the priſm. But if another portion of baſe be added, the cryſtals aſſume the form of pyramids of ſeveral faces, ſeparated by a four-ſided priſm. The acidulous ſulphate of zinc gives cryſtals of ſix-ſided priſms, which are often very regular; but an addition of baſe produces a great change, for then the cryſtals are in the rhomboidal form, very little different from the cube. Alum in its ordinary ſtate of combination cryſtallizes in the form of a regular octaedron; but in the intermediate proportions between this ſtate and that of ſaturation, it aſſumes the form of a cube.

Hauy, as will be afterwards noticed, has demonſtrated that the form of the primitive molecules is the ſame in all cryſtals of the ſame ſalt, and he has ſhown by calculation that the variations ariſe from the laws of decrement in the layers which ſurround the nucleus; but that the order according to which the ſecondary forms are produced may be interrupted, whether this form be complete or not; and the cryſtal may then, according to circumſtances, return to its primitive form, or to ſome of thoſe which are derived from it. But from the experiments of Leblanc, he thinks that theſe changes always depend on new conditions in the ſtate of the fluid, as a different proportion of the principles of which the ſalt is compoſed.

15 Cryſtals modified by the ſolution.

If a cryſtal of octaedral alum be placed in a ſolution which forms cubic cryſtals of the ſame ſalt, the former will aſſume the cubic form, by giving up a ſeries of molecules from the ſummits of the ſolid angles, ſo that the layers continue to decreaſe on the triangular faces till the cryſtal has completed its new form. In this proceſs, the change may be ſtopped at any period, and cryſtals of every modification of form may be obtained. From this it follows, that the centre of each of the faces of the octaedron correſponds to a ſolid angle of the cube in which it is inſcribed. But if a cubical cryſtal be introduced into the ſolution which yields the octaedron, its return to this latter form proceeds in the ſame order, by the ſubtraction of a ſeries of molecules from the ſolid angles of the cube. It often happens, however, at the ſame time, that the ſubtraction of the molecules extends to the corners of the cryſtal; ſo that the layers of ſuper-poſition decreaſe all at once, according to the order of the formation of the octaedron, and the dodecaedron with rhomboidal ſurfaces. This circumſtance ſeems to ſuggeſt the poſſibility of obtaining cryſtals of alum of this latter form; but it ſeems to depend on a particular proportion which is not eaſily determined.

Thus we learn from experiment that ſalts which exhibit different forms of cryſtals can be made to aſſume each of theſe at pleaſure. This phenomenon, which has not been much attended to, ſeems to merit particular inveſtigation. The tranſition from one form to another may be explained according to the laws of diminution, by the ſucceſſive and regular ſubtraction of ſeries of molecules; ſo that the form actually obtained, the reſtoration of the preceding form, is eaſily explicable on the principle of reſtitution alone. It may be obſerved, that during this kind of metamorphoſis, both operations, namely, that by which the cryſtal receives on the one hand a new form, and that by which on the other hand it increaſes on all its ſides, conſtantly take place.

16 Cryſtals differently affected at different heights in the fluid.

The particles of a ſalt which are in ſolution in a fluid, are attracted by it, particle by particle, without any ſeparation or decompoſition; but it is neceſſary that there be a balance of the attracting forces between the ſalt and the ſolvent. This is demonſtrated by the following experiment. A veſſel two feet high and two inches in diameter was filled with a ſolution of a proper degree of concentration for the growth of cryſtals, which were ſuſpended at different heights from the bottom of the veſſel to the ſurface of the fluid; and it was obſerved that the increaſe of the cryſtal was in proportion to its depth in the veſſel, that which was neareſt the bottom increaſing moſt rapidly. When the liquid was deprived of ſaline particles by their accumulation on the cryſtals, by reſt, and ſometimes even by the influence of the atmoſphere, the cryſtals decreaſed by ſimilar gradations to thoſe of their increaſe; ſo that it at laſt reached that ſtate when the cryſtals near the ſurface of the liquid were diſſolved, while thoſe towards the bottom continued to increaſe; and ſometimes it happened that the cryſtals at the bottom of the veſſel continued to increaſe on the ſurface which was in contact with it, while the oppoſite upper ſurface was in a ſtate of diſſolution.

All the experiments which were made on ſalts of different degrees of ſpecific gravity accord with this obſervation; and the difference in the degrees of ſaturation of the waters of the ocean, which depends on the difference of depth, ſeems to be in favour of this opinion. It is confirmed by the analyſis of ſea-water by Bergman and others, which was taken up in different places and at different depths. It receives ſtill farther confirmation from a practice of the inhabitants of Salines in Bearn in eſtimating the degree of ſtrength of a ſalt ſpring. An egg is thrown into the waters of the ſpring, and the whole water which covers the ſurface of the egg is thrown away, as it is not of a ſufficient degree of concentration.

It is well known that a cold temperature is moſt convenient for the cryſtallization of ſalts. But it is not at the period when the ſalt begins to cryſtallize that it is moſt convenient to carry on the proceſs; for then it ſometimes happens, from too great concentration of the fluid, that the cryſtallization is too rapid and confuſed.

17 Two claſſes of ſaline ſubſtances.

Hitherto ſaline ſubſtances, which are ſuſceptible of regular cryſtallization, have been divided into two claſſes, according to the peculiarities in the formation of their cryſtals. The one claſs comprehends thoſe cryſtals which are formed by cooling the fluid in which the ſolution is made. The other claſs includes thoſe which are produced only during the evaporation of the ſolution. This diſtinction is no doubt well founded; but there are ſome exceptions to it which are neceſſary to be attended to in conducting the proceſs of cryſtallization. If a ſaline ſolution which is too much ſaturated, be cooled, it furniſhes a maſs of cryſtals which

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which are confused and irregular, and which present no determined form except on those sides which are in contact with the liquid. If in this state the remaining liquid is poured off, it will yield another set of crystals, but in very small number; and there are some salts which continue to form crystals after being several times successively treated in this way, the number of the crystals still diminishing from the first degree of concentration. It will be found too that this will take place whether the process be carried on in the open air or in close vessels. It follows from this that the increase or the formation of crystals, in this case, depends solely on the mutual attraction of the particles or on the attraction between the particles and the crystal; an attraction or affinity which is not destroyed by the cooling of the fluid, but is probably regulated by the distance of the particles, and the degree of force or affinity which exists between the particles and the solvent. In some saline solutions the increase of the crystals goes on in this manner for a long time. It is only in the interval between the cooling of the liquid to the temperature of the atmosphere, and that period when its degree of concentration is so diminished that the increase of the crystals ceases, that the latter proceeds with that degree of perfection of which it is susceptible.

18 Some saline solutions attract moisture.

It is not a property peculiar to dry substances to absorb moisture from the atmosphere. Liquids saturated with certain salts seem also to possess this property; for in some saline solutions, the liquids assume a solvent power which never fails to attack the crystals, and not only to prevent their increase, but to diminish the bulk which they had acquired. This accident can only be obviated by regulating the state of the atmosphere in which the evaporating vessels are placed, and preserving it free from an excess of moisture From causes which produce a contrary effect, the evaporation becomes too rapid; this circumstance also requires to be attended to and properly regulated, to ensure the full success of the operation.

From the preceding observations it will appear, that solutions of salts which are susceptible of crystallization have certain degrees of concentration which are necessary for the formation of crystals; and that they must be reduced nearly to that degree in which they begin to yield crystals, before it can be expected that they afford proper results. It is therefore necessary to attend particularly to the degree of concentration which each salt requires for the regular formation of its crystals, and to obtain them with that degree of transparency of which they are susceptible. We have seen that in the formation of crystals they may be removed from one vessel to another, and from one solution to another; and that in proportion to the slowness of the process they become more beautiful and more perfect. These operations, it may be added, require much patience and attention, but at the same time the observer is fully compensated for his trouble, by perceiving the progress of the crystallization, and by the interest which is excited in all its stages.

It is essential to know that neither the crystals formed during the artificial evaporation, nor those which are produced during the cooling of the solution, are proper to be made choice of for being increased and brought forward to the most perfect crystals. When a solution has become cold, that is to say, when it has acquired the temperature of the atmosphere, and it is deprived of the excess of saline particles which it held in combination during its increase of temperature, it is still in a condition to yield crystals, and as long as the distances between the particles are not too great to allow of mutual attraction. A solution saturated to excess affords on cooling a confused mass of crystals; but after the fluid is poured off, it will still produce more crystals, but in smaller number. The degree of concentration of the solution before it yielded the last product may be considered as the term of saturation most proper to be employed for the species of salt which is thus treated. But by the repetition of these operations, and the observation of their progress, it will not be difficult to discover the proper proportions between the salt and the solvent.

It seems to be a mistake to suppose, with some, that the crystals which are placed in favourable circumstances to become larger and more perfect, are injured by coming in contact with each other during their increase. It is undoubtedly better that they should be kept separate; but it does not appear that they are hurt by touching each other, if the number in the vessel be not too great, and they are not heaped or pressed together. In that crystallization which results from the cooling of a solution too much saturated, the crystals are always confused and interlaced with each other; and the molecules which are arranged in this kind of disorder experience a kind of irregular distribution; and it may be observed, that in this case the summits only of the crystals which are elevated from the kind of cake which is formed on the surfaces of the vessel containing the solution, present regular and determined forms. The mass in which these crystals are implanted is a confused heap.

No cavities have been observed on the faces of crystals excepting those which are formed on the surface of fluids. Those which are produced on that side of a crystal which rests on the bottom of the vessel are more common in other salts. This phenomenon seems to merit more attention than has yet been bestowed upon it; as it explains easily the introduction of extraneous bodies which are sometimes detected in the interior of crystals. For when a cavity of this kind has acquired a certain depth, it is capable of receiving part of any foreign substance, and to be filled up by the change of position of the same crystal, retaining at the same time the extraneous matter. By a little art and dexterity, these fortuitous circumstances may be favoured, so that phenomena exhibited by such occurrences may be traced and observed at the pleasure of the operator. Experiments have been made with the view of ascertaining whether an extraneous substance could be substituted as the nucleus of a crystal; but from the result of these experiments, it does not appear that the particles of any salt have a tendency to combine with any foreign matter, and to form regular crystals. The portions of the salt which were attached to the extraneous substance were always separate and independent crystals.

19 Cavities on crystals.

There are some saline substances which retain in their solution an excess of particles even after cooling, and which being strongly agitated instantly deposit a great number of small crystals which render the solution

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tion turbid. The introduction of cryſtals of the ſame ſalt, it is well known, as in the caſe of a ſolution of Glauber's ſalt, promotes this ſudden cryſtallization or ſeparation of the exceſs of the ſalt. If, in this ſtate of the ſolution, cryſtals are immerſed with the view of having them large and regular, they are certain of being ſpoiled by the accumulation of a great number of ſmall cryſtals on their ſurface, unleſs the precaution of immediately waſhing them with pure water when this happens is obſerved.

It may be remarked alſo that when the ſolution is diminiſhed below a certain degree of ſaturation, the cryſtals not only ceaſe to increaſe, but are alſo again in ſome meaſure diſſolved; the corners and angles reduced and rounded. And if the cryſtals in this ſtate be introduced into a ſolution of ſufficient ſtrength to promote their increaſe, ſupernumerary faces and truncatures, as they are denominated in technical language, are formed on the rounded corners and angles. But theſe faces always diſappear as the increaſe of the cryſtals proceeds, and are replaced by corners and angles, which become at laſt ſharp and diſtinct.

By attention to preſerve the ſolutions of ſalt in perfect purity, we ſhall be more certain of obtaining the moſt beautiful and tranſparent cryſtals. Some fluids, after a certain time, are obſerved to depoſit ſubſtances which are foreign to the ſalt held in ſolution, and were diſſolved along with it. Theſe ſubſtances ſometimes appear in the form of earthy matters, which precipitate to the bottom of the veſſel; in other caſes they are diffuſed in the form of flakes, and ſometimes they riſe and ſwim on the ſurface. In all theſe caſes, the cryſtals whoſe formation and increaſe are going forward muſt be removed, and the liquor muſt be filtrated before they are replaced.

20 Variations in cryſtals from hanges in the ſolution.

A ſaline ſubſtance, which is capable of cryſtallization, poſſeſſes, in the ſtate of minute diviſion in which it is in ſolution, or in the condition of the molecules which compoſe it, a determined property which is uniform and conſtant, in which reſides eſſentially the power of uniting in a certain ſymmetrical manner, and thus conſtructing regular ſolids. The reſults alſo are uniform and conſtant when the proceſs is carefully conducted; but it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh with accuracy the circumſtances which accompany the operation, and may occaſion a deviation from this uniformity. The ſulphate of iron, for inſtance, uſually cryſtallizes in the form of rhomboids; but ſometimes it has been found to aſſume that of an irregular octaedron. And although it may be true that an elongated octaedron may be claſſed with priſmatic cryſtals, it does not on that account belong leſs to the octaedral form; but it ſeems probable that theſe different varieties, in the forms of cryſtals, depend on ſome changes which take place in the ſolutions themſelves. The iron in the preſent caſe is conſtantly receiving new portions of oxygen from the atmoſphere, and in this new combination it is precipitated in the fluid: this, therefore, occaſions a change in the conſtituents of the ſalt.

Several ſulphates are found to combine readily with each other: thoſe of iron and copper are of this deſcription; and the reſult of this compound cryſtal is always a rhomboid. It ſeems to be doubtful whether this ſhould be conſidered as a caſe of ſimple interpoſition of one ſalt with the other.

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When a liquid, which holds ſaline bodies in ſolution, is evaporated to a certain degree, a cruſt forms on the ſurface, acquires a certain thickneſs, and when this is removed, it is renewed. The point at which the liquid exhibits this appearance is known in chemiſtry, by the appellation of *evaporation to a pellicle.* When it has reached this point, the ſolution is in a ſtate of complete ſaturation; and the ſmalleſt additional quantity of fluid cannot be withdrawn without a correſponding quantity of ſalt aſſuming the ſolid form. On this principle Robinet has attempted to account for the formation of *dendrites*, or the arboreſcent appearance and efflorescence of ſome ſalts. Almoſt all the different ſpecies of fucus or ſea-weed, he obſerves, are covered, in drying, with an efflorescence of white matter. In ſome ſpecies, this white matter was obſerved to poſſeſs a ſaccharine quality. A number of large roots of the *fucus palmatus* was hung up in the ſhade, and ten days had elapſed without the appearance of any thing on the ſurface. After that period it became white, and it was ſoon covered with a light downy ſubſtance, the filaments of which gradually increaſed to a conſiderable length. When this downy matter was bruſhed off with a feather, it was renewed till the plants were completely dry. This ſubſtance, it appeared on examination, was of a ſaccharine nature, mixed with a ſmall portion of common ſalt, and a great quantity of mucilaginous matter. By ſolution and cryſtallization, the ſugar was ſeparated from the other ſubſtances.

21 Formation of dendrites

In comparing the circumſtances of this efflorescence with thoſe of the formation of the pellicle, in the progreſs of evaporation, the former ſeems to be a modification of the latter. In a veſſel which contains a liquid ſaturated with a ſalt, the ſurface ſubjected to evaporation has no ſooner aſſumed a ſolid form, than the ſurface immediately inferior is expoſed to the action of the ſame cauſes, and produces the ſame effect; and this effect continues till this cruſt has become ſo thick, or ſo compact, as to prevent the contact of air, and then the evaporation ceaſes. But, on the contrary, in the fucus, the air acting only on the ſurface of the plant, the liquid which it contains cannot undergo the proceſs of evaporation, without coming to the ſurface. The attraction of the matter of the plant tends to promote this motion; for as the liquid is equally diffuſed through its whole maſs, it riſes conſtantly to the ſurface, in proportion as this ſurface is dried by the ſurrounding air; and it would appear that this is the proceſs in the deſiccation of all thick and maſſy bodies. Now, the ſaline matter which, in the preſent caſe, is in the ſtate of efflorescence, having the ſame power of attraction on the liquid, the rudiments of each filament conſtitute, at the inſtant of their formation, part of the whole maſs or body of the plant. They participate, therefore, of the ſame degree of moiſture as that of the plant, and it is on their ſurface that the evaporation and cryſtallization of ſaline matter chiefly take place.

The mechaniſm of the dendritical or arboreſcent form of ſaline bodies ſeems to be in this way capable of explanation. The whole ſaline maſs, which extends to the edges of the veſſel, and even redeſcends externally, is conſtantly in the humid ſtate, as long as any liquid remains in the veſſel. It may be ſuppoſed, that

Phenomena.

that the matter of the ſides of the veſſel determines, by its attraction, the external circle of the ſurface of the liquid to riſe above the ſurface; a phenomenon which is ſufficiently obvious, but eſpecially in narrow veſſels. This portion of liquid, which is more completely ſubjected to evaporation, gives origin to a circle of ſaline matter, which appears thus raiſed above the ſurface of the liquid, and which, being the firſt rudiments of the dendrites, contributes afterwards to its increaſe, in the way which has been already explained. Thus the vegetation of ſalts bears a ſtriking reſemblance to the proceſs of efflorescence, or the formation of the downy matter on the ſurface of the fucus.

22 Efflorescence.

There is yet another kind of cryſtallization which ſeems to depend on the ſame cauſe. This is the ſaline efflorescence, which occurs in different places on the ſurface of the globe, and is frequently in ſuch quantity as to become an important object of manufacture. Without extending our obſervations to the efflorescence of ſoda on the ſurface of the ſoil in Egypt, or that of nitre in Aſiatic countries, we may refer to the production of muriate of ſoda, or common ſalt, in different parts of Europe, in thoſe places which are covered with the waters of the ocean during high tides. The waters of the ſea with which the ſandy ſhores are twice periodically moiſtened in the courſe of a month, are far diſtant from the point of ſaturation which determines cryſtallization. They rarely contain more than 3 parts of ſalt in 100; and the ſand at the degree of moiſture, in which it is left by the ſea, is not impregnated with a ſufficient quantity of ſaline matter to be worthy the labour of manufacturing; but, during the interval between the tides, theſe circumſtances are greatly changed. The dry air of ſummer, by evaporating the moiſture on the ſurface, allows the matter of the ſand to attract towards the ſurface a ſimilar portion of water, which was in the lower part of the ſoil, and which always tends to diffuſe itſelf equally through the whole maſs. This liquid, carrying with it the ſalt which it holds in ſolution, increaſes the quantity of ſaline matter which exiſts on the ſurface. This proceſs continues without interruption, as long as there is no fall of rain. It reaches at laſt a certain point, at which the water ſubjected to evaporation is ſaturated with the ſalt; and this proceſs cannot proceed farther without the depoſition of cryſtals of the ſalt, which diſcover themſelves by their ſhining appearance. After ſome days, the ſand on the ſurface is collected, and about ſix times the quantity of ſaline matter is found in the ſame proportion of ſand, when it was firſt moiſtened by the ſea water (A).

23 Cruſt on the bottom of veſſels.

Another phenomenon which takes place during the proceſs of artificial evaporation, ſhould not paſs unnoticed. This is the formation of a ſaline cruſt at the bottom of the veſſels in which the proceſs is conducted. This ſeems to be the immediate effect of ebullition; for when the temperature of the liquid is kept under the boiling point, no ſuch effect is produced. This cruſt is compoſed of all the ſaline ſubſtances which are held in ſolution in the liquid; and even theſe ſubſtances are found combined in the ſame proportion in which they actually exiſt in the ſolution. Whatever be the attraction of theſe ſubſtances for water, or even if they poſſeſs a deliqueſcent property, they are not leſs diſpoſed to enter into combination during the formation of the ſolid cruſt on the bottom of veſſels in which the proceſs of evaporation is conducted with a temperature equal to the boiling point. A ſlight degree of attention will ſatisfy us, that the formation of this cruſt depends on the particular circumſtances of the evaporation in the caſe of ebullition. It muſt be obvious, that in this caſe the ſtratum of liquid which is in immediate contact with the veſſel, receives the caloric which penetrates its ſides, is charged with it beyond its capacity, changes its ſtate, and aſſumes the gaſeous form, and by this change having entirely loſt its ſolvent power, whatever ſaline matter is held in ſolution muſt aſſume the ſolid ſtate in contact with the ſides of the veſſel, and conſequently adhere to it. Thus it happens, according to a very judicious obſervation, that in different ſaline ſolutions, the reſults of which have been compared, theſe ſcales or cruſts are more abundant in proportion as the degree of ſaturation is leſs *.

* *Jour. de Phyſ.* lviii. 124.

To theſe obſervations we ſhall only add a ſhort account of the phenomena of cryſtallization, as they were obſerved with the aſſiſtance of a microſcope, by Mr Baker, and of the appearances of different ſaline bodies which he hath deſcribed. This will not afford any ſcientific information to the philoſopher, but it may perhaps be the ſource of amuſement to ſome of our readers, and the means, by a minute obſervation of the phenomena, of leading to ſome uſeful diſcoveries. The method which he followed in conducting theſe experiments, is the following. The ſubſtance to be examined is to be diſſolved in a quantity of pure water, ſo as to be completely ſaturated. For ſalts of eaſy ſolubility, cold water may be employed; but for ſalts which are diſſolved with more difficulty, hot or boiling water may be found neceſſary. In preparing the ſolution, the ſame rule may be obſerved as in preparing ſolutions for obtaining large cryſtals, which has been given in the former part of this ſection. The ſolution ſhould be allowed to remain at reſt for ſome hours, ſo that the firſt cryſtallization, if too much ſaline matter has been added to the liquid, may be allowed to take place. Thus the ſolution will be always of the ſame ſtrength, and the ſame appearances may be uniformly expected.

24 Microſcopical cryſtals.

When the ſolution is thus prepared, a drop of it may be taken up with the point of a quill, cut in the form of a pen, and placed on a flat ſlip of glaſs, ſpreading it on the glaſs with the quill till the liquid is ſo ſhallow as to riſe very little above its ſurface. It is then

(A) Common ſalt is manufactured in this way on the ſandy ſhores of the Solway Frith, in Annandale in Scotland. Theſe flat ſhores are covered with the waters of the ocean during ſpring tides; and in the interval of theſe tides the evaporation by the heat of the ſun and the action of the air is ſo conſiderable, as to leave the ſand impregnated with a quantity of ſalt, ſufficient to defray the expence and trouble of manufacturing it by filtration and boiling.

Phenomena.

then to be held over the clear part of a moderate fire, or the flame of a candle, and ſuch a degree of heat applied as is found from experience to produce the neceſſary evaporation. This will be known by obſerving the formation of ſaline particles at the edges of the drop of fluid. The microſcope being previouſly adjuſted, and a magnifier of a moderate power being fitted on, the ſlip of glaſs is to be placed immediately under the eye, and brought exactly to the focus of the magnifier. After running over the whole drop, the attention is to be directed to that ſide on which the proceſs of cryſtallization firſt commences, and proceeds from the circumference towards the centre. The motion is at firſt ſlow, if too much heat has not been applied, but becomes quicker as the evaporation continues. In ſome cryſtallizations the configurations are produced towards the end of the proceſs with great rapidity, and exhibit an elegance, order, and regularity, which imagination only can conceive. When this rapid action has once begun, the eye muſt be kept fixed on the object, till the whole proceſs is completed, becauſe new forms appear, quite different from thoſe which were firſt produced, and which have been properly aſcribed to a quantity of different ſalts mixed with the ſubſtance to be examined, when the precaution has not been uſed of having it in a ſtate of purity. When the configurations are fully formed, and the water evaporated, ſuch ſalts as are deliqueſcent, it is ſcarcely neceſſary to obſerve, are ſoon deſtroyed by attracting the moiſture from the air; but thoſe which are more permanent, and not diſpoſed either to deliqueſce or to be deprived of their water of cryſtallization, may be preſerved, by being encloſed between glaſſes, for a long time, as amuſing objects for the microſcope. To make the liquid ſpread readily on the glaſs, the ſurface of it may be moiſtened with a little of it, and rubbed with the finger. In this way, the repulſion which ſometimes is obſerved between the liquid and the glaſs is completely removed. During the evaporation, the object-glaſs of the microſcope is ſometimes obſcured by the condenſation of the water from the ſaline ſolution on the ſlip of glaſs, and the viſion is thus rendered indiſtinct. When this happens, if the circumſtance be recollected, the glaſs muſt be wiped and replaced. In examinations of ſaline ſolutions, and in obſerving the progreſs of cryſtallization, Mr Baker recommends the light of a candle in preference to the light of day, which latter being of a whiter colour and nearly the ſame with the tranſparent cryſtals, they are leſs diſtinctly ſeen than with the brown light of a candle.

Plate CLXV.

Fig. 1. is a repreſentation of the microſcopical cryſtals of *nitre* or *ſaltpetre*. They begin to ſhoot out from the edges with very moderate heat into flat figures of different lengths, with ſtraight parallel ſides, and exceedingly tranſparent. They appear in different ſtates of their progreſs at the letters, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, and *e*; *a* exhibits the appearance when they firſt begin to form. When a number of cryſtals have made their appearance they ſometimes diſſolve under the eye, and diſappear entirely; but, by continuing to watch the changes which go on, the proceſs is frequently obſerved to recommence, and new ſhoots puſh out. The firſt cryſtals ſometimes become larger without undergoing any change of figure; and ſometimes form in the way which is repreſented in the figure. When the heat is too great, as might be expected, the proceſs goes on with great rapidity, and numerous ramifications are formed. This ariſes no doubt from the confuſed cryſtallization.

Fig. 2. ſhews the microſcopical cryſtals of *blue vitriol* (ſulphate of copper), which appear firſt round the edges, ſhort at the beginning, but gradually increaſing, as they are repreſented at the letters *a*, *b*, *c*, which denote their difference of form, and the progreſs of their growth. Theſe cryſtals, which are tranſparent, aſſume a ſolid regular form, and reflect the light from their poliſhed ſides and angles. As the evaporation proceeds, a great number of filaments as fine as hairs make their appearance, ſome croſſing each other, as at *d*; and others exhibiting a ſtellated form with many radiations, as at *e e*. The cryſtallization of this ſalt proceeds ſlowly. Towards the end of the proceſs the regular cryſtals appear, and are finely branched as at *f*.

Fig. 3. is a view of the cryſtals of diſtilled verdigriſe, or acetate of copper. When it is immediately applied to the microſcope, the regular figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, make their appearance; but if the ſolution is allowed to remain at reſt for a few hours, and a drop of it is then heated on a ſlip of glaſs till it begins to concrete about the ſides, ſharp-pointed ſolid figures are formed, and ſhoot forwards. Theſe cryſtals are often ſtriated obliquely, frequently ariſe in cluſters, or ſhoot from a centre. Sometimes, towards the end of the proceſs, and in the middle of the drop, they aſſume a foliated form, and have the appearance of four leaves of fern united by their ſtems.

Fig. 4. ſhews the microſcopical cryſtals of alum. Theſe are more or leſs perfect according to the ſtrength of the ſolution, and the temperature employed. To prepare this ſalt for examination, the ſaturated ſolution may remain for ſome days. In that time cryſtals will form, and if what remains liquid ſhould be found too weak, heat may be applied, which will again diſſolve the cryſtals.

In fig. 5. is a view of the cryſtals of borax, or the ſubborate of ſoda. The drop of this ſolution ſhould not be held too long over the fire, as it hardens on the ſlip of glaſs, and no cryſtals appear. A briſk heat for about a ſecond is recommended as the beſt method. It is then applied to the microſcope, and the cryſtals will form as in the figure.

Fig. 6. ſhews the microſcopical cryſtals of ſal ammoniac, or muriate of ammonia. Great numbers of thick, ſharp, and broad ſpiculæ ſhoot from the edges, and from their ſides are protruded others of the ſame form, which are parallel to each other, but perpendicular to the main ſtem. The formation of theſe cryſtals, unleſs the heat employed be very moderate, is very rapid.

Fig. 7. exhibits the appearance of the cryſtals of acetate of lead (ſugar of lead). After a little of this ſalt is diſſolved in hot water, and allowed to remain at reſt for a ſhort time, it is fit for being examined with the microſcope. A drop of it put on a ſlip of glaſs, and heat being applied, will be ſeen forming round the edge, a regular border of a clear and tranſparent ſubſtance, which with a ſtrong heat runs over the whole of the drop, and hardens on the glaſs; but when the heat employed is moderate, bundles of lines, arranged

Structure of Crystals.

ranged in a radiated form, make their appearance. They arise from points in the interior edge of the border, and spread out nearly at equal distances from each other, in all directions.

In fig. 8. are represented the crystals of Glauber's salt (sulphate of soda), which assumes the form of ramifications, proceeding from the side of the drop, like the growth of minute plants. Other appearances present themselves in different periods of the process. It is indeed but of short duration, for when the crystallization has once begun, it goes on with great rapidity.

The examples which we have now given will, we apprehend, be sufficient to enable those who are curious in microscopical observations, to prosecute researches of this kind. Many more might have been given from the same author; but as experiments on crystallization, conducted in this way, are little susceptible of accuracy or precision, we wish to avoid swelling out the article without conveying some useful information. Our chemical readers will readily perceive, that very different appearances will be the result of a slower or more rapid crystallization, greater or less purity of the salt, and different degrees of strength of the solution. In compound bodies, for instance, modifications in the form of the crystals are produced by a difference in the proportion of the constituent parts. The crystals of alum, which is a triple salt, viz. a sulphate of alumina and potash, are in the form of octahedrons. The addition of a quantity of alumina changes the form of the crystals to that of cubes; and if a cubic crystal of alum be introduced into a solution, the proportions of which afford octahedral crystals, the cubic crystal will assume the form of an octahedron, and the octahedral crystal put into a solution which affords cubic crystals, passes into that of the cube. The nature of the solvent also, in which the crystallization takes place, produces certain deviations in the form of the crystals. The solution of common salt in water affords cubical crystals, but in urine it crystallizes in the form of octahedrons. Muriate of ammonia dissolved in water, crystallizes in the form of an octahedron, but in urine it affords crystals in the form of cubes. But we now proceed to consider the theory of the structure of crystals, which will be the subject of the next section.

Sect. II. *Of the Theory of the Structure of Crystals.*

In the former section we have given a view of the phenomena of crystallization. The regular forms which bodies assume by means of this process, have occupied no small share of the attention of naturalists and chemical philosophers. The researches and investigations of Bergman, Romé de L'Isle, and Hauy, have been particularly directed this way. Bergman, in his 12th Dissertation*, treats of the variety of the forms of crystals, of the various figures derived from the spathaceous form, of the structure of the most minute parts, and of the different modes in which crystals are generated. Romé de L'Isle has arranged crystals into six species, derived from the varieties of form. 1. Tetrahedron. 2. Cube. 3. Octahedron. 4. Parallelopiped. 5. Rhomboidal octahedron. 6. Dodecahedron. But the ingenious researches of Hauy on this subject have been followed by the completest and most successful investigation of the theory of the structure of crystals which has yet appeared. Of this theory, an account of which the reader will find in the *Annales de Chimie* †, and in his *Traité de Mineralogie* ‡, we now propose to give a comprehensive view.

* *Physic. & Chemic. Essays.*

† Vol. xvii.

‡ Vol. i.

This theory, the author observes, cannot be fully understood without the aid of analytical calculations. For beside the convenience of analysis, including in the same formula a great number of different problems, it is by means of it alone, that the theory can assume the character of absolute certainty in arriving at the same results which are obtained by observation. But notwithstanding these considerations, it seemed to be better for those who had not a competent knowledge of the science of calculation to prefer the method of simple reasoning, but accompanied with geometrical figures, which are so useful in giving a distinct conception of the arrangement of the small solids which combine together to form a crystal. This arrangement is denominated *structure*, in opposition to the term *organization*, which expresses the more complicated mechanism of vegetables and animals. This method may perhaps be less direct, and less precise and expeditious, and it may require attention to those details which are passed over in the analytical method to reach its object more speedily; it has, however, this advantage, that the mind by its means perceives better the connexion of the different parts under consideration, and can more readily comprehend the facts with which it is furnished.

I. Mechanical Division of Crystals.

The same mineral substance, it is known, is susceptible of several different forms, well defined, some of which do not appear, at first sight, to have any common point of resemblance to indicate their relation. If, for instance, we compare the regular hexahedral prism of calcareous spar with the rhomboid of the same mineral (B), whose large angle is about $101\frac{10}{4}°$, we

(B) The name of *rhomboid* is given by the author to a parallelopiped *a*, *e* (fig. 12.) terminated by six equal and similar rhombuses. In every rhomboid, two of the solid angles, such as *a*, *e* opposed to each other, are formed by the junction of three equal plane angles; each of the six solid angles is formed by a plane angle equal to each of the three preceding, and by two other angles of a different measure, but equal to each other. The points *a e* are the summits, the line *a e* is the axis. In any one of the rhombuses *a b*, *d f*, which compose the surface, the angle *a*, contiguous to the summit, is called the superior angle; the angle *d* the inferior angle; and the angles *b* and *f* are the lateral angles. The sides *a b*, *a f* are the superior edges, and the sides *b d*, *d f* the inferior edges: *b f* is the horizontal diagonal, and *a d*, the oblique diagonal. The rhomboid is obtuse or acute, according as the angles of the summits are obtuse or acute. The cube is the limit of the rhomboids.

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we ſhould be led to believe that each of theſe two forms is quite diſtinct from the other. But this point of relation, which eſcapes notice, when we conſider only the external form, becomes ſenſible when we attend to the intimate mechaniſm of the ſtructure. Here the author gives a hiſtorical view of the progreſs of his reſearches, and traces the ſteps which led him to the diſcovery of what became as it were the key of his whole theory.

He had in his hand a hexahedral priſm of calcareous ſpar, ſimilar to that mentioned above, and which had been detached from a group of the ſame cryſtals. The fracture preſented a very ſmooth ſurface, ſituated obliquely, like the trapezium *p ſ u t* (fig. 9.), and which had an angle of 135°, both with the remainder *a b c s p h* of the baſe, and with the remainder *i u e f* of the plane *i n e f*. Obſerving that the cuneiform ſegment *p s u t i n* which this fracture ſeparated from the cryſtal, had for its vertex one of the edges of the baſe, namely the edge *i n*, he attempted to ſeparate a ſecond ſegment in that part to which the contiguous edge *c n* belonged. For this purpoſe he employed the blade of a knife, directed with the ſame degree of obliquity as the trapezium *p ſ u t* and aided by the ſtroke of a hammer. This attempt failed; but having tried the ſame operation towards the next edge *b c*, a new trapezium ſimilar to the firſt came into view. The fourth edge *a b* reſiſted the inſtrument, but the following, *a h*, readily yielded to mechanical diviſion, and preſented a third trapezium, having as fine a poliſh as the other two. The ſixth edge *i h*, it is ſcarcely neceſſary to obſerve, could not be divided, more than the fourth and the ſecond.

Proceeding then to the inferior baſe *d e f g k r*, it was ſoon found that the edges of this baſe, which admitted of diviſions ſimilar to the preceding, were not the edges *e f*, *d r*, *g k*, which correſponded to thoſe which could be divided towards the upper part, but the intermediate edges *d e*, *v y*, *g f*. The trapezium *l q y v* ſhews the ſection made below the edge *k r*. This ſection is obviouſly parallel to that of the trapezium *p ſ u t*; and the four other ſections are in like manner parallel, two and two. Now, theſe different ſections being in the direction of the natural joints of the laminæ, it was eaſy to obtain others parallel to each of them, but it was found impoſſible to divide the cryſtal in any other direction. Following this mechanical diviſion according to the parallelifm ſtated above, new ſections were obtained, always nearer to the axis of the priſm; and when the ſections were carried ſo far as to make the remainder of the two baſes diſappear, the priſm was transformed into a ſolid OX (fig. 10.) terminated by 12 pentagons, parallel two to two, of which thoſe of the extremities, namely, SAOIR, GIODE, BAODC, on the one ſide, and KNPQF, MNPXU, ZQPXY, on the other, were the reſults of the mechanical diviſion, and had their common vertices O, P, ſituated in the centres of the baſes of the priſm, fig. 9. The ſix lateral pentagons RSUXY, ZYRIG, &c. (fig. 10.) were the remainders of the planes of the ſame priſm.

In proportion as the ſections were multiplied, always parallel to the preceding, the lateral pentagons diminiſhed in height, and at a certain term the points R, G being confounded with the points Y, Z, the points S, R with the points U, Y, &c. there remained no more of theſe pentagons, but the triangles YIZ, UXY, &c. (fig. 11.) Beyond that term the ſections coming to paſs over the ſurface of theſe triangles, diminiſhed gradually in extent, till at laſt the ſame triangles were loſt, and then the ſolid obtained from the hexahedral priſm, appeared to be a rhomboid *a e* (fig. 12.) exactly ſimilar to that which is commonly denominated *Iceland ſpar*.

So unexpected a reſult led the ingenious author to the examination of other calcareous cryſtals in a ſimilar manner, all of which yielded to mechanical diviſion in ſuch a way, as, when all the external ſurfaces had diſappeared, the nucleus which remained was always a rhomboid, of the ſame form as the firſt. All that was neceſſary was to diſcover the direction of the ſections which conducted to the central rhomboid.

To extract, for inſtance, this rhomboid from the ſpar which is uſually denominated *lenticular*, and which is itſelf a much more obtuſe rhomboid, having its large plane angle equal to 114° 18′ 56″, it was neceſſary to begin with the two vertices, and to make the ſections paſs through the ſmall diagonals of the faces. But if it is wiſhed, on the contrary, to get at the nucleus of the rhomboidal ſpar with acute vertices, the direction of the ſections of the planes muſt be parallel to the edges contiguous to the ſummits, and in ſuch a manner that each of them ſhall be equally inclined to the faces which it cuts.

Theſe reſults are the more worthy of attention, as it would ſeem at firſt, that in the proceſs of cryſtallization, after the rhomboid has been once adopted with regard to a determined ſpecies of mineral, it ought always to re-produce it with the ſame angles. But the paradox which ariſes from this diverſity of appearance, is explained by the double uſe of the rhomboidal form, which ſerves here to diſguiſe itſelf, and conceals fixed and conſtant characters under a variable external appearance.

If we take a cryſtal of a different nature, ſuch as a cube of *fluor ſpar*, the nucleus will have a different form. This will be, in the preſent caſe, an octahedron, which we ſhall obtain by taking off the eight ſolid angles of the cube. Heavy ſpar will produce for a nucleus a right priſm with rhomboidal baſes; feld ſpar, an oblique-angled parallelopiped, but not rhomboidal; apatite or beryl, a right ſix-ſided priſm; the adamantine ſpar a rhomboid, a little acute; blende, a dodecahedron, with rhomboidal planes; iron of the iſland of Elba, a cube, &c.; and each of theſe forms will be conſtant in relation to the whole ſpecies, ſo that its angles will undergo no variation which is appreciable: and if we attempt to divide the cryſtal in any other direction, we ſhall not be able to find any joint; we ſhall only obtain indeterminate fragments; it will rather be broken than divided.

Theſe ſolids inſcribed each in all the cryſtals of the ſame ſpecies, ought to be regarded as the true primitive forms on which all the other forms depend. All minerals, it is true, are not ſuſceptible of mechanical diviſion, but the number is greater than what appeared at firſt ſight; and with regard to thoſe cryſtals in which the attempts to diſcover the natural joints have failed, it has been remarked that their ſurface ſtriated in a certain direction, or the relation of their different forms,

forms, among those which belong to the same substance, frequently presented indications of their structure, and by reasoning from their analogy with other divisible crystals, we may determine this structure, at least with a good deal of probability.

All deviations from the primitive form are called by Hauy, *secondary forms*. The number of these forms has certain limits, which can be determined by theory, according to the laws which regulate the structure of crystals.

The solid of the primitive form, which is obtained by means of the operation described above, may be farther subdivided in a direction parallel to its different faces. All the surrounding matter is equally divisible by sections parallel to the faces of the primitive form. Hence it follows, that the parts detached by the aid of all these sections are similar, and only differ in their volume, which continually decreases in proportion to the extent of the division. Those, however, must be excepted, which are near to the faces of the secondary solid; for these faces not being parallel to those of the primitive form, the fragments which have one of their facets taken in the same faces, cannot exactly resemble those which are detached towards the middle of the crystal. For instance, the fragments of the hexahedral prism (fig. 9.), whose external facets make part of the bases, or of the planes, have not, in this respect, the same figure with those which are situated nearer to the centre, all of whose facets are parallel to the sections *p s u t*, *l q y v*; but the difficulty which presents itself at first sight, in consequence of that diversity, is removed by the help of the theory, and the whole are reduced to a unity of form.

But the division of the crystal into small, similar solids, has a certain limit, beyond which we should arrive at particles so small, that they are no longer divisible, without destroying the nature of the substance, or decomposing it. At this term, the investigation stops; and to the small solids, which we might insulate if our organs and instruments were sufficiently delicate. Hauy has given the name of *integrant* or *integral molecules*. He thinks it probable, that these molecules are those which were suspended in the fluid in which the crystallization took place. In general it may be observed that, with the aid of these molecules, the theory reduces to simple laws the different forms of crystals, and arrives at results which exactly represent those of nature.

When the nucleus is a parallelopiped, that is, a solid having six parallel faces, two to two, like the cube, the rhomboid, &c. and this solid admits of no other divisions than those which are made in the direction of its faces; it is obvious that the molecules which result from the subdivision, whether of the nucleus, or of the surrounding matter, are similar to this nucleus. In other cases, the form of the molecules is different from that of the nucleus. There are, besides, other crystals which afford, by means of mechanical division, particles of different figures combined together through the whole extent of these crystals. The ingenious author of the theory has thrown out some conjectures on the manner of resolving the difficulty which these kinds of mixed structures present; and at any rate he observes that it does not affect the stability of the theory,

II. Laws of Decrement.

1. Decrements at the Edges.

The primitive form, and that of the integrant molecules, being determined, after the dissection of the crystals, we must investigate the laws according to which these molecules were combined, to produce around the primitive form those kind of coverings which terminated so regularly, and from which resulted polyhedra so different from each other, although originally of the same substance. Now, such is the mechanism of the structure subject to these laws, that all the parts of the secondary crystal superadded to the nucleus, are formed of laminæ, which decrease regularly by subtractions of one or more ranges of integral molecules, so that theory determines the number of these rows, and by a necessary consequence the exact form of the secondary crystal.

To have a distinct idea of these laws, let us take a very simple and elementary example. Conceive EP (fig. 13.) to represent a dodecahedron whose faces are equal and similar rhombuses, and that this dodecahedron is a secondary form, having a cube for its nucleus or primitive form. By the inspection of fig. 14. the position of this cube in the crystal may be easily conceived. The small diagonals DC, CG, GF, FD of the four faces of the dodecahedron, being united round the same solid angle, form a square CDFG. Now there are six solid angles, composed of the four planes, namely the angles L, O, E, N, R, P (fig. 13.), and consequently, if sections are made to pass through the small diagonals of the faces which compose the solid angles, six squares will be successively uncovered. These squares will be the faces of the primitive cube, of which three are represented at fig. 14. namely CDFG, ABCD, BCGH.

This cube would evidently be an assemblage of cubic integral molecules, and it would be necessary that each of the pyramids, such as LDCGF (fig. 14.), which rest on the faces, should be itself composed of cubes equal to each other, and to those which form the nucleus. To have a more distinct conception of this arrangement, let us compose an artificial dodecahedron of a certain number of small cubes, the arrangement of which will be an imitation of the process of nature in disposing the molecules in the formation of the dodecahedron.

Let ABGF (fig. 15.) be a cube composed of 729 small cubes equal to each other, in which case each face of the whole cube will include 81 squares, that is, 9 on each side, which will be the external faces of as many partial cubes representing the molecules. This cube will be the nucleus of the dodecahedron which is to be constructed. On one of the faces, as ABCD, of the cube apply a square lamina, composed of cubes equal to those which form the nucleus, but having towards each a row of cubes less than if it were on a level with the contiguous faces BCGH, DCGF, &c. This lamina will be composed of 49 cubes, that is, 7 on each side, so that if the inferior base be *o n f g* (fig. 16.) this base will fall exactly on the square marked with the same letters in fig. 15. Above this first lamina let a second be applied, composed of 25 cubes, 5 on each side, so that if *l m p u* (fig. 17.) represent

its inferior baſe, this baſe will correſpond exactly with the ſquare marked with the ſame letters in fig. 15. If in like manner a third lamina be applied to the ſecond, which is compoſed only of 9 cubes, that is, 3 on each ſide, ſo that *v x y z* (fig. 18.) being the inferior baſe, ſhall correſpond with the ſquare marked with the ſame letters in fig. 15.; and if on the middle ſquare *r* of the preceding lamina the ſmall cube *r* (fig. 19.) be placed, this will repreſent the laſt lamina.

When this operation is completed, it will appear that there is formed on the face ABCD (fig. 15.) a four-ſided pyramid, of which this face is the baſe, and the cube *r* (fig. 19.) is the ſummit. And if the ſame operation be continued on the other five ſides of the cube, we ſhall have ſix four-ſided pyramids, reſting on the ſix faces of the nucleus, which is enveloped with them on all ſides. But as the different rows of laminæ compoſing theſe pyramids project beyond each other for a certain way, as appears on fig. 20. where the parts raiſed above the planes BCD, BCG repreſent the two pyramids which reſt on the faces ABCD, BCGH, (fig. 15.) the faces of the pyramids will not form continued planes; for they will be alternately re-entering and ſalient, in ſome meaſure imitating a ſtair with four ſides.

Let us now ſuppoſe that the nucleus is compoſed of a number of almoſt imperceptible cubes incomparably greater, and that the laminæ applied on the different faces, which may be called the laminæ of ſuperpoſition, continue to increaſe towards their four edges by ſubtractions of one range of cubes equal to thoſe of the nucleus, the number of theſe laminæ will be incomparably greater than in the preceding hypotheſis; and at the ſame time the cavities or furrows which they form, as they alternately become ſalient or re-entering, will be almoſt imperceptible; and indeed it might be ſuppoſed that the cubes of which the cryſtal is compoſed are ſo ſmall as to become quite imperceptible to our ſenſes, and the faces of the pyramids to be perfectly ſmooth.

Now DCBE (fig. 20.) being the pyramid which reſts on the face ABCD (fig. 15.), and CBOG (fig. 20.) the pyramid applied to the face BCGH (fig. 15.), if we conſider that every thing is uniform from E to O (fig. 20.) in the manner in which the laminæ of ſuperpoſition mutually project beyond each other, we may readily conceive that the face CEB of the firſt pyramid ought to be exactly in the ſame plane as the face COB of the contiguous pyramid, ſo that the union of theſe two faces ſhould form a rhombus ECOB. But we have, for the 6 pyramids, 24 triangles ſimilar to CEB, which conſequently will be reduced to 12 rhombuſes, from which reſults a dodecahedron ſimilar to what is repreſented in fig. 13. and 14.

The cube, before it arrives at the form of the dodecahedron, paſſes through a multitude of intermediate modifications, of which one is ſhown at fig. 21. The ſquares *p a e o*, *k l q u*, *m n t s*, &c. correſpond to the ſquares ABCD, DCGF, CBHG, &c. (fig. 14.), and form the ſuperior baſis of as many pyramids, incomplete from the deficiency of the laminæ with which they ought to terminate. The rhombuſes EDLC, ECOB (fig. 13.), by a neceſſary conſequence, are reduced to ſimple hexagons *a e* C *l k* D, *e o* B *n m* C (fig. 21.), and the ſurface of the ſecondary cryſtal is compoſed of 12 of theſe hexagons and 6 ſquares. This is the caſe with the boracic ſpar (the borate of magneſia and lime), with the exception of ſome facets which ſurmount the ſolid angles, and which depend on a different law of decrement.

If the diminution of the laminæ of ſuperpoſition proceeded in a more rapid ratio; for example, if each lamina had had on its circumference, two, three, or four rows of cubes leſs than the inferior lamina, the pyramids produced on the nucleus by this diminution being more depreſſed, and their contiguous faces being no longer on a level, the ſurface of the ſecondary ſolid would have been compoſed of 24 iſoſceles triangles, all inclined to each other. *Decrement on the edges*, is that which takes place parallel to the edges of the nucleus, and it ought to be diſtinguſhed from another kind of decreaſe to be afterwards mentioned.

2. Examples of Decreaſe on the Edges.

Martial Pyrites, or *Dodecahedral Sulphuret of Iron.*

Geometric Character.—Inclination of any one of the pentagons, as DPRFS (fig. 27.), to the pentagon CPRGL, which has the ſame baſe PR, 126° 56′ 8″. Angles of the pentagon CPRGL, L = 121° 35′ 17″; C or G = 106° 35′ 57″ 30‴; P or R = 102° 36′ 19″.

Let us conceive again a cubic nucleus, whoſe different edges are lines of departure to the ſame number of decrements which take place at the ſame time in two different ways; that is, by the ſubtraction of two rows parallel to the edges AB, CD (fig. 15.), and of one row parallel to the edges, AB, BC. Let it be ſuppoſed alſo that each lamina being only equal in thickneſs to a ſmall cube of the ſide AB and CD, is on the contrary equal to double the thickneſs of the ſide AD and BC. Fig. 22. repreſents this diſpoſition with regard to the decrements which proceed from the lines DC, BC, (fig. 15.). It is plain that on account of the more rapid decreaſe in proceeding from DC or AB, than from BC or AD, the faces produced in the firſt caſe will be more inclined to the plane ABCD, while the faces produced in the ſecond will remain as it were behind, ſo that the pyramid will no longer be terminated by a ſingle cube E, as in fig. 20. which on account of its minuteneſs ſeems to be only a point, but by the row of cubes MNST (fig. 22.) which, ſuppoſing theſe cubes to be infinitely ſmall, will preſent the appearance of a ſimple ridge. By a neceſſary conſequence, the pyramid will have for its faces two trapeziums, ſuch as DMNC, reſulting from the firſt decrement, and two iſoſceles triangles, ſuch as CNB, which will be the effect of the ſecond decrement (c).

Let

(c) Here the face which correſponds to ABCD (fig. 15.) has 25 ſquares on each ſide, as may be ſeen in fig. 22. The ſtructure of this pyramid may be imitated artificially, by regulating the arrangement and number of the cubes repreſented in the ſame figure.

Structure of Crystals.

Let us suppose farther, that with regard to the laminæ of superposition, which arise on the face BCGH (fig. 15.), the decrements follow the same laws, but in cross directions; in such a way that the more rapid of the two may take place in proceeding from BC, or from GH, towards the vertex of the pyramid, and the slower decrement in proceeding from CG, or BH, towards the same vertex. The pyramid which results from these decrements will be placed in a direction opposite to that which rests on ABCD, and will have the position represented at fig. 25. where the edge KL, which terminates the pyramid, instead of being parallel to CD, like the edge MN, (fig. 22. and 23.) is on the contrary parallel to BC. We shall then conceive what is to be done, that the pyramid which will rest on DC, GF (fig. 15.) may be turned as it is represented in fig. 24. and may have its terminating edge PR parallel to CG (fig. 15.). The pyramids which will rest on three other faces of the cube, will stand like that which arises on the opposite face.

But as the decrements which produce the triangle CNB (fig. 23.) make a continuity with those from which results the trapezium CBKL (fig. 25.), these two figures will be in the same plane, and will form a pentagon CNBKL (fig. 26.). For the same reason the triangle DPC (fig. 24.) will be on a level with the trapezium DMNC (fig. 23.); and by applying the same reasoning to the other pyramids, it will be conceived that the six pyramids having for their whole faces 12 trapeziums and 12 triangles, the surface of the secondary solid will be composed of 12 pentagons, which will correspond to the 12 rhombuses of fig. 13. but with this difference, that they will have other inclinations. This solid is represented at fig. 27. and with its cubic nucleus at fig. 28. where it may be seen how to proceed in the extraction of this nucleus. If, for example, a section be made passing through the points D, C, G, F, the pyramid which rests on the face DCGF of the nucleus will be detached, and by this section the latter will be uncovered.

Among the crystals belonging to the sulphuret of iron, or the arseniate of cobalt, there is found a dodecahedron, having the faces equal and similar pentagons, and having for its nucleus a cube in the position above described. But there are an infinite number of possible dodecahedra, which may have for faces equal and similar pentagons, and will differ from each other by the respective inclinations of their faces. Of all these dodecahedra, the one whose structure would be subjected to these laws, gives 126° 56′ 8″, as the angle formed by the inclination of any two of its faces DPRFS, CPRGL (fig. 27.) at the edge of junction PR, as might be shewn by calculation. Some mineralogists, overlooking the use of geometry in the consideration of crystals, have confounded the dodecahedron of pyrites with the same regular geometrical figure in which all the sides and angles of each pentagon are equal; but there is a striking difference between these two dodecahedra. The regular dodecahedron gives only 116° 33′ 54″, as the inclination of its respective pentagons, making a difference of nearly 11½° between it and the other. And indeed the regular dodecahedron cannot be produced by any law of decrement whatever, however compound it may be supposed, in regard to a cubic nucleus; and, as may be demonstrated generally, for a nucleus of any form. There are then two kinds of dodecahedra, one of whose faces are rhombuses, and another whose faces are pentagons, produced upon a cubical nucleus, in consequence of two simple and regular laws of decrement, in a direction parallel to the edges of the nucleus. By varying these laws in different other ways, a multitude of new polyhedra, having the same nucleus may be constructed.

Obtuse or Lenticular Calcareous Spar, (fig. 30.).

Geometric Character. Inclination of the rhombus *n a d′ b′*, to the rhombus *a i f′ d′*, 134° 25′ 36″. Angles of the rhombus *n a d b′*; *a* or *b′* = 114° 18′ 56″; *n* or *d′* = 65° 41′ 4″.

This variety arises from a decrement by a single row on both sides of the edges *a b*, *a g*, *a f* (fig. 31.) and *e o*, *e d*, *e x*, contiguous to the summits *a*, *e*, of the nucleus. An idea may be formed of its structure, by comparing it with that of the dodecahedron whose planes form rhombuses (fig. 13. and 20.), originating from the cube, (fig. 15.); and by supposing that the laminæ, instead of decreasing at the same time on all the edges, decrease only to those contiguous, three by three, to the angle C and its opposite. The faces formed in that case will be reduced to six, which, by prolonging themselves, according to the law of continuity, so as to intersect each other, will compose the surface of a rhomboid analogous to the one which we are now treating of, excepting that it will have other angles, on account of the cubical form of its integral molecule.

From this it may be conceived, that the diagonals drawn from *a* to *b′* (fig. 30.), from *a* to *g′*, from *a* to *f′*, &c. on the secondary rhomboid, will be confounded with the edges *a b*, *a g*, *a f*, (fig. 31.) of the nucleus, which serve as lines of departure for the decrements: and hence to extract this nucleus, the planes of the sections must pass along these diagonals, as has been already remarked.

Common Topaz, (fig. 33.).

Geometric Character.—The inclination of the trapezoid *s r t m* to the adjacent plane *r t e y*, 136°; of the same plane, to *k r y z*, 124° 26′; of the plane *t m g e*, to *m l i g*, 93°.

The primitive form of the topaz is that of a right-angled, four-sided prism *h y* (fig. 32.) the bases of which are rhombuses, having the angle *h* or *r* = 124° 26′. According to theory, in regard to the integrant molecule, the height *r y* is to the side *r n* nearly in the ratio of 3 to 2. The pyramidal summit of the topaz results from a decrement by two rows of small prisms on the edges *x r*, *r n*, *n h*, *h x* of the superior base of the primitive form. The planes *t m g e*, *l m g e* (fig. 33.) on one side, and *b k z p*, *b u d p*, on the other, arise from a decrement by three rows on each side of the edges *n v*, *x q* (fig. 32.), which decrement remains suspended at a certain term, and leaves four rectangles *t r y e*, *k r y x*, *l h c i*, *u h c d*, (fig. 33.), parallel to the planes of the primitive form. The effect of this decrement is shewn at fig. 34. where the rhombus *h n r x* is the same as fig. 32.; and all the small rhombs by which it is subdivided, or which are exterior to it, represent the bases of so many molecules. The lines *x d*, *x z*, *n i*, *n e*, are

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are directed according to the law of decrement already explained, and the lines *c d*, *c i*, *y z*, *y e*, correſpond to the planes of the priſm, which are not ſubject to this law.

3. Decrement on the Angles.

This poſition of the rhomboidal nucleus incloſed in the regular hexahedral priſm of the calcareous ſpar being diſcovered, did not directly lead to the determination of the laws of thoſe decrements of ſecondary cryſtals. More ſimple intermediate ſteps were neceſſary. To conceive the method of inveſtigating theſe new decrements, it may be remarked that the ſame ſubſtances which exhibit the dodecahedron with pentagonal planes originating from the cubes (fig. 27. and 28.), and which might aſſume the form of the dodecahedron whoſe planes are rhombuſes (fig. 13. and 14.), are found alſo under that of the regular octahedron. But if the laminæ of ſuperpoſition decreaſe only on the edges of the two oppoſite faces of this cube, as on thoſe of the ſuperior baſe ABCD (fig. 14.), and of the inferior baſe, we ſhall in general have two pyramids applied on theſe baſes. And if we ſuppoſe the effect of the law of decrements continued in the ſpace ſituated between the baſes of the cube, we ſhall arrive at an octahedron, whoſe angles will vary as there is a greater or ſmaller number of rows ſubtracted. But no law, however complicated, can give equilateral triangles as the faces of this octahedron.

On the other hand, by dividing a regular octahedron originating from a cube, the cubic nucleus will appear to be ſo ſituated in this octahedron that each of its ſix ſolid angles correſponds to the centre of one of the faces of the octahedron; but this could not be the caſe by ſuppoſing a decrement on the edges. The law of decrement accompliſhes its ends, in ſuch caſes, by a different progreſs from that which conducts to the forms already deſcribed.

Let ABCD (fig. 35.) be the ſuperior or inferior ſurface of a lamina compoſed of ſmall cubes, whoſe baſes are repreſented by the ſquares which ſubdivide the whole ſquare. The ſeries of cubes to which the ſquares *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*, belong, are on the diagonal drawn from A to C; and they form one ſtring, (fig. 36.) which will not differ from the ſtring of the cubes *a*, *n*, *g*, *r'*, *s'*, *t'*, *u'*, *z'*, *x'*, (fig. 35.), lying in the direction of the edge AD, excepting that in the former the cubes touch only by one of their edges, and in the latter by one of their faces. There are alſo, throughout the whole extent of the lamina, ſtrings of cubes parallel to the diagonal. The ſeries of letters *q*, *v*, *k*, *u*, *x*, *y*, *z*, ſhews one, and the letters *n*, *t*, *l*, *m*, *p*, *o*, *r*, *s*, ſhew another ſtring.

The laminæ of ſuperpoſition, it may be conceived, project beyond each other one or more rows of cubes in a direction parallel to the diagonal. In like manner may be conſtructed around the cubic nucleus, ſolids of different figures, by placing ſucceſſively above the different faces of this nucleus laminæ which may ariſe in the form of pyramids, and which will experience this kind of decrement. The faces of theſe ſolids will be roughened by an infinite number of ſalient angles formed by the exterior points of the compoſing cubes. This follows from the angular figure which is continually preſented by the edges of the laminæ of ſuperpoſition. But theſe points being on a level, the cubes may be ſuppoſed to be ſo ſmall that the faces of the ſolid will appear ſmooth and continued planes.

Around the cube ABGF (fig. 37.), as a nucleus, let a ſecondary ſolid be conſtructed, in which the lamina of ſuperpoſition ſhall decreaſe on all ſides by a ſingle row of cubes, in a direction parallel to the diagonals; and let ABCD (fig. 38.), the ſuperior baſe of the nucleus be ſubdivided in 81 ſmall ſquares, repreſenting the exterior faces of an equal number of molecules. Fig. 39. repreſents the ſuperior ſurface of the firſt lamina which ought to be placed above ABCD (fig. 38.) in ſuch a manner that the point *a'* may correſpond to the point *a*, the point *b'* to the point *b*, the point *c'* to the point *c*, and the point *d'* to the point *d*. By this diſpoſition the ſquares A*a*, B*b*, C*c*, D*d* (fig. 38.) remain uncovered, which will fulfil the above law of decrement; and the borders QV, ON, IL, GF (fig. 39.) project by one row beyond the borders AB, AD, CD, BC (fig. 37.), which is neceſſary that the nucleus may be enveloped towards theſe edges. For if the edges of the lamina repreſented (fig. 39.), as well as the following, coincided with the lines ST, EZ, YX, MU, on which ſuppoſition they would be on a level with AD, AB, CD, BC (fig. 38.), they would form re-entering angles towards the analogous parts of the cryſtal. Thus in the laminæ applied on ABCD (fig. 37.) all the edges anſwering to CD would be on a level with CDFG, of which they would form a prolongation; and in the laminæ applied on DCGF all the edges analogous to the ſame ridge CD would be on a level with ABCD, from which neceſſarily reſults a re-entering angle oppoſite to the ſalient angle formed by the two faces ABCD and CDFG. But by the laws which determine the formation of ſimple cryſtals, re-entering angles appear to be excluded. The ſolid will then increaſe in thoſe parts to which the decrement does not extend. But this decrement alone being ſufficient to determine the form of the ſecondary cryſtal, all the other variations which intervene only in a ſubſidiary manner may be ſet aſide, excepting in the conſtruction of artificial cryſtals, and in exhibiting the details relating to the ſtructure.

The ſuperior face of the ſecond lamina will be like A'G'L'K' (fig. 40.), and this lamina muſt be placed above the preceding, in ſuch a manner that the points *a''*, *b''*, *c''*, *d''*, may correſpond with the points *a'* *b'* *c'*, *d'* (fig. 39.), which will leave uncovered the ſquares having their exterior angles ſituated in Q, S, E, O, V, T, M, G, &c. and continuing to produce the decrement by one row. The ſolid increaſes towards the analogous edges at AB, BC, CD, AD (fig. 38.), ſince between A' and L', for inſtance, (fig. 40.), there are 13 ſquares, but between QV and LI (fig. 39.) there are only eleven.

The large faces of the laminæ of ſuperpoſition which were hitherto octagons QVGFILNO (fig. 39.) having arrived at the figure of the ſquare A'G'L'K (fig. 40.), will after paſſing that term, decreaſe on all ſides at the ſame time, and the following lamina will have for its ſuperior face the ſquare B'M'I'S (fig. 41.), leſs in every direction by one row than the ſquare A'G'L'K' (fig. 40.). Let this ſquare be diſpoſed above the preceding, ſo that the points *c'*, *f'*, *g'*, *h'* (fig. 41.) may correſpond with the

the points *c*, *f*, *g*, *h*, (fig. 40.) Fig. 42. 43. 44. and 45. repreſent the four laminæ which ought to riſe ſucceſſively above the preceding, the ſame letters being made to correſpond. The laſt lamina is reduced to one cube *z'* (fig. 47.) which ſhould correſpond with the ſame letter (fig. 45.).

Thus it follows, that the laminæ of ſuperpoſition applied on the baſe ABCD (fig. 37. and 38.) produce, by the total of their decreaſing edges, four faces, which in proceeding from the points A, B, C, D, incline one to another in the form of a pyramidal ſummit. Theſe edges, it may be remarked, have lengths which begin by increaſing as in fig. 39. and 40. and which then proceed decreaſing. Thus the faces produced by the ſame edges increaſe at firſt, and afterwards decreaſe in breadth, ſo that they become quadrilaterals. One of theſe is repreſented at fig. 47. in which the inferior angle C is confounded with the angle C (fig. 37.) of the nucleus; and the diagonal LQ repreſents the edge L'G' of the lamina A'G'L'K' (fig. 40.), which is the moſt extended in the direction of that edge. And the number of laminæ of ſuperpoſition producing the triangle LCQ (fig. 47.) being leſs than that of the laminæ producing the triangle LZQ, ſince there is here only one lamina preceding the lamina A'G'L'K (fig. 40.), while there are ſix which follow it as far as the cube *z* (fig. 46.) incluſively, the triangle LZQ (fig. 47.) compoſed of the ſum of the edges of theſe latter laminæ, will have a much greater height than the inferior triangle LCQ, as it is expreſſed in the figure.

The ſurface of the ſecondary ſolid, then, will be formed of 24 quadrilaterals, diſpoſed three and three around each ſolid angle of the nuclus. But decreaſing by one row, the three quadrilaterals belonging to each ſolid angle, ſuch as C (fig. 37.) will be in the ſame plane, forming an equilateral triangle ZIN (fig. 48.). The 24 quadrilaterals, then, will produce eight equilateral triangles. One of theſe is repreſented at fig. 49. ſhewing the arrangement of the cubes that concur to form it; and the ſecondary ſolid will be a regular octahedron. This octahedron is repreſented at fig. 50. encloſing the cubic nucleus, ſo that each of its ſolid angles correſponds to the centre of one of the triangles IZN, IPN, PIS, SIZ, &c. of the octahedron. To extract this nucleus, it would be neceſſary to divide the octahedron in its eight ſolid angles, by ſections parallel to the oppoſite edges. This is the ſtructure of octahedral ſulphuret of lead or galena.

Such then is an example of decrements on the angles which take place in a direction parallel to the diagonals. By this denomination may be expreſſed preciſely the reſult of each decrement, by denoting the angle which ſerves it as a point of departure.

Acute calcareous Spar, (fig. 51.)

Geometric Character.—Inclination of *p z r y* to *p u o y*, 78° 27' 47"; and to *i r z s*, 101° 32' 13". Angles of the rhombus *p z r y*, *p* or *r* = 75° 31' 20"; *z* or *y* = 104° 28' 40". Inclination of the oblique diagonal drawn from *p* to *r* with the edge *p u*, 71° 35' 54".

Geomet. Propert.—The angles of the rhombus are equal to the reſpective inclinations of the faces of the nucleus, and reciprocally. The angles of the principal quadrilateral, or that which paſſes through two oppoſite oblique diagonals *p r*, *u i*, and through the intermediate edges *p u*, *i r*, are the ſame as on the nucleus.

To conceive the ſtructure of this rhomboid, ſuppoſe that *a b d f* (fig. 52.) repreſents the face of the nucleus marked with the ſame letters (fig. 12.) ſubdivided into a multitude of partial rhombuſes, which are the exterior faces of ſo many molecules. Suppoſe farther, that the laminæ of ſuperpoſition, applied on this face, decreaſe by one row towards the lateral angles *a b d*, *a f d*, in ſuch a manner, that on the firſt the two rhombuſes *b h k l*, *f m i n* are uncovered; that on the ſecond the uncovered rhombuſes are thoſe traverſed by the diagonals *c o*, *u y*, on the third thoſe traverſed by the diagonals *s t*, *q z*, &c.; in which caſe the decreaſing edges will ſucceſſively correſpond with theſe diagonals. By this law of decrement two faces will be produced; which, proceeding from the angles *b f*, will riſe in the form of a roof above the rhombus *a b d f*, and will meet on a common edge ſituated immediately above the diagonal *a d*, and which will be parallel to it; and, as there are ſix rhombuſes, which undergo like decrements on the primitive form, the faces produced will be 12 in number. But, by the law of decrement by one row, the two faces which have the ſame angle *b*, *f*, *g*, &c. (fig. 12.) for the point of departure will be in the ſame plane; thus reducing the 12 faces to ſix, and transforming the ſecondary cryſtal into an acute rhomboid *p i* (fig. 51.) In this rhomboid the edges *p z*, *p y*, *p u*, are ſituated each as the oblique diagonals of the nucleus, or thoſe which would be drawn from *a* to *d*, from *a* to *x*, from *a* to *c*, &c. (fig. 12.).

Cryſtals of this variety are found near Lyons in France; and the freeſtone of Fontainbleau, commonly called *cryſtallized freeſtone*, which is nothing elſe than calcareous ſpar, mixed with particles of quartz, exhibits the ſame form. The cryſtals of this ſtone yield to mechanical diviſion, and have their natural joinings like thoſe of pure ſpar, ſituated in the planes parallel to the edges *p z*, *p y*, *p u*, &c. (fig. 51.), and which would paſs at an equal diſtance from theſe edges.

Rhomboidal Iron ore, (fig. 53.)

Geometric Character.—Inclination of BCRP to BCOA or OCRS, 146° 26' 33"; angles of the rhombus BCRP, C or P = 117° 2' 9"; B or R = 62° 57' 51".

The laminæ compoſing this rhomboid decreaſe by two rows on the angles *b c r*, *o c r*, *b c o*, &c. (fig. 54.) which concur to the formation of the two ſolid angles *c n*, of a cubic nucleus. The faces produced, inſtead of being on a level, three and three, around theſe angles, as in the caſe of decrement by a ſingle row, incline one to the other, and extend above the faces of the nucleus in ſuch a manner that their diagonals are parallel to the horizontal diagonals of the ſame faces. The cube here anſwers the purpoſe of a rhomboid, which ſhould have its ſummits in *c* and *n*, in which caſe there would be only one axis paſſing through the ſummits. In the dodecahedron, on the other hand, with pentagonal planes

planes (fig. 27.) the cube performs the functions of a rectangular parallelopipedon, and then three different axes may be conceived, each of which paſſes through the middle of the two oppoſite faces. When the cube begins to perform the one or the other, in regard to one ſpecies of mineral, it is obſerved to continue that function in all the varieties of that ſpecies.

The cryſtals of rhomboidal iron are found among thoſe of the iron ore of the iſland of Elba. It is uncommon, however, for the law of decrement to attain to its boundary, and for the rhomboid not to be modified by facets parallel to the faces of the nucleus. If the decrement which produces the rhomboid took place at the ſame time on the eight ſolid angles of the cube, there would reſult a polyhedron of 24 facets, of which nature are the cryſtals found at the Calton hill, Edinburgh, which have been conſidered as zeolites.

4. Intermediate Decrements.

In ſome cryſtals the decrements on the angles do not take place in lines parallel to the diagonals, but parallel to lines ſituated between the diagonals and the edges. This happens when the ſubtractions are made by double, triple, &c. rows of molecules. In figure 55. which is an inſtance of theſe ſubtractions, the molecules compoſing the row repreſented by the figure, are ſo arranged as if, of two, one only was formed. To reduce this caſe under that of the common decrements on the angles, we have only to conceive the cryſtal compoſed of parallelopipeds, having their baſes equal to the ſmall rectangles *a b c d*, *e d f g*, *h g i l*, &c. The name of intermediate decrement is given to this kind of diminution.

Syntactic Iron Ore, (fig. 50.)

Geometric Character.—Reſpective inclination of the trapeziums *b e g o*, *n q g o* of the riſing pyramids $=135^\circ\ 34'\ 31''$; of the edges *e g*, *g q*, $129^\circ\ 31'\ 16''$. Angles of the trapezium *b c g o*, *b* or $c=103^\circ\ 48'\ 35''$; *o* or $g=76^\circ\ 11'\ 25''$.

This variety of iron ore is found at Framont in Les Voſges. It commonly appears under the form of two oppoſite pyramids, and ſome groups reflect from the ſurface the priſmatic colours. Theſe cryſtals, claſſed by De L'Iſle among the modifications of the dodecahedron with iſoſceles triangular planes, have for nucleus a cube performing the functions of the rhomboid. The two regular hexagons by which they are terminated, ariſe from a decrement by a ſingle row of cubic molecules on the angles *c*, *n*, (fig. 54.) of the nucleus.

To comprehend the effect of this law, combined with the preceding, and which produces the lateral trapeziums, let it be ſuppoſed that *c b p r* (fig. 57.) repreſents the ſame ſquare as fig. 54. ſubdivided into ſmall ſquares, which are the external faces of ſo many molecules. Taking theſe molecules by pairs, ſo that they form rectangular parallelopipeds, having for baſes the oblong ſquares *b n g h*, *h g m* G, &c. and imagine, that the ſubtractions are made by two rows of theſe double molecules, the edges of the laminæ of ſuperpoſition will be ſucceſſively ranged in lines, as PG, TL, R*p*, S*p*, *k z*, *y z*, &c. and the ſum of all theſe edges will produce two faces, which departing from the angles *b*, *r*, will converge, the one towards the other, and will unite themſelves on a common ridge, ſituated above the diagonal *c p*, but inclined to that diagonal. The complete reſult of this decrement, then, is 12 faces; and it is ſhewn by calculation, that the ſix ſuperior faces being prolonged to the point where they meet the ſix lower faces, will form with them the ſurface of a dodecahedron, compoſed of two right pyramids united at their baſes. By the effect of the firſt law, theſe pyramids are here incomplete, which gives the hexagon *a b c d r u* (fig. 56.) and its oppoſite.

5. Mixed Decrements.

The decrements in other cryſtals, either on the edges, or on the angles, vary according to laws, the proportion of which can only be expreſſed by the fraction $\frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$. It may happen, for inſtance, that each lamina exceeds the following by two rows parallel to the edges, and that it may, at the ſame time, have an altitude triple that of a ſimple molecule. A vertical, geometrical ſection of one of the kinds of pyramids, reſulting from this decrement, is repreſented at fig. 62. The effects of this decrement may be readily conceived by conſidering that AB is a horizontal line taken on the upper baſe of the nucleus *b a z r*, the ſection of the firſt lamina of ſuperpoſition, *g f e n* that of the ſecond. Theſe are called *mixed decrements*, which exhibit this new kind of exception from the ſimpleſt laws. They, as well as the intermediary ones, rarely exiſt anywhere elſe, and they have been particularly diſcovered in certain metallic ſubſtances. The application of the ordinary laws, Hauy obſerves, to a variety of theſe ſubſtances, preſented ſuch errors in the value of the angles, as led him to believe that they were inconſiſtent with theory. But extending his theory, he arrived at reſults ſo correct as removed every doubt of the exiſtence of the laws on which theſe reſults depended.

All the changes to which cryſtals are ſubjected depend on the laws of ſtructure which have been explained, and others of a ſimilar kind. The decrements ſometimes take place at the ſame time on all the edges, as in the dodecahedron having rhombuſes for its planes, or on all the angles, as in the octahedron originating from a cube. Sometimes they take place only on certain edges of certain angles. There is ſometimes a uniformity between them, ſo that it is one ſingle law by one, two, three rows, &c. which acts on the different edges, or the different angles. Sometimes the law varies from one edge to the other, or from one angle to the other. This happens, particularly, when the form of the nucleus is not ſymmetrical, as, for inſtance, when it is a parallelopiped, whoſe faces differ by their reſpective inclinations, or the meaſure of their angles. In ſome caſes there is a concurrence of the decrements on the edges, with thoſe on the angles, to produce the ſame form; and ſometimes the ſame edge or the ſame angle is ſubjected to ſeveral laws of decrement ſucceeding each other. The ſecondary cryſtal, in ſome caſes, has faces parallel to thoſe of the primitive form, and which combine with the faces produced by the decrements to modify the figure of the cryſtal. Simple ſecondary forms are thoſe which ariſe from a ſingle law of decrement, the effect of which entirely conceals the nucleus. Compound ſecondary forms ariſe from ſeveral ſimultaneous laws of decrement, or from one ſingle law not having attained to its extent; ſo that there remain

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main faces parallel to those of the nucleus, which concur with the faces produced by the decrement, to diversify the form of the crystal. If, amidst this diversity of laws, sometimes insulated, sometimes united by more or less complicated combinations, the number of the rows subtracted were itself extremely variable; if, for instance, these decrements were by 12, 20, or 30 rows, or more, which is possible, the number of forms which might exist in each kind of mineral would be immense. But the power by which the subtractions are effected, seems to be very limited in its action. Its extent rarely exceeds 1 or 2 rows of molecules. Beyond four rows, only one variety of calcareous spar has been discovered. The structure of this variety depends on a decrement by six rows; but this seems to be a rare occurrence in nature. Yet, although the laws of crystallization are limited to two of the simplest, that is, those which produce subtractions by one or two rows, calcareous spar is susceptible of 2044 different forms, a number exceeding more than 50 times that of the forms at present known; and, admitting into the combination decrements by 3 and 4 rows, calculation will give 8,388,604 possible forms of the same substance, and by the operation of either mixed or intermediate decrements, this number will be greatly augmented.

The striæ observed on the surface of many crystals is another proof in favour of the theory; for they always have directions parallel to the projecting edges of the laminæ of superposition, which mutually go beyond each other, if the regularity of the process has not been disturbed. It must not, however, be supposed, that the inequalities arising from the decrements must be always sensible, if the form of the crystals be complete; for the molecules being extremely minute, the surface will appear finely polished, and no striæ would be perceptible. In some secondary crystals, therefore, they are not to be seen, while they are quite distinct in others of the same nature and form. In the latter case, the action of the causes producing crystallization, has not enjoyed all the necessary conditions; the operation has been interrupted; and the law of continuity not having been observed, there have remained on the surface of the crystal, perceptible vacancies. These deviations have this advantage, that they point out the direction, according to which the striæ are arranged in lines, and thus contribute to discover the real mechanism of the structure.

The small vacuities which the edges of the laminæ of superposition leave on the surface of even the most perfect secondary crystals, by their re-entering and salient angles, shew that the fragments obtained by division, whose external facets form part of the faces of the secondary crystal, are not like those drawn from the interior part. For this apparent diversity arises from these facets being composed of a multitude of small planes, really inclined to each other, but which being very minute, present the appearance of one plane. And if the division could reach its utmost bounds, these fragments would be resolved into molecules similar to each other, and to those situated towards the centre. It happens, too, that molecules of different figures arrange themselves in such a manner, as to produce similar polyhedra in different kinds of minerals. Thus the dodecahedron with rhombuses for its planes, which is obtained by combining cubic molecules, exists in granite, with a structure composed of small tetrahedra, having isosceles triangular faces. It exists also in sparry fluor, where there is also an assemblage of tetrahedra, but regular; that is to say, the faces of which are equilateral triangles.

Examples of Compound Secondary Forms.

Prismatic Calcareous Spar, (fig. 9.).

The bases of this prism are produced in consequence of a decrement, by a single row on the angles of the summits *b a f*, *g a f*, *b a g*, *d e x*, *d e c*, *c e x* (fig. 12.) of the primitive form. The six planes result from a decrement by two rows on the angles *b d f*, *f x g*, *b c g*, *d f x*, *d b c*, *c g x*, opposite to the preceding. Let *a b d f* (fig. 58.) be the same face of the nucleus, as fig. 12. The decreasing edges situated towards the angle of the summit *a*, will successively correspond with the lines *h i*, *k l*, &c. and those which look towards the inferior angle *d*, will have the positions pointed out by *m n*, *o p*; but as the first decrement takes place by one row, it is proved, that the face which results from it is perpendicular to the axis; and calculation shews, in like manner, that the second decrement taking place by two rows, produces planes parallel to the axis, and thus the secondary solid is a regular hexahedral prism.

To develope farther the structure of this prism, it may be remarked, that in the production of any one *a b c n i h* (fig. 9.) of the two bases, the effect of one only of the three decrements which take place around the solid angle *a* (fig. 12.) may be considered, for example, of that which takes place on the angle *b a f*, supposing that the laminæ applied on the two other faces *f a g x*, *b a g c*, do not decrease, but to assist the result of the principal decrement which takes place in regard to the angle *b a f*. Here these auxiliary decrements are quite similar to that whose effect they are supposed to prolong.

The case will be totally different by applying the same observation to the decrements which are affected by two rows on the inferior angles *b d f*, *d f x*, *f x g*, &c. and which produce the six planes of the prism. If, for example, we consider the effect of the decrement on the angle *d f x*, it is necessary also that the laminæ applied on the faces *a f d b*, *a f x g* (fig. 12.) should experience, towards their lateral angles *a f d*, *a f x*, adjacent to the angle *d f x*, variations which second the effect of the generating decrement. Here, however, these variations are intermediary decrements by rows of double molecules.

Amphitrigonous Iron Ore. Fig. 59. shews this crystal in a horizontal projection, and fig. 60. in perspective.

Geometric Character.—Respective inclination of the triangles *g c n*, *g c d*, &c. from the same summit, 146° 26′ 33″; of the lateral triangles *b g u*, *b g q*, to the adjacent pentagons, such as *g u t m n*, 154° 45′ 39″.

This is the common form of the iron ore of the island of Elba. It results from a decrement by two rows on the angles *c*, *n* (fig. 54.) to the summits of a cubic nucleus, which produces the isosceles triangles *g c n*, *g c d*, *n c d* (fig. 59. and 60.), and of a second decrement by three rows on the lateral angles *c b q*, *c r p*, *c r s*, &c. which produce the triangles *m n r*, *r n k*, *u g b*, *g g b*, &c. These two decrements stop at a certain term, so that

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that there remain faces parallel to thoſe of the nucleus, viz. the pentagons *g u t m n*, *h d n k l*, &c. (fig. 59.). The firſt decrement is ſimilar to that which produces the rhomboidal iron ore. The ſecond has this property, that if its effects were complete, it would give a dodecahedron of iſoſceles triangles, or compoſed of two right pyramids united at their baſes. The triangles of the ſummits are frequently furrowed by ſtriæ parallel to the baſes *g n*, *d n*, *g d*, of theſe triangles, and which point out the direction of the decrement.

Analogical Calcareous Spar, (*HAUY*), fig. 61.

Geometric Character.—Inclination of any one, *i m e h*, of the trapezoids of the ſummits to the correſponding vertical trapezoid *e c p g*, 116° 33′ 54″; angles of the ſame trapezoid *i*=114° 18′ 56″; *e*=75° 31′ 20″; *m* or *h*=85° 4′ 52″. Angles of the trapezoid *e h o g*, *e*=90°; *o*=127° 25′ 53″; *g*=67° 47′ 44″; *h*=74° 46′ 23″; of the trapezoid *c e g p*, *e*=60°; *p*=98° 12′ 46″; *c* or *g*=100° 53′ 37″.

Geomet. Propert.—1. In each vertical trapezoid, the triangle *c e g* is equilateral. 2. The height *e x* of this triangle is double the height *p x* of the oppoſite triangle *c p g*. 3. In the trapezoid *e h o g*, and the other ſimilarly ſituated, the angle *h e g* is a right angle. 4. Ifthe diagonal *g h* be drawn, the triangle *h e g* will be ſimilar to any one *a o f* (fig. 12.) of thoſe which would be produced by drawing in the primitive rhombus the two diagonals *b f*, *a d*. 5. If in the trapezoid *e m i h*, or any other ſituated at the ſummits, the diagonals *e i*, *m h* be drawn, the height *e l* of the inferior triangle *m e h* will be double the height *i l* of the ſuperior triangle *m i h*. 6. The triangle *m i h* is ſimilar to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the rhombus of every obtuſe ſpar, divided by the horizontal diagonal, and the triangle *m e h* is ſimilar to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the rhombus of the acute ſpar divided in the ſame manner.

The numerous analogies connecting this variety with different cryſtalline forms, whether conſidering certain angles formed by planes, or certain triangles obtained by drawing the diagonals of the trapezoids, led the author of this theory to give it the name of *analogical ſpar*. It is derived from three other varieties, viz. very obtuſe ſpar, by the trapezoids *e m i h*, *f i h t*, &c.; metaſtatic ſpar, by the trapezoids *e m d c*, *e h o g*, *o h t z*, &c.; and the priſmatic ſpar by the trapezoids *b a c k*, *c e g p*, &c. which are conſequently parallel to the axis. The trapezoids *i m e h*, *f i h t*, &c. are often ſeparated by an intermediary ridge from the vertical trapezoids *c e g p*, *g o z r*, &c. In that caſe the trapezoids *c d m e*, *g e h o*, &c. are changed into pentagons.

Icoſahedral Sulphuret of Iron, (fig. 63.).

Geometric Character.—Reſpective inclinations of the iſoſceles triangles PLR, PSR, 126° 52′ 11″; of any one PNL of the equilateral triangles to each adjacent iſoſceles triangle, PLR, or LNK, 140° 46′ 17″. Angles of the iſoſceles triangle PLR, L=48° 11′ 20″; P or R=65° 54′ 20″.

This variety is the reſult of a combination of the law which produces the octahedron originating from a cube (fig. 50.), with that which takes place for the dodecahedron with pentagonal planes (fig. 27. and 28.) The firſt law produces the eight equilateral triangles which correſpond with the ſolid angles of the nucleus; and the ſecond produces twelve iſoſceles triangles, ſituated two and two above the ſix faces of the ſame nucleus. If a dodecahedron ſimilar to that of fig. 28. were converted geometrically into this icoſahedron, it would be ſufficient to make the planes of eight ſections paſs through it in the following manner; viz. one through the angles P, N, L, (fig. 27.), another through the angles P, M, S; a third through the angles L, R, U, &c. By comparing the figures 27. and 63. the relation between the polyhedra will be ſeen by the correſpondence of the letters; but this is merely an artificial operation; for it may be obſerved, that the nucleus of the icoſahedra which would be obtained, would be much ſmaller than that of the dodecahedron, ſince the ſolid angles of the latter nucleus would be confounded with the angles D, C, G, &c. (fig. 28.) of the dodecahedron; but the other nucleus would have its ſolid angles ſituated in the middle of the equilateral triangles MPS, NPL, URL, (fig. 63.).

The icoſahedron of the ſulphuret of iron, which is not very common, has been confounded with the regular geometrical icoſahedron which has all its angles equilateral. Theory ſhows that the exiſtence of the latter icoſahedron is equally impoſſible in mineralogy as the geometrical dodecahedron. Among the five regular polyhedra of geometry, viz. the cube, the tetrahedron, the octahedron, the dodecahedron, and the icoſahedron, the three former can only exiſt among minerals according to the laws of cryſtallization.

Polynomous Petunze (*HAUY*), fig. 64.

Geometric Character.—Reſpective inclination of the narrow planes, *o n k m*, *c f h g*, to the adjacent planes on each ſide, 150°; of the planes *c t* F *g*, P *o m* N to thoſe contiguous to them by the edges *t* F, PN, 120°; of the heptagon *p* G *c l d e z* to the enneagon B *z e b n o* P *r s*, 99° 41′ 8″; of the trapezium *d a f c* both to the plane *n b a f h i l k*, and to the heptagon *p* G *t c d e z*, 135°; of the facet *d e a b*, or AB *z p* to the ſame pentagon, 124° 15′ 15″.

Hauy had not obſerved the petunze cryſtallized under its primitive form. This form, ſuch as it is given by the mechanical diviſion of ſecondary cryſtals, is that of an oblique priſm of four planes (fig. 66.), two of which, ſuch as GOAD, RBHN, are perpendicular to the baſes ADNH, OGRB; the other two, viz. BOAH, RGDN, make with the former, angles of 120° at the ridges OA, RN, and angles of 60° towards the oppoſite ridges BH, GD. Theſe planes are inclined to the baſes at that place of the ridges GO, BR, 111° 29′ 43″, and at the oppoſite ridges 68° 30′ 17″. This form is at the ſame time that of the molecule. By theory, the two parallelograms GOAD, OGRB, as well as their parallels are equal in extent; and the parallelogram BOAH, or its oppoſite, RGDN, is double each of the preceding. This may ſerve to explain the roughneſs of the ſections made in the direction BOAH, when compared with thoſe in the directions of the ſmall parallelograms, the latter being always ſmooth and brilliant. If, however, the diagonal OR, be drawn, it will be found perpendicular to OA and RN; or, it will be ſituated horizontally,

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tally, by supposing that the ridges OA, BH have a vertical position.

This mineral exhibits the most complicated variety which the author has observed among this kind of crystals. To comprehend its structure, suppose that *bpyr*, (fig. 65.) represents a section of the nucleus AR, (fig. 66.), made by a plane perpendicular to the parallelograms GOAD, BOAH, and subdivided into a multitude of small parallelograms, which are the analogous sections of so many molecules. Here the side *y r* (fig. 65.), which is the same section of the cutting plane as GOAD, is greater than it ought to be in regard to the side *c r* (fig. 65.), which is the same section as BOAH (fig. 66.). But these dimensions are suited to those of the secondary crystal, and here occasion no difficulty, because it may be supposed that the primitive form has been extended more in one direction than in another; for this form is to be considered only as a convenient datum for the explanation of the structure, and the crystal consists merely in an assemblage of similar molecules; so that it is the dimensions of these molecules, which remain invariable.

By comparing fig. 64. and 65. it will be found, 1. That the plane *f a b n k l i h* (fig. 64.) and its opposite which correspond to *m n*, *d g* (fig. 65.) are parallel to two planes of the nucleus, viz. GOAD, BRNH (fig. 66.), and therefore do not result from any law of decrement. 2. That the plane P *o m* N, and its opposite (fig. 64.) which correspond to *a o*, *e g*, (fig. 65.) are also parallel to two of the planes of the nucleus, viz. BOAH RGDN, (fig. 66.) 3. That the plane *o n k m*, and its opposite (fig. 64.) which correspond to *o n*, *e g*, (fig. 65.) result from a decrement by two rows parallel to the ridges AO, NR, (fig. 66.). 4. That the plane *c f g h*, and its opposite, (fig. 64.), result from a decrement by four rows parallel to the ridges GD, BH, (fig. 66.), which decrement takes place on the other side of these ridges. From this it may be seen, that decrements different in their measure, give rise to planes similarly situated, such as *o n k m* and *c f g h*, (fig. 64.), which is a consequence of the particular figure of the molecules. With regard to the faces of the summit, the heptagon *p* G *t c d e z*, (fig. 64.), is situated parallel to the base BRGO, (fig. 66.). The enneagon B *s r* P *o n b e z* (fig. 64.) is produced in consequence of a decrement by one row on the angle OBR (fig. 66.), or parallel to the diagonal OR; which decrement does not attain to its full extent, and leaves subsisting the neighbouring heptagon parallel to the base BRGO. It may be conceived, from what has been said on the position of the diagonal OR, why the line *e z* (fig. 64.) which separates the two large faces of the summit, is situated horizontally, by supposing that the planes have a vertical position.

The trapeziums *d a f c*, A *p* GC, are the result of a decrement by one row on the ridges GO, BR (fig. 66.). The facet *d e b a* (fig. 64.) arises from a decrement by two rows parallel to the ridge BO (fig. 66.). With regard to the other facet AB *z p*, which has the same position as the preceding, in relation to the opposite part of the crystal, it results from an intermediary law, by a row of double molecules on the angle OBR (fig. 66.). The rhombuses *b c l h*, *k l s u* (fig. 67.) represent the horizontal sections of two of these double molecules taken in the same row, and whose relation to the rest of the arrangement will become sensible, by comparing these rhombuses with those marked with the same letters in fig. 65. This variety of crystals is subject to a change of dimensions; the faces *p* G *t c d e z*, *f a b n k l i h*, and their opposites, which are at right angles to each other, are elongated in the direction of their breadth, exhibiting the appearance of a quadrilateral, rectangular prism, the summits of which would be formed by the faces situated towards the ridges PN, F*t*. Crystals of this variety, which are opaque, and of a whitish, yellowish, and sometimes reddish colour, are found in granites; some are in groups, and some, but more rarely, are met with in single crystals.

III. Number of Primitive Forms.

In the examples which have been given, the author of the theory has chosen the parallelopiped for a nucleus, on account of the simplicity of its form. He has hitherto found that all the primitive forms may be reduced to six. 1. The parallelopiped in general, which comprehends the cube, the rhomboid, and all the solids terminated by six faces parallel two and two. 2. The regular tetrahedron. 3. The octahedron with triangular faces. 4. The hexagonal prism. 5. The dodecahedron with rhomboidal planes. 6. The dodecahedron with isosceles triangular faces.

Among these forms there are some found as nucleus, which have the measure of their angles the same in different kinds of minerals. It is to be considered that these nuclei are composed, in the first instance, of elementary molecules, and that it is possible that the same form of nucleus may be produced in one species by elements of a certain nature, and in another species by different elements combined in a different manner, as we see integrant molecules, some cubic, and some tetrahedral, produce similar secondary forms by the operation of different laws of decrement. But it may be observed, that all the forms which have hitherto occurred as nuclei, on the different species, are such as have a particular character of perfection and regularity, as the cube, the regular octahedron, and the dodecahedron with equal and similar rhombuses for its faces.

IV. Forms of the Integral Molecules.

The primitive form is that which is obtained by sections made on all the similar parts of the secondary crystals; and these sections, continued parallel to themselves, conduct to a determination of the form of the integral molecules, of which the whole crystal is the assemblage. There is no crystal from which a nucleus in the form of a parallelopiped may not be extracted, by making the limitation to six selections, parallel two and two. In a great number of substances, this parallelopiped is the last term of the mechanical division, and consequently the real nucleus; but in some minerals this parallelopiped is divisible, as well as the rest of the crystal, by farther sections made in the different directions of the faces, from which results a new solid, which will be the nucleus, if all the parts of the secondary crystal superadded to this nucleus are similarly situated. When the mechanical division conducts to a parallelopiped, divisible only by sections parallel to its six faces, the molecules are parallelopipeds

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ſimilar to the nucleus; but in all other caſes their form differs from that of the nucleus. This may be illuſtrated by an example.

Let *a c h s n o* (fig. 68.) be a cube, having two of its ſolid angles *a*, *s*, ſituated on the ſame vertical line; this line will be the axis of the cube, and the points *a* and *s* will be its ſummits. Let it be ſuppoſed that this cube is diviſible by ſections, each of which, ſuch as *a h n*, paſſes through one of the ſummits *a*, and by two oblique diagonals *a h*, *a n*, contiguous to the ſummit. By this ſection the ſolid angle *i* will be detached; and as there are ſix ſolid angles, ſituated laterally, viz. *i*, *h*, *c*, *r*, *o*, *n*, the ſix ſections will produce an acute rhomboid, the ſummits of which will be confounded with thoſe of the cube. At fig. 69. this rhomboid is repreſented exiſting in the cube in ſuch a manner, that its ſix lateral ſolid angles *b*, *d*, *f*, *p*, *g*, *e*, correſpond with the middle of the faces *a c h i*, *c r s h*, *h i n s*, &c. of the cube; but each of the angles at the ſummits *b a g*, *d s f*, *p s f*, &c. of the acute rhomboid, are $=60^{\circ}$; from which it follows, that the lateral angles *a b f*, *a g f*, &c. are $=120^{\circ}$. Beſides, it is proved by theory, that the cube is the reſult of a decrement which takes place by a ſingle row of ſmall rhomboids, ſimilar to the acute rhomboid on the ſix oblique ridges *a b*, *a g*, *a e*, *s d*, *s f*, *s p*. This decrement produces two faces, one on each ſide of each of theſe ridges, making in the whole 12 faces; but as the two faces, having the ſame line of ridge for their departure, are on the ſame plane; by the nature of the decrement, the 12 faces will be reduced to ſix, which are ſquares, ſo that the ſecondary ſolid is a cube.

Suppoſe that the cube (fig. 68.) admits, in regard to its ſummits *a*, *s*, two new diviſions ſimilar to the preceding ſix, one of which paſſes through the points *c*, *i*, *o*, and the other through the points *h*, *n*, *r*. The firſt will alſo paſs through the points *b*, *g*, *e*, and the ſecond through the points *d*, *f*, *p*, (fig. 69. and 70.) of the rhomboid; from which it follows, that theſe two diviſions will each detach a regular tetrahedron *b a g e*, or *d s f p* (fig. 70.); ſo that the rhomboid will be found converted into a regular octahedron *e f* (fig. 71.), which will be the real nucleus of the cube; for it is produced by diviſions ſimilarly made in relation to the eight ſolid angles of the cube. If we ſuppoſe the ſame cube to be diviſible throughout its whole extent by analogous ſections, it is clear that each of the ſmall rhomboids, of which it is the aſſemblage, will be found in like manner ſubdivided into an octahedron, and two regular tetrahedrons, applied on the two oppoſite faces of the octahedron. By taking the octahedron for a nucleus, a cube may be conſtructed round it, by regular ſubtractions of ſmall complete rhomboids. If, for example, we ſuppoſe decrements, by a ſingle row of theſe rhomboids, having *b* for the point of their departure, and made in a direction parallel to the inferior edges *g f*, *e g*, *d e*, *d f*, of the four triangles, which unite to form the ſolid angle *b*, there will reſult four faces, which will be found on a level, and like the octahedron, with ſix ſolid angles, ſimilar decrements around the other five angles will produce twenty faces, which taken four and four will be equally on a level, making in the whole ſix diſtinct faces, ſituated as thoſe of the cube (fig. 68.). The reſult will be exactly the ſame as in the caſe of the rhomboid, conſidered as nucleus.

In whatever way we proceed to ſubdivide, either the cube, the rhombus, or the octahedron, we ſhall always have ſolids of two forms, that is to ſay, octahedrons and tetrahedrons, without being able to reduce the reſult of the diviſion to unity. But the molecules of a cryſtal being ſimilar, Hauy thinks it probable, that the ſtructure was, as it were, interſperſed with a multitude of ſmall vacuities, occupied either with the water of cryſtallization or ſome other ſubſtance; ſo that, if it were poſſible to carry the diviſion to its limits, one of thoſe two kinds of ſolids would diſappear, and the whole cryſtal would be found compoſed only of molecules of the other form. This view is the more admiſſible, as each octahedron being enveloped with eight tetrahedrons, and each tetrahedron being in like manner enveloped with four octahedrons, whichever of theſe forms may be ſuppoſed to be ſuppreſſed, the remaining ſolids will join exactly by their edges; ſo that in this reſpect there will be continuity and uniformity throughout the whole extent of the maſs. It may be readily conceived how each octahedron is enveloped with tetrahedrons. By attending to the diviſion of the cube only by the ſix ſections which give the rhomboid, we may depart at pleaſure from any two, *a*, *s*; *o*, *h*; *c*, *n*; *i*, *r*, of the eight ſolid angles, provided that theſe two angles be oppoſite to each other. But by departing from the angles *a*, *s*, the rhomboid will be in the poſition ſhewn at fig. 70. If, on the contrary, we depart from the ſolid angles *o*, *h*, theſe angles will become the ſummits of a new rhomboid (fig. 72.), compoſed of the ſame octahedron as that of fig. 71. with two new tetrahedrons applied on the faces *b d f*, *e g p*, (fig. 72.), which were unoccupied on the rhomboid of fig. 70. Fig. 73. repreſents the caſe in which the two tetrahedrons repoſe on the faces *d b e*, *f g p*, of the octahedron; and fig. 74. repreſents the caſe in which they would reſt on the faces *b f g*, *d e p*. Hence, whatever may be the two ſolid angles of the cube aſſumed for the points of departure, we ſhall always have the ſame octahedron, with two tetrahedrons contiguous by their ſummits to theſe two ſolid angles; and there being eight of theſe ſolid angles, the central octahedron will be circumſcribed with eight tetrahedrons, which will reſt on its faces. By continuing the diviſion always parallel to the firſt ſections, the ſame effect will always take place. Each face of the octahedron, however ſmall it may be ſuppoſed to be, adheres to a face of the tetrahedron, and reciprocally; and each tetrahedron is enveloped with four octahedrons.

The ſtructure which is here explained is that of fluate of lime, or fluor ſpar. By dividing a cube of this ſubſtance, we may at pleaſure extract rhomboids which have the angles formed by their planes equal to 120°, or regular octahedrons, or tetrahedrons equally regular. In ſome other ſubſtances, as rock cryſtal, carbonate of lead, &c. which being mechanically divided beyond the term at which we ſhould have a rhomboid or a parallelopiped, parts of various different forms are obtained, arranged together even in a more complicated manner than in fluor ſpar. In conſequence of theſe mixed ſtructures, there is ſome uncertainty reſpecting the real figure of the integral molecules

cules which belong to these substances. It is observed, however, that the tetrahedron is always one of those solids which concur to the formation of small rhomboids or parallelopipeds that would be extracted from the crystal by a first division. But, on the other hand, there are substances which, being divided in every possible direction, resolve themselves only into tetrahedrons. Garnet, blendes, and tourmaline, belong to this number.

Several minerals are divisible into right triangular prisms. Such is the apatite, whose primitive form is a regular right hexahedral prism, divisible parallel to its bases and its planes, from which necessarily result right prisms with three planes. Fig. 76. represents one of the bases of the hexahedral prism, divided into small equilateral triangles, which are the bases of so many molecules, and which being taken two and two, form quadrilateral prisms, with rhombuses for their bases.

By adopting then the tetrahedron, in the doubtful cases already mentioned, all the forms of integral molecules may be in general reduced to three, which are remarkable for their simplicity, viz. the parallelopiped, the simplest of all the solids, having parallel faces two and two; the triangular prism, the simplest of all prisms; and the tetrahedron, which is the simplest of pyramids. This simplicity may furnish a reason for the preference given to the tetrahedron in fluor spar, and the other substances which have been mentioned as examples. But the ingenious author of the theory cautiously declines to speak decisively on the subject; as the want of direct and precise observations, he observes, leaves to theory only conjectures and probabilities.

But the essential object is, that the different forms to which these mixed structures lead, are arranged in such a manner, that their assemblage is equivalent to a sum of small parallelopipeds, as has been seen to be the case in regard to fluor spar; and that the laminæ of superposition applied on the nucleus, decrease by subtractions of one or more rows of these parallelopipeds. The basis of the theory exists, therefore, independently of the choice which might be made of any of the forms obtained by the mechanical division.

With the help of this result, the decrements to which crystals are subject, whatever be their primitive forms, are found reducible to those which take place in substances, where this form, as well as that of the molecules, are indivisible parallelopipeds; and the theory has this advantage of being able to generalise its object, by connecting with one fact, that multitude of facts which, on account of their diversity, seem to be little susceptible of being brought to one common point. But what has been said, will be still more illustrated by examples of the manner in which we may reduce to the theory of the parallelopiped, that of the forms which are different from that solid.

Crystals whose Molecules are Tetrahedrons, with Isosceles Triangular Faces.

Garnet.

1. *Primitive Garnet* (fig. 76.)

Geometric Character.—Respective inclinations of any two of the faces of the dodecahedron, 120°. Angles of the rhombus CLGH, C or G=109° 28′ 16″; L or H=78° 31′ 44″.

Notwithstanding the vitreous appearance in general exhibited on the fractures of garnets of the primitive form, laminæ may be perceived on them, situated parallel to the rhombuses which compose their surface. Let us suppose the dodecahedron divided in the direction of its laminæ, and, for the greater simplicity, let us suppose the sections to pass through the centre. One of these sections, viz. that which will be parallel to the two rhombuses DLFN, BHOR, will concur with a hexagon, which would pass through the points E, C, G, P, I, A, by making the tour of the crystal. A second section parallel to the two rhombuses GLPF, BEAR, will coincide with another hexagon shewn by the points D, C, H, O, I, N. And if the division be continued parallel to the other eight rhombuses, taken two and two, it will be found that the planes of the sections will be confounded with four new hexagons analogous to the preceding. But by resuming all these hexagons, it will appear that their sides correspond, some of them with the small diagonals of the rhombuses of the dodecahedron, viz. those which would be drawn from C to G, from A to I, from C to B, &c. and others would correspond with the different ridges EC, GP, PI, EA, &c.

1. The planes then of the sections passing through the sides and through the small diagonals of the twelve rhombuses, will subdivide the whole surface into 24 isosceles triangles, which will be the halves of these rhombuses. 2. Since the planes of the sections pass also through the centre of the crystal, they will detach 24 pyramids with three faces; the bases of which, if we choose, will be the external triangles that make part of the surface of the dodecahedron, and of which the summits will be united in the centre.

Besides, if we take, for example, the six tetrahedrons, which have for external faces the halves of the three rhombuses CEDL, CLGH, CEBH, these six tetrahedrons will form a rhomboid represented by fig. 77. and in which the three inferior rhombuses DLGS, GHBS, DEBS, result from three divisions which pass, one through the hexagon DLGORA, (fig. 76.); the second through the hexagon GHBANF; and the third through the hexagon BEDFPO. Fig. 77. also represents the two tetrahedrons, the bases of which make part of the rhombus CLGH. One of these is marked with the letters L, C, G, S, and the other with the letters H, C, G, S. And by applying what has been said to the other nine rhombuses, which are united, three and three, around the points F, A, H, (fig. 77.), we shall have three new rhomboids; from which it follows, that the 24 tetrahedrons, considered six and six, form four rhomboids; so that the dodecahedron may be conceived as being itself immediately composed of these four rhomboids, and in the last analysis of 24 tetrahedrons.

It may be observed, that the dodecahedron having eight solid angles, each formed with three planes, they might have been considered as the assemblage of the four rhomboids, which would have for exterior summits the four angles G, B, D, A; from which it follows that any one of the faces, such as CLGO, is common to two rhomboids, one of which would have its

its ſummit in C, and the other in G, and which would themſelves have a common part in the interior of the cryſtal.

We may remark farther, that a line GS (fig. 77.) drawn from any one G (fig. 76.) of the ſolid angles compoſed of three planes, as far as the centre of the dodecahedron, is at the ſame time the axis of the rhomboid, which would have its ſummit in C (fig. 76. and 77.). The compoſing rhomboids then have this property, that their axis is equal to the ſides of the rhombus. From which, with a little attention, we may conclude, that in each tetrahedron, ſuch as CLGS (fig. 77.), all the faces are equal and ſimilar iſoſceles triangles.

If the diviſion of the dodecahedron be continued by ſections paſſing between thoſe which we have ſuppoſed to be directed towards the centre, and which ſhould be parallel to them, we ſhould obtain tetrahedrons always ſmaller, and arranged in ſuch a manner, that taking them in groups of ſix, they would form rhomboids of a bulk proportioned to their own.

The tetrahedrons, which would be the term of the diviſion, were it poſſible to reach it, ought to be conſidered as the real molecules of the garnet. But it will be ſeen, that in the paſſage to the ſecondary forms, the laminæ of ſuperpoſition, which envelope the nucleus, really decreaſe by rows of ſmall rhomboids, each of which is the aſſemblage of theſe tetrahedrons.

The ſulphuret of zinc, or blende, has the ſame ſtructure as the garnet. Hauy informs us that he has divided fragments of this ſubſtance by very clean ſections, in ſuch a manner as to obtain ſucceſſively the dodecahedron, the rhomboid and the tetrahedron.

2. *Trapezoidal Garnet*, (fig. 78.).

Geomet. Character.—Reſpective inclination of the trapezoids, united three and three around the ſame ſolid angle D, C, G, &c. 131° 48′ 33″; of the trapezoids united four and four around the ſame ſolid angle *u*, *x*, *r*, &c. 131° 48′ 36″. Angles of any one of the trapezoids *m* D *u* L, L=78° 27′ 46″; D=117° 2′ 8″; *m* or *u*=82° 15′ 3″. The value of the angle L is the ſame as that of the acute angle of the nucleus of calcareous ſpar.

This variety is the reſult of a ſeries of laminæ, decreaſing at the four edges, on all the faces of the primitive dodecahedron. For the more ſimplicity, let us firſt conſider the effect of this decrement in regard to the rhombus CLGH (fig. 76.). We have juſt ſeen that this rhombus was ſuppoſed to belong in common to two rhomboids, which ſhould have for ſummits, one the point C, and the other the point G. Let us ſuppoſe that the laminæ applied on this rhombus decreaſe towards their four edges by ſubtractions of a ſingle row of ſmall rhomboids, in ſuch a manner that in regard to the two edges CL, CH, circumſtances are the ſame as if the rhombus belonged to the rhomboid which has its ſummit in C; and that in regard to the other two edges GL, GH, the effect is the ſame as if the rhombus belonged to the rhomboid, which has its ſummit in G. This diſpoſition is admiſſible here in conſequence of the particular ſtructure of the dodecahedron, which permits us to obtain ſmall rhomboids; ſome of which have their faces parallel to the faces of that with its ſummit in C, and the reſt to that having its ſummit in G (D).

The reſults of the four decrements being thus quite ſimilar to each other, the laminæ of ſuperpoſition, applied on the rhombus CLGH, and on each of the other rhombuſes of the dodecahedron, will form as many right quadrangular pyramids, which will have for baſes theſe ſame rhombuſes. Fig. 79. repreſents the pyramids which reſt on the three rhombuſes CLDE, CEBH, CGHB (fig. 76.), and which have for ſummits the points *m*, *e*, *s*, (fig. 76.); but on account of the decrement by a ſimple row, the adjacent triangular faces, ſuch as E *m* C, E *s* C of the two pyramids that belong to the rhombuſes CLDE, CEBH, are on a level, and form a quadrilateral E *m* C *s*. But we had 12 pyramids, and conſequently 48 triangles. Theſe divided by two give 24 quadrilaterals, which will compoſe the ſurface of the ſecondary cryſtal. But becauſe the rhomboidal baſes of the two pyramids extend more, in proceeding from L to E, or from H to E, than in proceeding from D to C, or from B to C, the ſides *m* E, E *s* of the quadrilateral will be longer than the ſides C *m*, C *s*. And beſides *m* E will be equal to E *s*, and C *m* equal to C *s*. Thus the quadrilaterals will be trapezoids which have their ſides equal two and two. There is no cryſtalline form in which the ſtriæ, when they do exiſt, ſhew in a more ſenſible manner, the mechaniſm of the ſtructure than in this variety of garnet. We may here ſee the ſeries of decreaſing rhombuſes which form each of the pyramids CLDE *m*, CEBH *s*, &c. (fig. 79.), and ſometimes the furrows are ſo deep that they produce a kind of ſtair, the ſteps of which have a more particular poliſh and brilliancy than thoſe of the facets, which are parallel to the faces CEDL, CHBE, of the nucleus.

If the decrements ſtop abruptly at a certain term, ſo that the pyramids are not terminated, the 24 trapezoids will be reduced to elongated hexagons, which will intercept 12 rhombuſes parallel to the faces of the nucleus. To this variety Hauy has given the name of *intermediary garnet*.

In the ſulphuret of zinc the regular octahedron is the reſult of a decrement by a row around the eight ſolid angles, compoſed of three planes, viz. C, B, O, G, F, D, A, I, (fig. 76.). The ſame ſubſtance alſo aſſumes the form of a regular tetrahedron, by the help of a decrement by one row on four only of the eight ſolid angles before mentioned, ſuch as C, O, F, A. The ſtructure of this tetrahedron is remarkable, as it preſents an aſſemblage of other tetrahedrons with iſoſceles faces.

Cryſtals

(D) Theory, the author obſerves, has conducted him to another reſult, which is, that the ſum of the nucleus and laminæ of ſuperpoſition, taken together in proportion as the latter are applied one upon the other, is always equal to a ſum of rhomboids; though at firſt view it does not appear that this ſhould be the caſe, according to the figure of theſe laminæ, which repreſent riſing pyramids.

Structure of Cryſtals.

Cryſtals whoſe Molecules are Triangular Priſms.

Oriental.

Hauy has thus denominated the gem which is known under the different names of *ruby*, *ſapphire*, *oriental topaz*, according as the colour is red, blue, or yellow. The different varieties of this gem have not been accurately deſcribed, and the nature of the particular angles of each has not been preciſely indicated, on account of the rare occurrence of regularly formed cryſtals, or when ſuch have been found, on account of their being defaced by being water-worn, or otherwiſe injured. But from ſome cryſtals which were ſufficiently characteriſed, Hauy obtained the following reſults.

1. *Primitive Oriental.*

This mineral cryſtallizes in the form of a regular hexahedral priſm, which is diviſible parallel to its baſes. According to theory, which points out other joinings parallel to the planes, the molecule is an equilateral triangular priſm. The height of this priſm, calculated by theory, is a little leſs than three times the height of the triangle of the baſe.

2. *Elongated Oriental*, (fig. 80.).

Geometric Character.—Reſpective inclinations of the triangles IAS, IBS, 139° 54′. Angles of the triangle IAS, A=22° 54′. I or S=78° 47′.

This form is the reſult of a decrement by a ſimple row of ſmall quadrangular priſms on all the edges of the baſes of the nucleus. Let *q d* (fig. 75.) be the ſuperior baſe, ſubdivided into ſmall triangles, which repreſent the analogous baſes of ſo many molecules. The edges of the laminæ of ſuperpoſition will correſpond ſucceſſively to the hexagons *h i l m n r*, *e k u x y v*, &c.; from which it follows that the ſubtractions take place by rows of ſmall parallelopipeds of quadrangular priſms compoſed each of two triangular priſms.

3. *Minor Oriental.*

Geometric Character.—Dodecahedron formed of two right pyramids leſs elongated than thoſe of the preceding variety. The triangles correſponding to IAS, IBS, are inclined to each other 122° 36′. In each of theſe triangles the angle of the ſummit is 31°, and each of the angles at the baſe is 74° 30′.

The law of which this variety is the reſult, differs from that which produces the preceding, as it determines a mixed decrement by three rows in breadth and two rows in height.

4. *Enneagonal Oriental*, (fig. 81.)

Geometric Character.—Inclination of each ſmall triangle, ſuch as *c q i*, to the adjacent baſe *a c i p l b g e d*, 122° 18′.

This is the elongated oriental, whoſe ſummits are replaced by two faces, parallel to the baſes of the nucleus, with the addition of ſix ſmall iſoſceles triangles *c q i*, *l b f*, *v z m*, &c. the three ſuperior of which are alternate in poſition with the three inferior. Theſe triangles are the reſult of a decrement, by three rows of ſmall quadrangular priſms on the three angles of the ſuperior baſe of the nucleus, ſuch as *b*, *d*, *g* (fig. 75.), and on the intermediate angles of the inferior baſe. It may be readily conceived, that in the decrement which takes place, for example, on the angle *g*, the three rows which remain unoccupied between that angle and the correſponding edge of the firſt lamina of ſuperpoſition, are, 1. the ſmall rhombus *g o i p*, which alone forms the firſt row; 2. the two rhombuſes *o s t i*, *p z d i*; 3. the three rhombeſus ſituated on the ſame line behind the two preceding.

Cryſtals of this gem are chiefly found in the kingdom of Pegu. Some have been found in France, which have received the name of ſapphires of Puy. They have been alſo found at a little diſtance from Velay, on the banks of a rivulet near the village of Expailly, where they are mixed with garnets and hyacinths. Theſe have all the characters of the ſtone which is denominated *oriental ſapphire.*

V. Difference between Structure and Increment.

In what has been ſaid reſpecting the decrements to which the laminæ of ſuperpoſition are ſubjected, the author obſerves, that it was his view only to unfold the laws of ſtructure; and he adds, that he is far from believing that in the formation of a dodecahedral cryſtal, or one of any other form, having a cube for a nucleus, the cryſtallization has originally produced that nucleus ſuch as it is extracted from the dodecahedron, by the ſucceſſive application of all the laminæ of ſuperpoſition with which it is covered. It ſeems proved, on the contrary, that from the firſt moment the cryſtal is already a very ſmall dodecahedron, containing a cubical nucleus proportioned to its ſmall ſize, and that the cryſtal afterwards increaſes by degrees without changing its form, by new layers which envelope it on all ſides, ſo that the nucleus increaſes alſo, preſerving always the ſame relation with the whole dodecahedron.

An example taken from a plane figure will make this more ſtriking; and what is ſaid reſpecting this figure may be eaſily applied to a ſolid, ſince a plane figure may be always conceived as a ſection of a ſolid. Let ERFN (fig. 82.) be an arrangement of ſmall ſquares, in which the ſquare ABCD, compoſed of 49 partial ſquares, repreſents a ſection of the nucleus, and the extreme ſquares R, S, G, A, I, L, &c. that of the kind of ſtair formed by the laminæ of ſuperpoſition. It may be readily conceived, that the arrangement began with the ſquare ABCD; and that different files of ſmall ſquares were afterwards applied on each of the ſides of the central ſquare: for example, on the ſide AB, firſt the five ſquares comprehended between I and M, next the three ſquares comprehended between L and O, and then the ſquare E. This increment correſponds with that which would take place if the dodecahedron began by being a cube proportioned to its bulk, and which increaſed afterwards with the addition of continually decreaſing laminæ.

But, on the other hand, the arrangement may be conceived to be ſuch as is repreſented in fig. 84. in which the ſquare *a b c d* is compoſed of only nine molecules, and bears upon each of its ſides only one ſquare

Structure of Cryſtals.

ſquare *e*, *n*, *f*, or *r*; and that afterwards, by means of the application of new ſquares arranged round the former, the aſſortment has become that of fig. 83. where the central ſquare *a′ b′ c′ d′* is formed of 25 ſmall ſquares, and bears on each ſide of its ſides a file of three ſquares, plus a terminating ſquare *e′*, *n′*, *f′*, or *r′*; and that, in ſhort, by a farther application, the aſſortment of fig. 83. is converted into that of fig. 82. Theſe different tranſitions will give ſome notion of the manner in which ſecondary cryſtals may increaſe in bulk, and yet retain their form; and from this it will appear, that the ſtructure is combined with that augmentation of bulk, ſo that the law, according to which all the laminæ applied in the nucleus of the cryſtal, when arrived at its greateſt dimenſions, ſucceſſively decreaſe, in departing from this nucleus, exiſted already in the riſing cryſtal.

Such is the ingenious theory of the ſtructure of cryſtals, which the author obſerves, is in this ſimilar to other theories, that it ſets out from a principal fact, on which it makes all facts of the ſame kind to depend, and which are only as it were corollaries. This fact is the decrement of the laminæ ſuperadded to the primitive form; and it is by bringing back this decrement to ſimple and regular laws, ſuſceptible of accurate calculation, that theory arrives at reſults, the truth of which is proved by the mechanical diviſion of cryſtals, and by obſervation of their angles. But new reſearches are ſtill wanting, in order to aſcend a few ſteps farther towards the primitive laws by which cryſtallization is regulated. The object of one of theſe reſearches would be to explain how theſe ſmall polyhedrons, which are as it were the rudiments of cryſtals of a ſenſible bulk, ſometimes repreſent the primitive form, without modification; ſometimes a ſecondary form produced in virtue of a law of decrement; and to determine the circumſtances which produce decrements on the edges, as well as thoſe which give riſe to decrements on the angles.

END OF THE SIXTH VOLUME.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE PLATES OF VOL. VI.

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CRYSTALLIZATION.

PLATE CLXV.

Fig. 1. Nitre or Salt Petre.

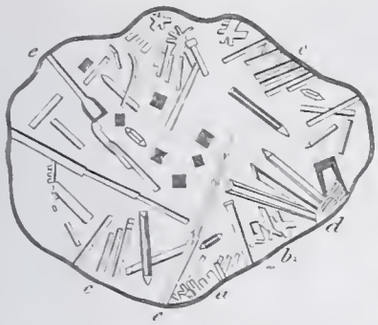


Fig. 2. Blue Vitriol.

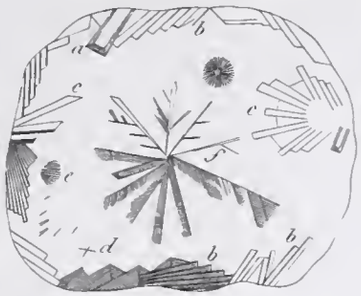


Fig. 3. Verdigrease distilled.

Fig. 4. Alum.

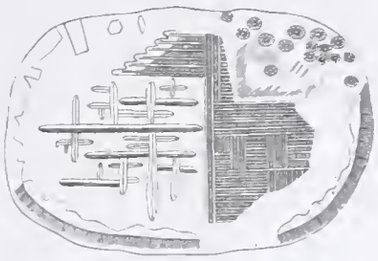


Fig. 5. Borax

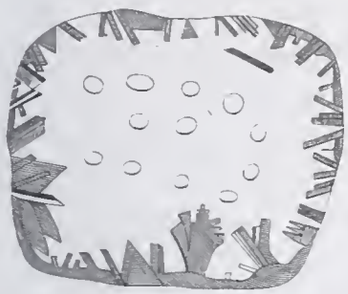


Fig. 6. Sal. Ammoniac.

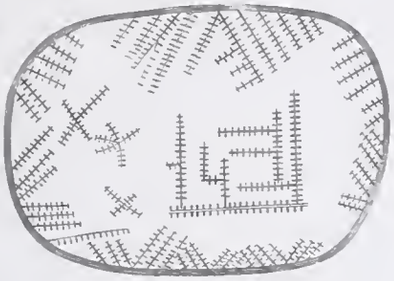


Fig. 7. Salt of Lead

Fig. 8. Glaubers Salt.

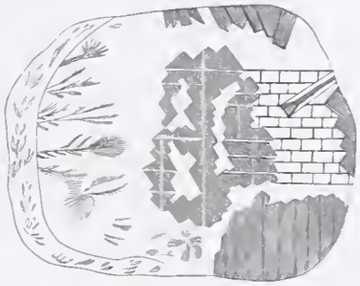


Fig. 9.

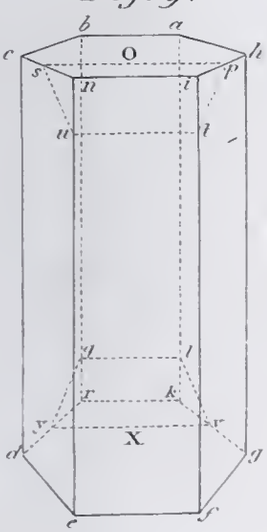


Fig. 10.

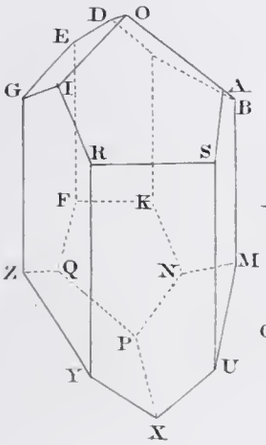


Fig. 11.

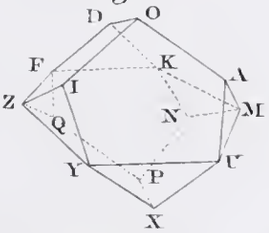


Fig. 12.

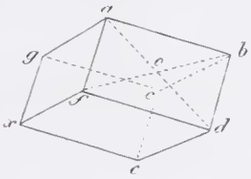
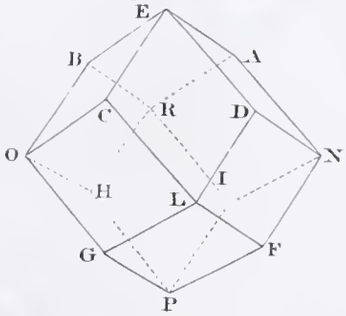


Fig. 13.



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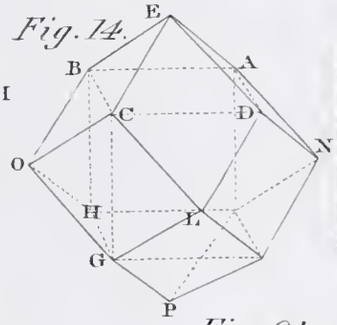


Fig. 15.

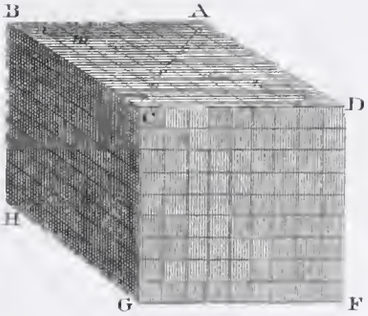
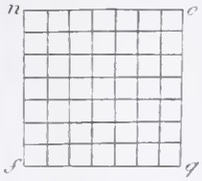


Fig. 16.



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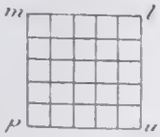

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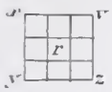
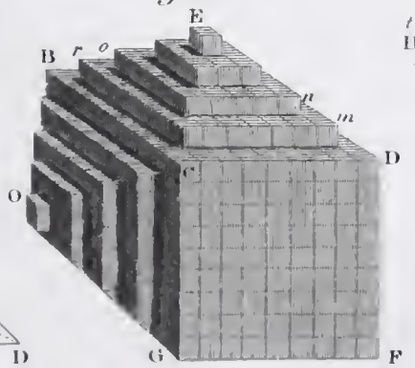


Fig. 19.

Fig. 20.



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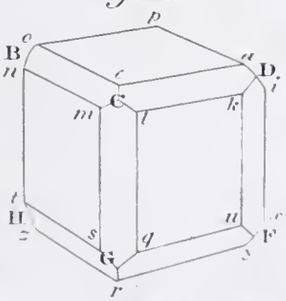

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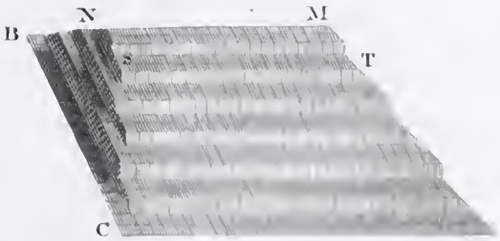


Fig. 23.

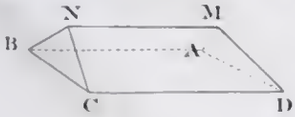


Fig. 24.

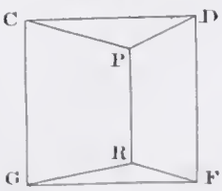
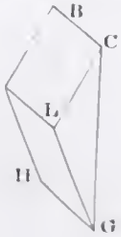


Fig. 25.



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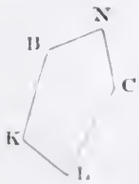
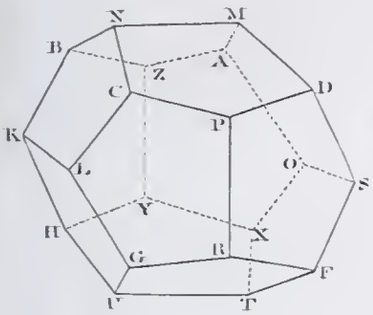


T. Mitchell, sc.

Fig. 27.



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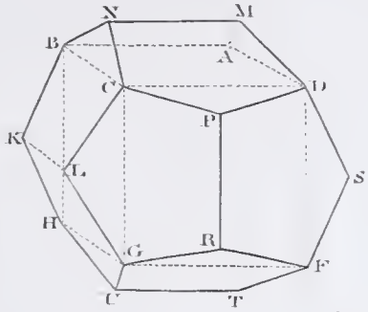
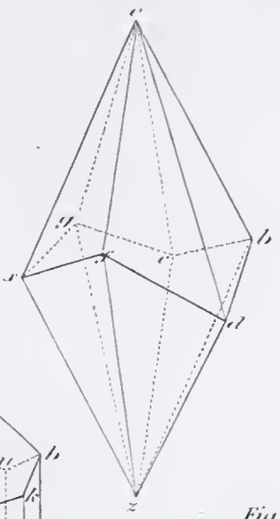


Fig. 29.



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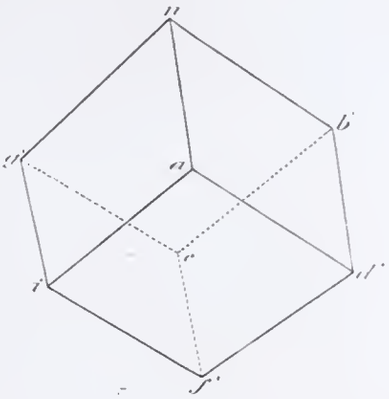

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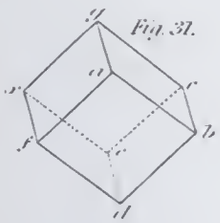

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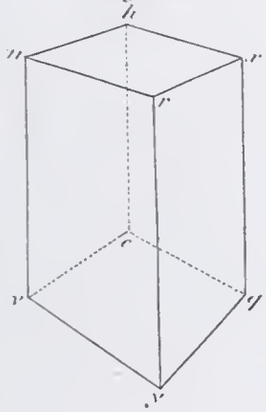

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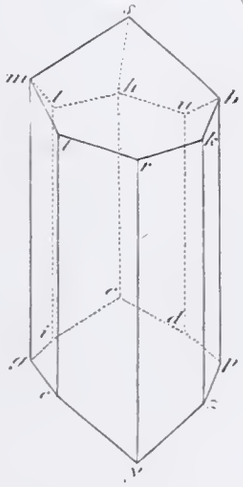

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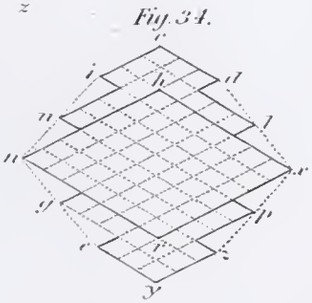

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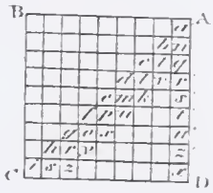

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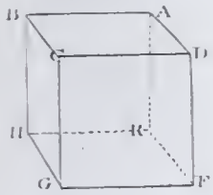
Fig. 37.



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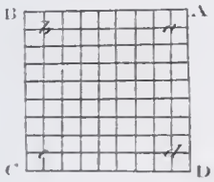

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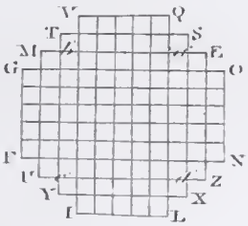

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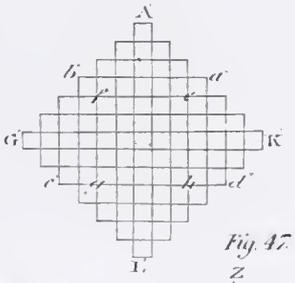

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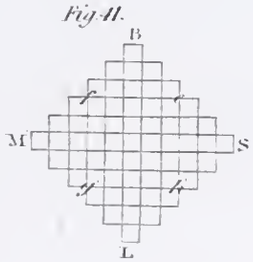

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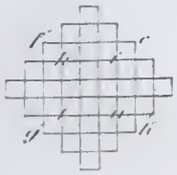

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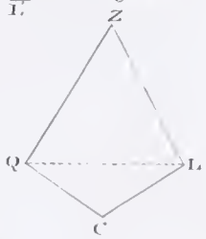

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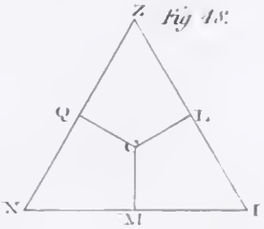

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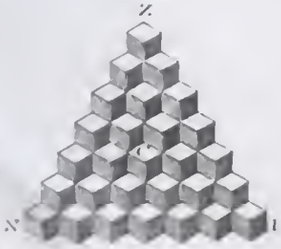

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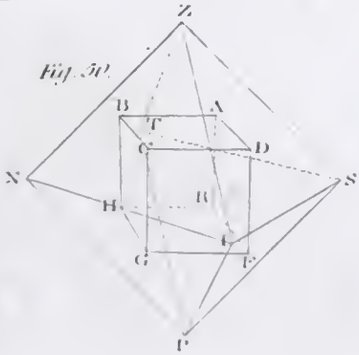

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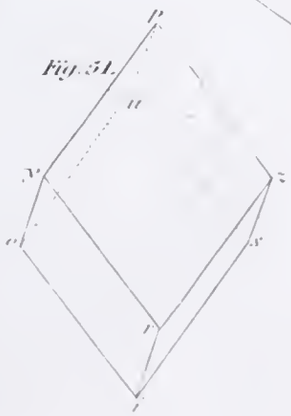

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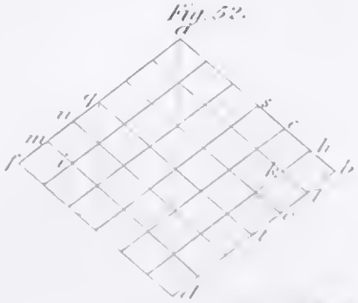

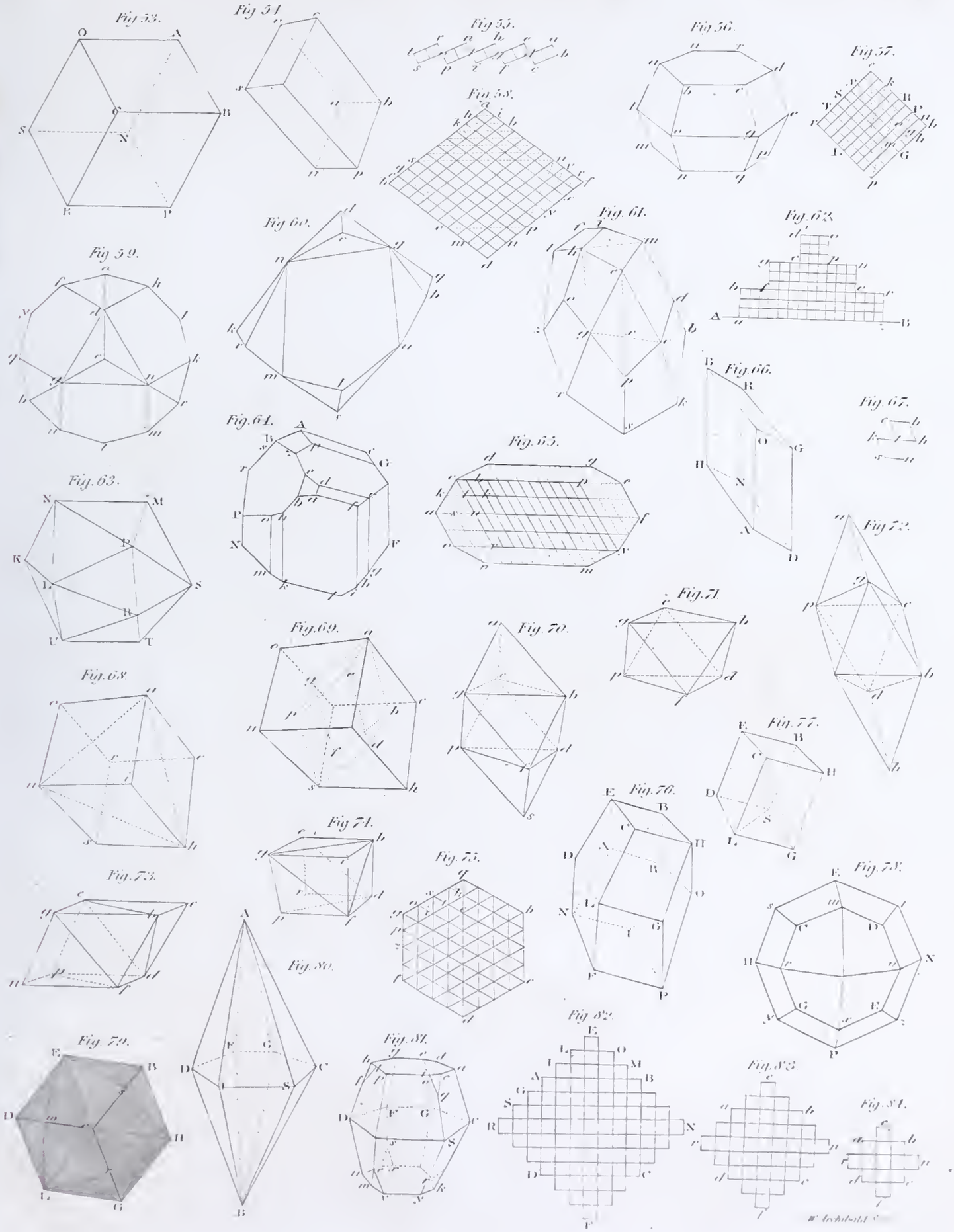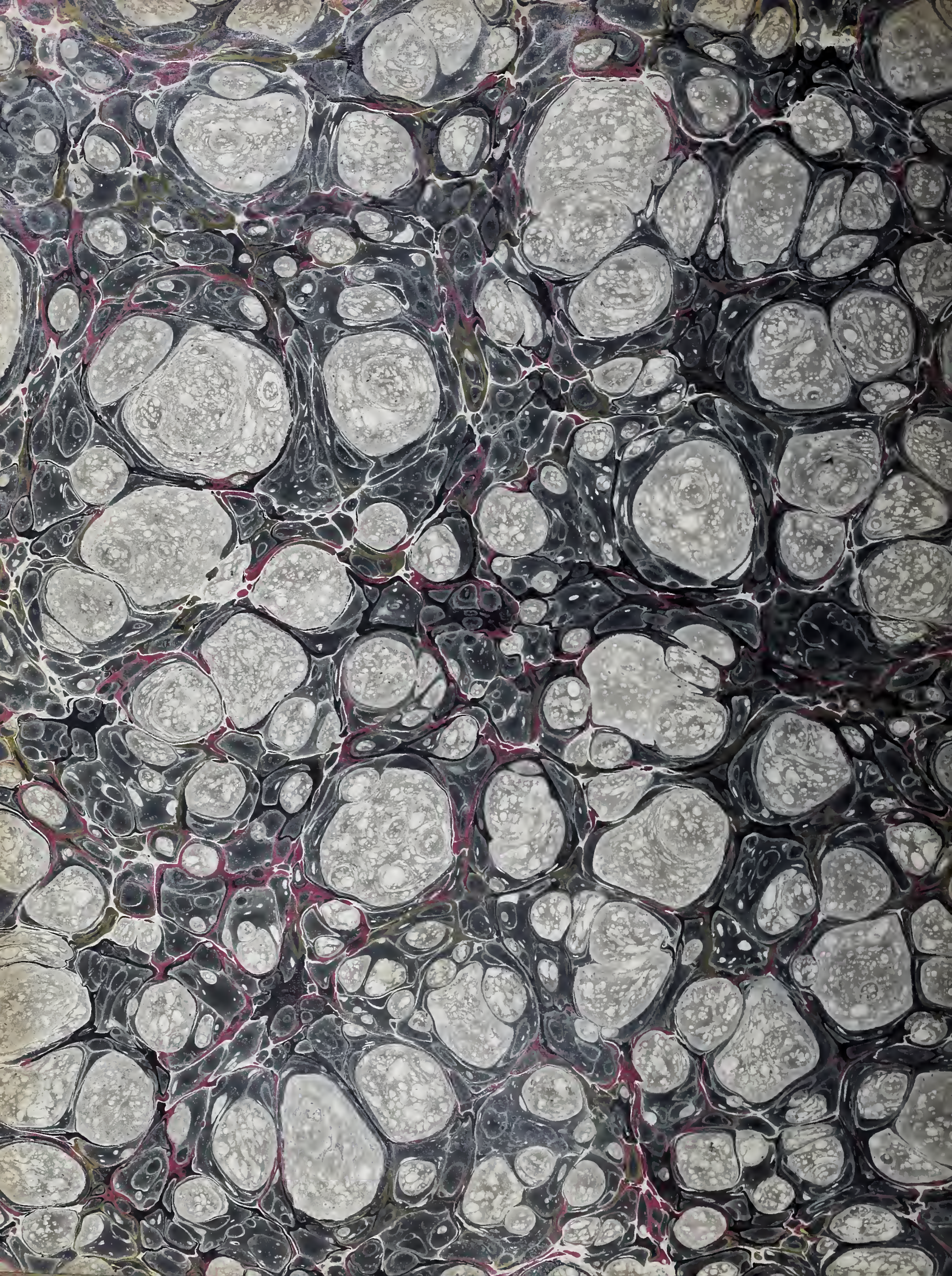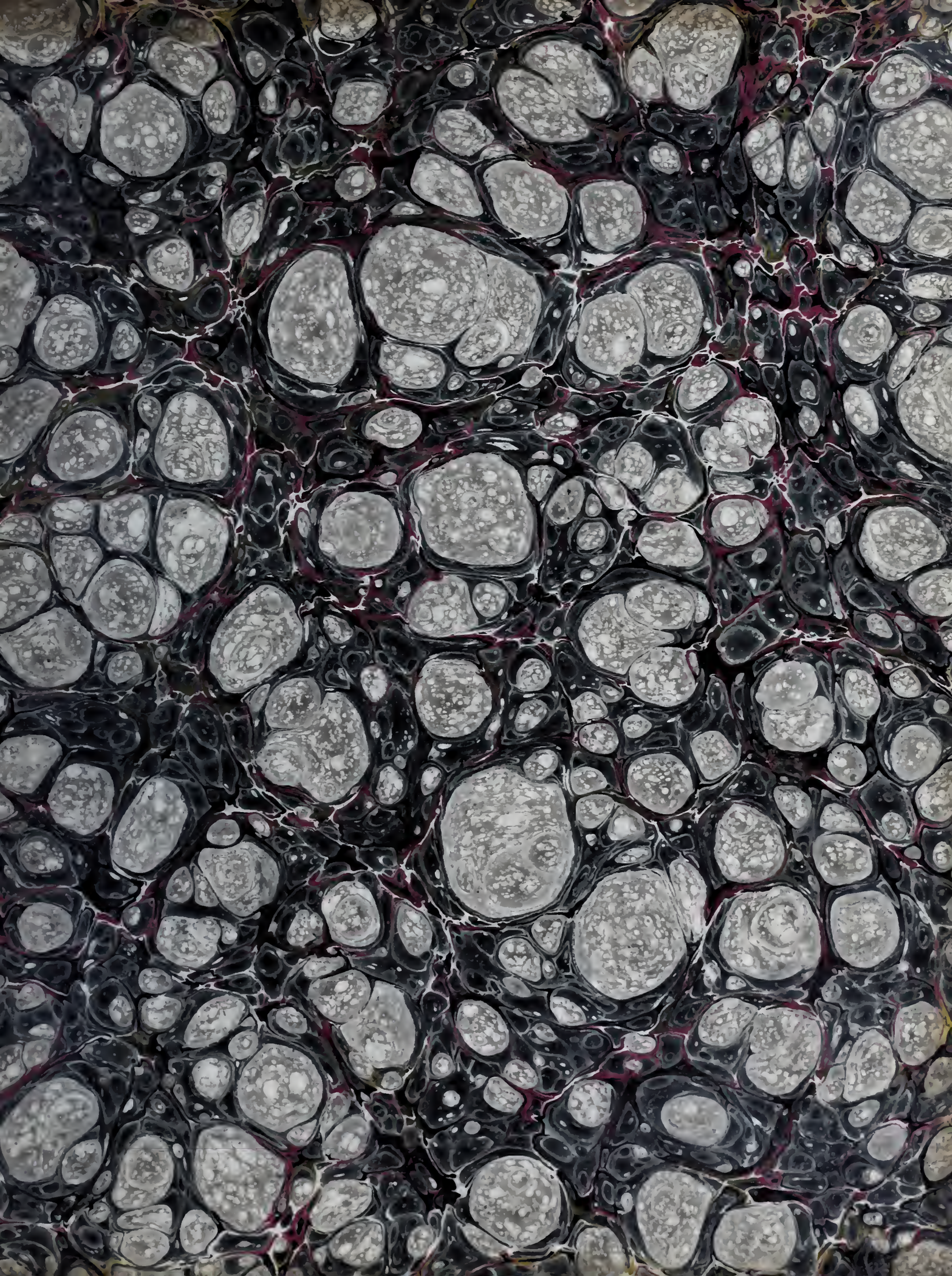
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